Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

82–131 d'Anglejan, Alison (U. of Montréal). Apprentissage des langues à l'école ou ailleurs. [Language learning in school and elsewhere.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montréal), **1**, 1 (1979), 39–63.

Language is learned behaviour, not acquired knowledge. The Canadian experience confirms that the ability to communicate in the second language is best acquired through contact and interaction with native speakers in a favourable atmosphere. While many young people leave school after years of tuition unable or unwilling to converse with French speakers, experiments in combining French for immigrants with carefully selected work-placings or appropriate out-of-class activities have shown a marked success.

There is no one approach to language teaching suited to every learner and although informal learning has proved more effective than formal instruction the school still has a role to play, particularly in the teaching of reading and writing. A new approach and rethinking of techniques and methods can assist adults to acquire a second language within the framework of official educational institutions, on condition that the learner's innate capacity for language acquisition is respected.

82–132 Gary, Judith Olmsted and Gary, Norman (Cairo U.). Caution: talking may be dangerous to your linguistic health. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 1 (1981), 1–14.

Arguments for dealying oral production are (1) cognitive – having to focus simultaneously on speaking and listening distracts the learner from his main objective of understanding the language system underlying what he is hearing; (2) affective – it is traumatic for many learners to try to produce language before they are ready; (3) efficiency – all the students can listen and respond individually in workbooks, hence can receive more exposure to the language than in oral drills; (4) communicative – comprehension is inherently communicative, especially if the message is of real interest to the learner, whereas much oral practice is merely manipulative; (5) media compatibility – listening materials are the most appropriate for use with aural media, which have been found to be of questionable usefulness for oral practice; (6) utility – learners accustomed to a receptive approach are more able to continue their learning alone. Research has shown that language learners who are not required to speak immediately (unless they wish to) make significant gains in all four skills (including speaking) over learners in the typical audio-lingual approach.

'Listening' in this context means 'active listening', i.e attempting to understand and respond to oral communication in a meaningful context. In the classroom, non-oral tasks are carried out following oral instructions: the learner's correct response proves both to the teacher and himself that he has fully comprehended the oral material. Other

non-oral responses are making a pictorial–audio match, a physical response–audio match (as the Total Physical Response method), or a graphic–audio match. Oral responses which are consistent with the idea of delaying include those which are short and have very few grammatical requirements, and those where learners respond in their native language. From an early state, reading can provide visual reinforcement for the listening process. Research was undertaken in Egypt with comprehension-orientated classroom materials which combine the two comprehension skills of listening and reading. Students using these materials showed a marked improvement in listening and reading over a short period, and showed more positive attitudes than a control group.

82–133 Porcher, Louis (E.N.S. de Saint Cloud). Les relations enseignant-apprenant: égalité ou dépendance? [The teacher–learner relationship: equality or dependence?] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Quebec), **2**, 2 (1980), 59–72.

A concern for democratic justice must lead us to change the present dependence of the learner into equality between learner and teacher. Two principles are fundamental: learner-centred teaching and self-directed learning. The former requires (*a*) constant sensitivity to learners' needs (professional and personal, before and during teaching); (*b*) shared management of learning with explicitly and operationally defined and testable objectives in a kind of contract where each partner plays a defined but different role. Self-directed learning should be seen as an end and a means, enabling the student to regulate and monitor his learning, at least partially, since the ultimate social certification rests with the teacher. In foreign-language learning there are three levels of need: (1) what does the learner wish to do with the language (learner's role determinant), (2) what communicative competence does he need? (teacher's role considerable), (3) what linguistic knowledge is required to reach this communicative competence? (teacher's role dominant). Linguistics and didactics are both essential. The Council of Europe projects are valuable examples of this approach, since they are firmly learner-centred.

82–134 Schilder, Hanno (Duisberg U.). Das Verhältnis von Sprachtheorie und Sprachdidaktik. [Theory of language and methodology of language teaching.] *System* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1981), 11–22.

Language pedagogy has close connections with a number of academic disciplines. The most important are applied linguistics, the psychology of learning and general education. Language pedagogy does not only make use of the findings of such related disciplines for its own tasks and purposes, it must also influence the development of their theories. Well known models for the description of language such as structuralism, transformational grammar and contextualism have made only unsatisfactory contributions to the solution of problems in language teaching. Pragmalinguistics must be viewed as a continuation of contextualism. However, at the moment there is no satisfactory typology of conversational gambits which would justify changing the progression of elements for teaching. Moreover, we should also question whether it is realistic to aim at the goal of communicative competence in foreign-language

teaching. The search for better organisation of the learning process has led to theoretical discussions of a pedagogical grammar. But there is, as yet, no pedagogical grammar in the form of a school textbook. For the future it would be desirable if new ideas were put forward less dogmatically and absolutely than they have been in the past. Furthermore, the limits which all teaching in school sets for theoretical concepts must be recognised more clearly. From this point of view language pedagogy has no links with linguistics.

82–135 Shuy, Roger (Georgetown U.). A holistic view of language. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Ill), **15**, 2 (1981), 101–11.

This paper presents the advantages of an analytic, constructivist, holistic view of the learning and training of language, whether native or foreign, written or listened to, productive or receptive. It is a perspective which is in direct opposition to the basic skills approach prevalent in curriculum and materials today. This holistic position respects such skills only if they are not wrenched from the context of meaning and not taught for their own sake or beyond the point of their usefulness. The paper addresses current confusion about the definition of 'holistic'. Context is the critical issue: setting the linguistic forms in a communicative competence framework. It is claimed that the fields of language and literacy have focused their instructional materials and testing content on decoding skills. This approach is at odds with the natural direction of language learning: from function to form.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

82–136 Brouillet, D. (U. of Aix-en-Provence). Effets de la pertinence sur la mémoire des phrases. [Pertinence as a factor affecting memorisation of sentences.] *Cahiers de l'Institut de Linguistique de Louvain* (Louvain), **6**, 3/4 (1980), 3–30.

Tests designed to demonstrate the influence of pertinence (defined as the meaningful relationship between the structure to be acquired and the subject's own conceptual structure) on the processes of memory were administered in two parts to 32 second-year volunteer psychology students. The first was framed in order to test acquisition, the second recognition. Results confirmed the relevance of pertinence for memory and indicated degree of similarity and conceptual specialisation as variables influencing pertinence. Conclusive findings in this field await the results of further experiments testing integration and the influence of pertinence on recall situations.

82–137 Carroll, John B. (U. of N. Carolina). Conscious and automatic processes in language learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 462–74.

A single learning process underlies both first- and second-language acquisition. The learning of any particular aspect of a language starts when the learner consciously makes a response to a given situation on the basis of available information. Depending on the success of the response in achieving the learner's perceived communicative

goals, the response is strengthened and information about the response, the setting in which it was made, and its consequences is stored for use later, when the response may become increasingly automatised. The theory assumes a special view of language performance, i.e., a performance grammar. Apparent differences between first- and second-language acquisition processes are accounted for by differences in the settings in which learning occurs and different kinds of information available to the learner in each case.

82–138   Klann-Delius, Gisela (Nijmegen). Welchen Einfluß hat die Geschlechtszugehörigkeit auf den Spracherwerb des Kindes? [In what way is language acquisition influenced by the child's sex?] *Linguistische Berichte* (Wiesbaden, FRG), **70** (1980), 63–87.

Research in this field is surveyed: results are inconclusive and often contradictory. More information is needed from carefully constructed practical experiments, concentrating on the semantic and pragmatic dimensions of language acquisition. Should any clear evidence emerge to support the view that language acquisition is affected by sex, this should be expressed not in the sense of 'better' or 'worse' but rather in terms of the 'difference'.

82–139   Littlewood, William T. (University Coll. of Swansea). Language variation and second-language acquisition theory. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 150–8.

Individual learners not only differ from each other but vary within their own performance. For the various linguistic features, 'acquisition' consists of a gradually increasing probability of occurrence. Factors which influence this variation are: how communicatively functional a feature is in a specific situation (i.e. the feature is more likely to be produced when it transmits necessary information than when it is redundant); the linguistic environment (for pronunciation, the following sound is an important determining factor); socio-situational factors (speech is more norm-governed in situations like reading word-lists than in free speech). The latter factor explains why learners often appear to master a target feature in the classroom but revert to deviant forms when they leave it. The same psychological mechanisms that produce stylistic variation in L1 probably influence L2 performance. Certain tasks or situations encourage the speaker to produce variants which are closer to some recognised 'norm', either social or pedagogic.

   Three main types of learner are hypothesised: (1) the natural learner, who receives no instruction and recognises no social-normative influences (e.g. some immigrants), (2) the same type of learner, but receiving instruction and hence exposed to pedagogic norms of correctness, but relatively unaffected by them outside the classroom, and (3) the learner who aims at social acceptability and hence is subject to social norms (and is usually regarded as the 'successful' language learner). Patterns of variation are different for the three types, with a range of variation for (3), extremes of variation for (2), and least variation for (1). If the learner recognises social norms in L2, he will activate his L1 mechanisms for 'correctness', which process provides dynamism for his learning process.

82–140 Pierson, Herbert D. and others (Chinese U. of Hong Kong). An analysis of the relationship between language attitudes and English attainment of secondary students in Hong Kong. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **30**, 2 (1980), 289–316.

This study analyses the relationship between English language attainment and attitudes towards English among Chinese-speaking (Canton dialect) secondary-school students in Hong Kong. The subjects were Form IV (10th grade) students from both English-medium and Chinese-medium schools. Attitude measures were obtained by use of both direct and indirect means. Attitudes towards English were measured directly by means of a series of statements concerning the study and use of English to which subjects were asked to respond on five-point scales. Indirectly, attitudes were measured with a scale of stereotypes modelled on the work of Spolsky. The indirect measures obtained did produce some significant results, but these were not as strong indicators of language attainment as the results obtained from the direct measures. In general, the statistical results of this study indicate that, for the population under study, the direct measure of attitude was a better predictor of English attainment than an indirect measure.

82–141 Rubin, Joan (National Centre for Bilingual Research, Los Angeles). Study of cognitive processes in second-language learning. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 117–31.

Some of the major cognitive processes which probably contribute to language learning (as to other kinds of learning) and the problems encountered in observing the specific cognitive strategies used in language learning are identified and discussed. An Observation Schedule was compiled with examples of specific strategies (such as inferencing, monitoring, memorisation) as a useful tool for observing specific aspects of the learning process. The schedule was checked and augmented by classroom and tutorial observation and self-reports by learners.

82–142 Schmidt, Maxine. Coordinate structures and language universals in interlanguage. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **30**, 2 (1980), 397–416.

The aim is to investigate the deletion of redundant elements in coordinate structures using *and* in ESL learners' interlanguages (ILs). In natural language, there are certain universal constraints on the surface orders which may result from the deletion of one or more identical elements in such coordinate structures. Since it has been hypothesised that ILs are natural languages, this study sets out to determine if ILs obey universal constraints on surface orders of coordinate structures and therefore behave as natural languages with respect to these structures. It is shown that they do.

In addition, where ILs differ from English with respect to surface orders, it is proposed that such ESL learners' errors are not best accounted for in terms of surface order transfer or overgeneralisation of a target language rule, but rather that ESL learners may transfer the discourse constraints on deletion from their native language

and create a new IL form in English. Methodological considerations for doing such a study are also discussed. A data base drawn fron a single test can have serious implications for the accuracy of a description of an IL grammar.

TESTING

82–143 Francis, J. C. (Associated Examining Board for the GCE). The reliability of two methods of marking oral tests in modern language examinations. *British Journal of Language Teaching* (Birmingham), **19**, 1 (1981), 15–23.

The efforts made by one GCE board to improve the reliability of oral tests are described. Multiple marking would doubtless be desirable to increase reliability but the cost of training the necessary examiners would be prohibitive. Some analytic methods can also increase reliability. The board in question offers a one-day training session in examining techniques and a one-day standardisation meeting for all newly appointed examiners.

Until 1976 all oral tests conducted by this board used a global impression technique. An experimental analytic scheme which gave different weightings to different aspects of oral ability did not prove conclusively superior so a further investigation was designed in which the oral tests of about 100 candidates in Italian were double marked on three separate occasions. The marking of candidates in a live oral test appear to be more reliable than marking taped tests. Results do not shown any real difference in the reliability of the analytic method as against the global impression technique. However, all the examiners preferred using the grid system, which is analytic, although not all were equally effective using it, and some were very reliable using the impression method.

82–144 Gaies, Stephen J. T-unit analysis in second-language research: applications, problems and limitations. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **14**, 1 (1980), 53–60.

A critical review of arguments for and against T-unit analysis in second-language research, the T-unit being 'a main clause plus all subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures attached to or embedded in it' (Hunt, 1970). T-unit length increases with the development of syntactic maturity. It provides a global measure of linguistic development and allows for the meaningful numerical comparisons between first- and second-language acquisition. Suggestions are made about the validity, usefulness and limitations of this and other measures of overall syntactic complexity.

82–145 Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (U. of Western Ontario). On the development of the attitude/motivation test battery. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 510–25.

The development of an attitude/motivation test battery is described, including, in some detail, both the rationale and techniques employed in the construction and validation

of the battery as well as the issue of test reliability. By focusing on the necessary steps involved in test construction, validation and evaluation it is hoped that researchers and educators in this area will be encouraged to pay more attention to the measurement properties of their test instruments.

82–146 Johns Lewis, Catherine (U. of Aston in Birmingham). Testing communicative competence. *MALS Journal* (Birmingham), 1981, 19–61.

This paper explores progress made towards testing communicative competence, beginning with a brief overview of types of test. It compares discrete point and integrative tests; explores those aspects of communication that test constructors need to be aware of, if they are concerned to test communicative competence; offers a few critical comments on test items which appear to test communicative competence, but do not do so; and suggests a rationale for assembling tests, when the primary focus is communicative competence.

82–147 Oskarsson, Mats (U. of Gothenburg). L'autoévaluation dans l'apprentissage des langues par les adultes: quelques résultats de recherche. [Self-assessment of language learning by adults: some research findings.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **41** (1981), 102–15.

Two groups of adult learners in Sweden and one in West Germany were asked to assess their own competence in speaking and understanding the spoken language. The results corresponded closely with the judgements of their teachers. Differences between teachers seemed to indicate that external assessment could not be considered totally reliable. Students generally tended to under- rather than over-estimate their ability – this was particularly the case with a group of women immigrant workers.

When the students' self-assessments of reading and writing skills were compared with the results of a formal written test these also corresponded closely, confirming that adult learners are well able to judge their own progress even on the basis of the somewhat subjective criteria used.

82–148 Stevenson, Douglas K. (U. of Essen). Language testing and academic accountability: on re-defining the role of language testing in language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 1 (1981), 15–30.

There are 'restricted' and 'expanded' views of the role of language testing. In the restricted view, language testing is seen primarily within its classroom context: a test tests the pupil, not the teacher. The expanded view is more aware that the measurement of language is at the core of the scientific approach to the study of language behaviour, and is interested in other approaches, such as essays, oral interviews, sociolinguistic procedures, teacher judgements and student self-evaluation. It realises that language measurements must get to grips with real-life data. Purpose and use will determine the degree of validity of a test, not its title or type. Those holding the expanded view are usually critical observers of tests and are concerned to protect standards.

Germany is moving away from the traditional view but not yet firmly committed

to the modern. The limitations of language testing are directly connected to lack of precision in linguistic (and educational) theory. Language measures used in research must not be exempted from considerations of reliability and validity, or research theories will be built on crumbling foundations (e.g. much research based on the Bilingual Syntax Measure). Careful and complex research is often misleadingly over-simplified on its way to the literature of language teaching. Teachers and trainee teachers need sufficient familiarity with basic measurement principles and statistics to be able to interpret what they read in professional journals. They also need training in the administration and interpretation of large-scale, standardised tests, about which there is much misunderstanding. These tests offer relatively inexpensive, efficient, and readily available common element for comparisons; they can also be used to test teachers' consistency in scoring.

82–149 Strecker, Bernd. Verfahren zur Messung freier Sprechfertigkeit in der Fremdsprache. [Methods of testing oral fluency in a foreign language.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **80**, 2 (1981), 125–42.

In order to establish an objective way of testing fluency in the spoken language, the 'atomistic' and 'global' methods of assessment are compared. When the atomistic approach is adopted, language is analysed in isolated, mutually independent elements; when the global method is used, these elements are seen as integrated into an organic whole.

Authentic speech achieves its goal (the free, creative communication of ideas) with the help of such things as gesture and mimicry, which cannot be quantified or assessed by the atomistic method, the scope of which is restricted to such elements as intonation, grammar, phonetics and vocabulary and sentence structure used. The global method has the advantage that the various elements which contribute to successful communication are considered in the wider context of the general impression made by the speaker. The best way of measuring oral fluency combines both these methods [such a test is described]. The individual components of linguistic communication should be examined in relation to the effect of the whole speech.

MATERIALS AND COURSE DESIGN

82–150 Mariani, Luciano (Inst. Technico Sperimentale Bollate, Milan). The place of modular systems among foreign-language teaching materials. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1981), 41–9.

Foreign-language teaching materials have so far taken the form of 'compact' language courses or of 'supplementary' teaching aids, including audiovisuals. This article suggests a new way of looing at such materials by introducing the concept of 'learning modules', i.e. elements which can be fitted together flexibly according to different teaching needs and situations. The 'modular systems' thus obtained are described in terms of their advantages and classified according to their specific function in implementing a language syllabus. The integration of modules in a learning system is then discussed, with particular reference to such problems as the relation with

traditional teaching units, levels of linguistic competence, and the use of different methodological approaches. Learning modules should be introduced into the classroom both by having recourse to published materials (examples are given for EFL/ESL), and through the production of modules by language teachers themselves. [Specimen selection of EFL modules developed by the author; some examples of modular construction.]

82–151 Sherwood, Bruce Arne and Chin-Chuan Cheng (U. of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign). A linguistics course on international communication and constructed languages. *Studies in the Linguistic Sciences* (Urbana-Champaign), **10**, 1 (1980), 189–201.

A new linguistics course on 'International Communication and Constructed Languages' deals with the ways in which international communication takes place and with languages constructed for this purpose. The course attracted many non-linguistics students. Half of the class periods dealt with general aspects of international communication, including the uses of Latin, French and English, language policies and practices in international conferences and organisations, the uses of pidgins, the history and typology of constructed languages, and the nature of the Esperanto speech community and literature. In the other class periods Esperanto was taught in enough detail to give the students a solid understanding of the nature of a constructed language. Textbooks and exams are described. [Extensive annotated bibliography for relevant materials held by the University of Illinois.]

TEACHER TRAINING

82–152 Christ, Ingeborg. Die Ausbildung von Lehramtsanwärtern für die Fächer Französisch, Italienisch und Spanisch im Studienseminar. [The role of seminar meetings in the training of probationary teachers of French, Italian and Spanish.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **34**, 2 (1981), 73–80.

The report is based on the personal experiences of trainee teachers of modern languages in grammar schools as well as relevant published material about the experiences of probationary teachers at comprehensive and technical schools.

By compulsory visits to the foreign country in question and by incorporating into the training specific courses geared to the needs of the language teacher, an eduction course should ensure that the student is totally confident in both the oral and written use of the foreign language. The student should be taught to comment on and to formulate in the foreign tongue texts and projects, to take part in and lead discussions and also to understand the living language of television and radio. Foreign-language teaching demands expertise in the realm of literature, linguistics and regional studies, as well as up-to-date knowledge of the results of recent research into language teaching, thus widening the perspectives of the future teacher to include all possible fields of activities. The teacher should be encouraged to read widely and be given guidance on the selection and evaluation of suitable texts. Existing courses should be examined to see if they cater for the various needs of the future teacher.

82–153   Devitt, Sean M. and Czak, Ian Vincent (Trinity Coll., Dublin). Apprendre à enseigner en apprenant. [Learning to teach through learning (a new language).] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **162** (1981), 63–8.

Teachers in training need to appreciate intellectually and affectively the nature of language learning. Seventeen student teachers volunteered to learn an unfamiliar language, Russian, for two hours per week, over 12 weeks. They kept a dairy, noting the content and aims of each lesson, actual achievements, teaching techniques; they also presented a final report. The student teachers experienced some of the attitudes associated with school children: embarrassment, frustration, boredom, sensitivity to the mood of the teacher. Differences in learning rhythms and strategies emerged; the advantages and disadvantages of pattern drills and audio-visual methods were analysed. The fruits of this observation were applied to the young teachers' own lessons. The experiment has been repeated in 1980–81 with more teaching hours, more integrated teaching methods and the use of a questionnaire.

82–154   Ellis, Rod and Robinson, Brian (St Mary's Coll. HE). A reassessment of lesson evaluation in ELT. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1981), 5–9.

The current emphasis on a more learner-centred approach to ELT raises problems for the assessment of teacher-trainee lessons: the teacher who aims to be a 'counsellor' rather than a 'provider' will base his aims and objectives on those of his pupils. A solution lies in recognising that (1) the distinction between lesson analysis and lesson evaluation is invalid; (2) every lesson observed must be evaluated in the light of what the trainee has to say about it, and (3) an attempt should be made to establish what aspects of a successful language lesson are independent of the learner-/teacher-centred distinction.

Classroom checklists are of limited use because they always presuppose an evaluative standpoint, and fail to account for the relationships between teacher/ pupils/materials. Pseudo-scientific checklists are equally inadequate. The observer should make a distinction between the trainee's aims and the extent to which they are realised, and should try to inculcate an awareness of the various methodological standpoints which can be taken. He should be aware of the possible conflict between the trainee's aims and the material he is using, which will probably reflect a teacher-centred approach. The observer and trainee need to discuss any lessons immediately afterwards. Some 'independent' criteria suggested include: the lesson's relevance to the learners' needs; opportunities for communication and for pupil speech; teacher's ability to recognise inattention; effective use of resources; teacher's and pupils' enjoyment of the lesson.

82–155   Puren, Christian (ENS, Abidjan). Des professeurs européens face aux méthodes françaises. [European teachers faced with French methods.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **158** (1981), 21–4.

Teachers from several different European countries who attended a summer course in France in 1980 manifested a surprising resistance to any kind of innovation, in spite

of having chosen to study methodology 'in order to learn new methods' or 'teach better' or 'keep up with new trends'. Although they had in principle adopted an audio-visual approach, in practice their basic underlying attitudes and assumptions remained traditionalist and teacher-centred.

Since a fundamental re-shaping of the personalities of the trainees and any modification of the institutional framework within which they operated were both equally out of the question, the only possibility left for the organisers was the adoption of a purely pragmatic approach based on the practical efficacy of the techniques they advocated. Rethinking the respective roles of trainers and trainees also seemed to be indicated.

82–156 Strevens, Peter (Bell Educational Trust). Training the teacher of foreign languages: new responsibilities require new patterns of training. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 526–34.

The systematic training of teachers raises the average attainment of learners. Training must be for a dynamic profession, not a static one: teachers must be ready to adapt to changing ideas about teaching and learning; they must expect to undergo stages of development as a teacher; they must anticipate changes in their duties as a result of methodological developments. A rationale for teacher training is proposed, setting out criteria for selection; distinguishing between initial and further and between general and specialised training; outlining the components of content in training courses, and stating the effects of duration and level upon the content-mix; pointing out desiderata (including apprenticeship) for acceptance into the profession.

82–157 Wallace, Michael J. (Moray House Coll. of Ed.). The use of video in EFL teaching training. *ELT Documents* (London), **110** (1981), 7–21.

One of the main advantages of video- (and audio-) taping is that it provides an objective record of the teaching moment. Viewing the evidence encourages trainees to be self-critical. Video material establishes a common experience between a group of trainees and their tutors, and can be used to demonstrate teaching techniques. The declining cost of video-taping will make it possible for training institutions to compile their own classroom data to complement commercial tapes. Another use is the widening of trainees' experience by introducing him to unusual or innovative teaching techniques (normal teaching observation being rather conservative). A commentary on the classroom interaction can be added in the form of subtitles or a 'voice-over'. There is no reason why video-based training programmes should be teacher-centred unless this is required. Distance training is another possiblity.

A more common use of video-recording is to enable the student to see himself in a teaching role, usually within a micro-teaching framework. Alleged drawbacks are (1) high level of stress, (2) trainees focus on their appearance rather than 'skills' and (3) are not realistic about their performance. The author finds stress is a negligible factor; self-justification can be avoided; pressure on the 'teacher' can be reduced with group preparation which diffuses responsibility for, say, a micro-lesson. Some kind of framework to help trainees evaluate the data should lesson the danger of (3): for

example, establishing (*a*) what the teacher's aims were and (*b*) what actually happened – observation grids may be useful here to focus on the points at issue. When the data have been agreed, alternatives can be explored. Practical aspects are discussed under (i) technical and (ii) personal.

TEACHING METHODS

82–158 Abé, Danièle and others (CRAPEL, U. of Nancy). Quand les apprenants ont la parole... [When learners have their say.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **41** (1981), 64–85.

Twelve adults engaged in self-directed foreign-language learning reveal needs and views about language and language learning during counselling sessions. They often ask for information on language difficulties, but implicit requests for support and reassurance are equally frequent, as the absence of set objectives and techniques causes uncertainty and even anxiety. Language appears to them as a store of grammatical and lexical forms, with the mother tongue as a constant normative reference. The foreign language is a body of knowledge to be assimilated, through repetition, revision and methodical progress. Self-directed learning, with teacher support, is unfamiliar at first, even when deliberately chosen: some students organise their time successfully, others find it difficult; some use cassettes and other materials without recourse to a counsellor, others see counselling sessions as means to regulate and monitor learning. Attitudes to the counsellor reflect former pupil–teacher relationships at school; authentic documents are also judged by reference to traditional textbooks. The early states of self-directed learning may thus be interpreted as weaning from school learning.

82–159 Alvarez, A. and others (U. of Valencia). Le développement de la compréhension auditive par les documents sonores radiophoniques. [Using radio broadcasts to develop listening comprehension.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **158** (1981), 64–7.

For students learning a language closely related to their own, e.g. Spaniards learning French, the basic similarities between the languages can, ironically, constitute an obstacle to aural comprehension. Learners tend to cling to a word-by-word decoding of the text – a strategy which may well be successful in the very first stages of learning French – instead of attempting to grasp the meaning of the whole before proceeding to study its component parts.

As an instance of the approach adopted to counteract this tendency, a real-life French weather report was recorded and played several times to the class. By means of selective listening, concentrating on one specific aspect at a time, and following suggestions made by the teacher, the students were encouraged to make a positive effort to understand the text overall, instead of passively awaiting the teacher's explanations.

82–160   Atoye, R. O. (U. of Sheffield). Sojourn length as a function of competence in an L2. *MALS Journal* (Birmingham), **1** (1981), 7–18.

Tests on the frequency means of non-target-language pronunciations in the English speech samples (segmental phonology) of 50 Yoruba immigrants in England indicated that none of the effects of length of sojourn in England and level of education reached significance at five per cent. In contrast, the effect of phonological instruction achieved significance at the same level.

82–161   Benadava, Salvador. Questions sur la question. [Questioning questions.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **2** (1981), 228–39.

The questions posed by the teacher in the classroom may be highly artificial, differing from real-life questions which represent a search for information: the teacher, in order to check the students' knowledge or their comprehension, is asking questions he already knows the answers to. The much used question-and-answer drills are tainted with the same artificiality.

A Spanish lesson in a *lycée* south of Paris was recorded on tape. Study of the transcript revealed that the teacher spoke nearly all the time and student participation was minimal. The solution lies in creating a different kind of classroom atmosphere and in encouraging communication between the students.

82–162   Butzkamm, Wolfgang. Die Beurteilung von Unterricht aus dem Blickwinkel der Kommunikation. [Assessing lessons from the viewpoint of communication.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **2** (1981), 2–10.

The goal of all language teaching should be the so-called 'message-orientated communication' – genuine speech based on the wish to convey meaning. 'Medium-orientated communication', which is based on the desire to practice a foreign language, is merely a means to that end. Message-orientated communication depends on the teacher's skill and his desire to communicate, and can not be an objective of a course book.

Classroom conversations should resemble spontaneous conversations outside the classroom in so far as there should be an authentic exchange of ideas between equal partners who use normal gesture and intonation, and who are interested more in what is said than in the way it is said. The course of the conversation, the syntax and the vocabulary should not be rigidly predetermined.

Message-orientated communication can be incorporated naturally into the lesson in two ways: (1) the organisational aspects of teaching can be conducted in German, as can conversation about, say, why X is absent; (2) traditional linguistic exercises, drills, and the creating of sentences according to set patterns can be drawn nearer to meaningful communication if the teacher sets out to illustrate the various semantic uses of the grammatical structure in question and if the teacher has a genuine interest in his students and in their communicative needs.

82–163 Calfee, Robert C. and Piontkowsky, Dorothy C. (Stanford U.). The reading diary: acquisition of decoding. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **16**, 3 (1981), 346–73.

The reading diary is an extensive case history of instructional environment and acquisition of reading skills by 50 first-graders in 10 classrooms. The design includes four categories of data–diagnostic decoding tests, oral reading and comprehension measures, standardised achievement tests, and classroom observations. Students' performance on multidimensional decoding tests indicates a consistent pattern of relative difficulty over levels of letter–sound correspondence, task-demands, and familiarity. The rate at which students mastered decoding depended on classroom instruction. Scatterplots of decoding and oral reading scores, oral reading and comprehension measures, and decoding scores and second-grade achievement scores revealed unique intraclass patterns of growth. The contrastive profiles indicate that beginning readers acquire those skills they are taught, that typical students from lower-income families tend to learn more when teaching is direct and structured, and that some skills (decoding) transfer to other skills (comprehension), but that the reverse transfer does not occur.

82–164 Carver, Ronald P. (U. of Missouri at Kansas City) **and Hoffman, James V.** (U. of Texas at Austin). The effect of practice through repeated reading on gain in reading ability using a computer-based instructional system. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **16**, 3 (1981), 374–90.

The effect of reading practice in a 'repeated readings' format upon reading ability was investigated, using a computer-based instructional system. High-school students who read poorly were given reading training using a recently developed technique called programmed prose, which allowed regular reading material to be automatically converted into training material. Each programmed prose passage was read and reread on a PLATO IV computer terminal until mastery was achieved. Each student was given 50 to 70 hours of individualised instruction on the terminal; over 20 measures of progress were administed each hour. There were two separate studies with six high school students in each study. The results of Study 1 were replicated in Study 2. Specific gains in fluency on the practice task were clearly evident. On one measure of general reading ability, there was a large amount of gain from about grade 5 to 8; however, on another general measure of reading ability, there was little or no evidence of gain. Hence, the effect of reading practice upon gain in reading ability may be limited. A theoretical interpretation of the findings is presented.

82–165 Clifford, John (U. of North Carolina, Wilmington). Composing in stages: the effects of a collaborative pedagogy. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Urbana, Ill), **15**, 1 (1981), 37–53.

Promising classroom techniques were inductively derived from the case studies of Emig, Stallard, Mischel and Beach. Based largely on their findings and using a pedagogical framework from Bruffee, Elbow and Moffett, a collaborative composing

method was developed; it included stages of the composing process, free writing, small group response, and shared authority. To test the hypothesis that a collaborative composing method would improve writing performance more than a traditional one, 92 college students were randomly selected and assigned to six classes. Three instructors taught experimental and control classes. Based on ANCOVA, the experimental group had no significantly greater gains on a holistically scored writing sample. There was no difference in mechanical knowledge or performance even though the control group was directly taught every class.

82–166 Goodacre, Elizabeth (Middlesex Polytechnic). Reading research in Great Britain, 1980. *Reading* (Manchester), **15** (1981), 5–14.

The research reviewed fell into two main strands: (1) studies of the differences between good and poor readers, and attempts to understand the complicated nature of reading disability, and (2) studies of classroom practice, with detailed observation of procedures and techniques such as cloze, miscue analysis, phonic teaching, etc. Areas reviewed include: reading standards and tests, dyslexia and specific reading retardation, remedial reading and provision, reading development, materials and reading. [See *Bibliographies*.]

82–167 Griffin, Suzanne (U. of San Francisco). Video studios: the language labs for the 1980s. *NALLD Journal* (Athens, Ohio), **15**, 2 (1981), 5–15.

Audio lab classes are being rejected by increasing numbers of language students in favour of private, concentrated listening sessions. Students' increased interest in the visual medium needs to be reflected in a greater use of video-based second-language instruction. The video-based language activities described here have been developed over four years of instruction with video tape: for production skills, activities include informal reports and speeches and group drama exercises; for reception skills, lectures, documentaries, dramatic productions, 'cultural capsules'.

82–168 Haber, Ralph Norman and Haber, Lyn R. (U. of Illinois at Chicago Circle). The shape of a word can specify its meaning. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **16**, 3 (1981), 334–45.

Groff (1975) has claimed that the shape of a high frequency word, defined by its pattern of ascending, descending, and small letters, would specify so few words uniquely that shape information would be useless to readers. This paper counters Groff's argument by showing that word shape information, when combined with knowledge of the syntactic and semantic structure of the passage being read, more often than not specifies unique words among all of the alternative high frequency words of English. Groff's error was his failure to consider word shape in the context of semantic and syntactic information, which are also available to the reader. The effects of reading all upper case print are also reviewed to support the role of word shape information in normal reading.

82–169   Hauptman, Philip C. (U. of Ottawa). A comparison of first- and second-language reading strategies. *ITL* (Louvain), **51** (1981), 37–57.

What little research there is, confirms guesses that L1 and L2 reading strategies differ at lower levels of proficiency, and that L2 strategies approach those of L1 with increasing L2 proficiency. A pilot study was conducted with 47 English-speaking students enrolled in French-as-a-second-language classes at the University of Ottawa (a bilingual, English–French institution). The purpose of the study was (1) to investigate the use of L2 syntactic and semantic cues at various proficiency levels in L2 and (2) to compare L1 and L2 reading strategies to find any differences or similarities in the use of cues. Cloze procedure was used. The French texts chosen were translated into English to provide tests of equivalent difficulty. Subjects were anglophone students in intermediate and advanced French classes. Tests were corrected by exact replacement (ER) and appropriate replacement (AR); errors were classified into: syntactic, semantic, both syntactic and semantic, and no response (a blank).

Results for the L2-only tests showed an apparent difference in strategies between groups. Unsuccessful strategies were (i) reluctance to take chances, (ii) failure to notice global cues and (iii) failure to notice local cues. As students progress, their L2 syntax improves and they make few syntactic errors, but also more semantic errors, perhaps because they are more willing to take chances. Lower-proficiency students are less able to use global textual information than more proficient students. Students who have difficulty with L2 semantic information have a similar difficulty with L1. Reluctance to take chances and ability/inability to use global cues in L2 are both paralleled in L1.

82–170   Hawkes, Nicholas. 'Communicative' language teaching and mixed-ability classes. *Tempus* (Helsinki), **3**, 1 (1981), 8–10.

The practical implications of 'communicative' methods for the general language teacher in a mixed-ability class (in Finland) are discussed. The teacher's main needs are (1) to appeal to all the pupils together, whatever their level and (2) conversely, to cater for their differences. Pupils differ in many ways: learning preferences, abilities, etc. Communicative materials based on non-language content should meet both needs. Unlike a structural course, the aims are to learn to understand and express oneself for a specific purpose, not to master a particular language pattern. Topics of interest might include: sports, pop music, our school, hobbies, pocket money, television, exploration.

Classroom organisation and methods should cater for individual differences: after the initial presentation, group or pair-work or individual work is useful, always remembering the egalitarian and socially motivated aims of sharing the learning experience. Problems are greatest in the senior comprehensive school when quick and slow learners have become more widely spread. Techniques suggested are: follow-up exercises for groups graded by ability, mixed-ability groups participating in dialogue presentations or study tasks, provision for individual study, and whole-class exercises

which make provision for differences in difficulty or response (i.e. structured variation in the difficulty level within one exercise). The latter are motivating because the basic text is the same for all pupils: no one feels downgraded.

82–171 Iser, Wolfgang (U. of Konstanz). Texts and readers. *Discourse Processes* (New Jersey), **3**, 4 (1980), 327–43.

The interaction of readers with fictional literary texts is explored. Such texts must be constituted by readers themselves during a dynamic process of creating both the text-sense and the larger contextual background. That process includes such tasks as adopting a viewpoint, creating ideations, images, or integrative gestalts, dealing with empty slots or negations, and coordinating foreground with background, theme with horizon, and current perspectives with previous or anticipated ones. The dynamics of reading are explicated as a continual evolution, modification, and shifting of viewpoint, perspective, and ideation as the text is progressively understood. Since fictional discourse need not reflect prevailing systems of meaning and norms or values, readers gain new detachment from their own presuppositions and expectations; by constituting and formulating text-sense, readers in effect are constituting and formulating their own cognition and becoming aware of the operations for doing so.

82–172 Kelly, Robert (Flinders U., S. Australia). Aspects of communicative performance. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 169–79.

Concern with communicative competence will not necessarily enable students to exhibit appropriate communicative performances, because of a factor called 'performance conditions', i.e. all that is involved in using language in authentic situations. Performance conditions mainly concern the spoken mode (listening): rate of utterance, signal/noise ratio, signal distortion and degradation, clarity of articulation, accent, number of participants, length of the discourse, and distractions. In the written mode, performance conditions include writing speed, handwriting, and reading speed. Students need experience in producing and comprehending appropriate kinds of discourse under typical performance conditions. It may be difficult to simulate these conditions in tests. Practical techniques for teaching might include for, say, aural comprehension, a fairly slow spoken version of a discourse together with exercises in which the difficulty level of the discourse is held constant but the rate of utterance, for example, is increased. ·

82–173 Kramsch, Claire J. (Massachusetts Inst. of Technology). Teaching discussion skills: a pragmatic approach. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **14**, 2 (1981), 93–104.

An exploration of the verbal and behavioural strategies needed to participate with ease and confidence in conversation. Observation and analysis of seminar-type discussions between native speakers and listeners serve as a basis for a tentative classification of discussion functions and their rhetorical markers. The article gives suggestions for applying these observations to the teaching of discussion skills in both French and German classes.

82-174 Krüger, Michael. Landeskundliche Inhalte: Lehrbuchanalyse und Planungskriterien. [Textbook analysis and criteria for course design, with regard to the cultural content.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **2** (1981), 26–32.

No attempt is made to define *landeskunde*; the question is explored of how the cultural content of existing course books helps the language learner and to what extent such information promotes or hinders communication, and under what conditions it should be introduced.

The audio-lingual courses examined contain little or no information about the countries in question, and it is always subordinate to the linguistic content. The mere naming of foreign places serves no useful purpose. Regional studies should be integrated into foreign-language lessons to a far greater extent. Through the study of other societies the learner gains insight into his own. It is less important for him to know 'that it is different over there' than to understand 'why it is different over there'. Outside the classroom such knowledge should help the learner to avoid aggressiveness, submissiveness, prejudice and stereotypes.

82-175 Maas, Klaus F. Ist das Lernziel 'Hörverstehen' operationalisierbar? [Is it possible to teach listening comprehension?] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **28**, 3 (1981), 238–49.

It is possible to teach as well as to test listening comprehension. The teacher should stress that it is possible to follow a passage without understanding every word, and that the pupils are not expected to grasp everything immediately. Pupils should be encouraged to extract as much information as possible by calling on their store of linguistic knowledge, as well as on their powers of anticipation and on guesswork. After the first reading the teacher should ascertain how much the pupils have understood, and vocabulary and grammatical structures should be practised. Then the class should hear the passage again.

Exercises in listening comprehension which introduce new vocabulary and structures can be used with pupils aged 13 and older. Such exercises provide a means of 'stretching' pupils and reawakening their waning interest. The learner no longer merely hopes he will understand – he has been shown how to, and this knowledge is very useful in other areas of language work too.

82-176 Mollica, Anthony (Wentworth County Board of Ed.). Visual puzzles in the second-language classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 583–622.

The use of visual imagery in learing is crucial to recall mechanisms and to the development of eidetic memory and this, of course, is beneficial to language learning. In discussing visual puzzles, the author proposes a three-component model: puzzles where visual representations are included only for aesthetic value (additive visual element), puzzles where the illustration is integrated with the printed word (integrated visual element), and puzzles where only the illustration is evident (pure visual element). Although examples are given mainly in French, the suggestions made also apply to other languages.

82–177 Partington, John (U. of Nottingham, Sch. of Ed.). Teachers' strategies in the foreign-language classroom. *British Educational Research Journal* (Oxford), **7**, 1 (1981), 71–8.

An experiment is described which aimed to discover whether there are patterns in the choices of classroom activities made by teachers which could form the basis of definition of teaching style. Ninety three secondary-school teachers returned a questionnaire indicating which of 21 exercises they had used during a 2-week period. Results showed that teaching activities were heavily biased towards oral question-and-answer, learning vocabularly lists, translation into English, guided composition, reading comprehension tested by questions in the foreign language, pattern practice and sentence building exercises. It was concluded that (1) language-learning activities were restricted to very few types; (2) several teachers said they used other exercises 'for variety's sake', i.e. perhaps more for entertainment than instructional value; (3) the range of activities was very limited; (4) the most used exercises involved reading and writing skills; (5) the nature of the most popular exercises suggests a heavily structuralist approach, with emphasis on detail rather than the broader communicative function; (6) learning seems to be heavily teacher-directed: less controlled activities are accorded relatively low status, despite the fact that the pupils had already been studying a language for three years.

Cluster analysis suggests three distinct teaching styles, and corresponding likely behaviour patterns in the classrooms: teacher A sees the core of his work as comparing and contrasting the foreign language with English, and uses English as the major language of communication in the classroom. Translating activities take up most of the time, with little oral work. Teacher B works as much as possible in the foreign language and balances oral and written work, avoiding translation into English. Teacher C is the antithesis of Teacher A, avoiding all translation exercises and aiming for variety. Like B, he works mainly through the medium of the foreign language, and tries to balance speaking and writing. He alone makes use of more learner-centred activities, such as language games and free composition, and emphasises listening comprehension, unlike A or B. Cluster A was the largest = 39 teachers; B = 21 teachers, C = 15 teachers.

82–178 Perera, Katharine (U. of Manchester). The assessment of linguistic difficulty in reading material. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **32**, 2 (1980), 151–61.

Teachers have to assess the linguistic difficulty of a text in order to be able to provide pupils with reading material at an appropriate level. Informed judgments by a thoughtful teacher may have advantages over the application of a readability formula. The measures of word difficulty and sentence length that are used by the formulae are shown to have weaknesses: short or familiar words are not easy to read in all contexts, and long sentences are sometimes easier than the short ones. An awareness of grammatical constructions which can cause difficulty gives the teacher a principled basis for simplifying a text.

82–179   Richards, Jack C. (Chinese U. of Hong Kong). Conversation. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **14**, 4 (1980), 413–32.

Various approaches to the description of conversation are reviewed. Participants in conversation share assumptions about what conversation is, as well as strategies they make use of to take part in conversation, including principles of conversational co-operation, strategies for the realisation of speech acts, adjacency pairs, openings and closings, topic choice, turn taking, and repair tactics. At intermediate and advanced levels, the teacher should attend to the coherence of the learner's conversation, which will depend on the learner's control of the conversation strategies listed above. The effects of transfer of L1 conversational norms into a second language are discussed.

82–180   Riding, R. J. and Vincent, D. J. T. (U. of Birmingham). Listening comprehension: the effects of sex, age, passage structure and speech rate. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **32**, 3 (1980), 259–66.

Groups of 7-, 10-, 12- and 15-year-old children listened to a prose passage delivered at either a slow or a fast speech rate, and structured either with related pieces of information adjacently positioned or separated by several other sentences. All children received a recall test immediately after listening to the passage. The main findings were that: (1) recall was best for both boys and girls following slow presentation of the passage structured with the related sentences adjacently positioned; (2) at all ages the girls were superior to the boys on the passage arranged with the related details separated, when the speech rate was slow, but they were inferior at the fast rate; (3) while speech rate produced a large difference in recall for young and old children, at 10 or 12 years there was only a slight difference, suggesting that above this age the analysis strategy used by the children changed; (4) girls were more greatly affected by speech rate at 15 years than at any other age. The findings were discussed in terms of their application to the practical learning situation.

82–181   Schaeffer, Reiner H. (US Air Force Academy, Colorado Springs). Meaningful practice on the computer: it is possible? *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **14**, 2 (1981), 133–7.

This study investigated the effectiveness of structural and semantic computer practice across two levels of verbal aptitude. The experiment was conducted with students beginning college German with no previous high-school language training. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three groups: (1) structural practice, (2) semantic practice, and (3) no practice (control). Groups 1 and 2 practised a specific grammatical concept on the computer utilising structural and semantic exercises respectively. A structural exercise could be accomplished based on knowledge of structure alone, while a semantic exercise could be successfully completed only through understanding the meaning of the item/problem. The control group had no practice. All three groups were administered a 40-item post-test consisting of both a structural and a semantic measure. The results of the study support the findings of previous research in

demonstrating the importance of meaningful (semantic) practice in the second-language learning process. The advantages of meaningful language practice are evidently independent of interpersonal interactions. What goes on directly between student and material is evidently an important factor.

82–182 Schulz, Renate A. Literature and readability: bridging the gap in foreign language reading. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **65** (1981), 43–53.

If students are not to become frustrated in dealing with inappropriate literary texts at undergraduate level, they need training in reading comprehension. Selecting texts according to their linguistic difficulty helps students' comprehension. The readability of a text can be measured in three ways: (1) instructor judgement, (2) comprehension testing by cloze procedure, and (3) statistical readability formulae. The limited research available supports the use of similar linguistic criteria for measuring readability in all Western languages [discussion of various research methods]. Classroom teachers should find that the use of the Spaulding or Lix formulae will be the easiest and most dependable. A subjective judgement on other factors (length and organisation of the text, appeal of the content) is necessary in addition to an assessment of linguistic complexity.

82–183 Sharwood Smith, Mike (U. of Utrecht). Consciousness raising and the second-language learner. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 159–68.

Language consciousness raising in the classroom need not be an unrelenting focus on the formal structre of the TL. The learner may discover regularities in the TL for himself but can be guided by the teacher to a greater or lesser extent, more or less directly or explicitly. Four basic types of manifestation are: (1) highly overt conscious-ness raising as found in the standard school grammar, with its concise prescriptions which may nevertheless fail to convey insight to all; (2) brief indirect 'clues' may give the learner a greater feeling of having made a discovery for himself; (3) elaborated *and* explicit guidance in which explanation is broken down into easy, highly structured states, and (4) a less explicit version of (3). Consciousness raising can be accomplished without learners being required to verbalise rules, or 'articulate', which is a special ability. [Discussion of the work of Krashen, McLaughlin and Bialystok.]

82–184 Swain, Merrill and others (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Early French immersion later on. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* (Clevedon, Avon), **2**, 1 (1981), 1–23.

This paper summarises the results of the annual evaluations of an Early French Immersion programme in the Carleton Board of Education and the Ottawa Board of Education. In Early French Immersion programmes, unilingual English-speaking children are initially instructed entirely in French. After several years of instruction in French, French and English are both used as languages of instruction. This paper presents in detail the results of an evaluation of the programme at grades 6 and 8. The results show that in English language skills, and work-study skills, the immersion

students perform as well as, or better, than English programme comparison groups; that in mathematics and science, the immersion students perform as well as their comparison groups; and that in French language skills, the immersion students' performance is approaching or equivalent to that of native speakers of French in some tests of French. The value of long-term evaluations in highlighting the cumulative benefits of bilingual education is noted.

82-185 Szalontai, Eva (Budapest). Suggestive methods of teaching and learning. *Journal of Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching* (Iowa), **5**, 2 (1980), 67–73.

Efficient experimental suggestive methods of teaching worked up in the '60s in the Soviet Union are reviewed. They provide quicker learning and impress texts, foreign words and model phrases in the memory more efficiently. They try to make use of the hidden psychic reserves of man. Suggestive methods reviewed are hypnopaedia, hypnosopaedia, rhythmopaedia, relaxopaedia and suggestopaedia.

82-186 Taylor, Barry P. (U. of Pennsylvania). Content and written form: a two-way street. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 1 (1981), 5–13.

Teaching students to outline their essays before they actually write them is a common practice which presumes that writing is a uni-directional process of recording pre-sorted, pre-digested ideas. While it is certainly true that much of an essay can be planned in advance, the very act of writing can itself serve to facilitate thought and shape ideas. Essay writing is thus viewed as a bi-directional movement between content and written form.

In the ESL classroom this model translates into an approach which places composition revision in a central position. Students are taught how to write and rewrite, refine and recast rough ideas and sketchy drafts into a polished essay. This approach more closely reflects what we actually do when we write.

82-187 Trim, J. L. M. (CILT). The use of media in continuing education: an introduction. *British Journal of Language Teaching* (Birmingham), **18**, 2/3 (1980), 157–62 *and* 169.

A summary of the discussions of working groups at a conference on multi-media language learning held in 1980, covering: course design; organisation at the receiver's end; the home learner (especially support services and self-help groups); use of multi-media courses in teaching institutions (especially problems of training and support of teachers); and use of multi-media language-learning systems in schools. For each area, experiences to date and proposals for further development were discussed.