Language learning and teaching –
theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

82–253 Brünner, Gisela. Berufsfelder für Linguisten. [Career openings for linguists.] *Studium Linguistik* (Kronberg/Ts, FRG), **10** (1981), 81–4

Actual or potential employment areas are: linguistic data processing and computer linguistics (with commercial concerns, state-run institutions or international organisations), centres for information and documentation, terminology work (national and international linguistic standardisation, the development of terminology data banks, the creation of technical dictionaries, work with translation agencies), business concerns and public authorities, media and publishing houses, the teaching of German as a foreign language, tackling the linguistic problems of the Third World, psycho-therapy, and speech pathology.

The general public and potential employees ought to be made aware of the practical value of linguistics, and of how and where it can most usefully be applied. University-level research projects should be set up to look into the practical problems faced by graduate linguists. In order to prepare students more directly for the careers they are most likely to enter, existing university courses ought to be reformed, and, in particular, greater stress should be placed on their inter-disciplinary aspects.

82–254 Dunn, Mary A. Foreign-language learning in Australian primary schools in the mid-seventies. *Babel* (Victoria, Australia), **17**, 1 (1981), 25–35.

Patterns of language provision in different states vary widely, from traditional FLES (Foreign Language Learning in Elementary Schools) to recognition of the languages of minority groups, CLIPS (Community Languages in Primary Schools). A 1976 survey of parents showed a preference for the teaching of traditional languages, particularly French, in primary schools. At the same time, a government committee strongly recommended that opportunities should be given for children to study migrant languages and cultures.

[Provision in the various states is described.] South Australia has been the most active state in introducing FL programmes in primary schools: French, German, Malay/Indonesian, Italian, Greek and Yugoslav languages. Only 2·7 per cent of pupils, however, were studying them as their native language. Victoria and New South Wales have the greatest range of migrant communities. Both the Australian Capital Territory and the North Territory have pioneered efforts in bilingual education. Such programmes are not used extensively in Australia. In most primary FL programmes, English was the medium of instruction.

82–255   Leblanc, Raymond (U. of Ottawa). Les besoins langagiers dans l'enseignement des langues secondes. [The concept of language needs in the teaching of second languages.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **1**, 2 (1979), 31–52.

Criticism of the shortcomings of the structural–situational method has led to the formulation of a new approach based on the language needs of the learner, which in turn has led to an interest in discourse analysis. Some courses based on language needs for special groups of students have been very successful. The process of establishing language needs and deriving from them the linguistic skills which are necessary and the functions of language and linguistic forms to be acquired is a highly complex task, as is evident from Munby's analysis. The practicability of an approach based on communication and language needs is related to the age, level and intellectual development of the learner. For schoolchildren, for instance, a good situational–structural course seems best indicated. Unfortunately, the idea still prevails in some quarters that one method should be valid for all categories of learners. The structural situation approach should not be abandoned, but improved. In the meantime, much work has to be done in the field of language needs.

82–256   Reeves, Nigel (U. of Surrey). Your money or your life? Languages as training or languages as education? *Incorporated Linguist* (London), **20**, 3 (1981), 90–5.

Even as Britain entered the Common Market, a creeping neglect of modern languages was taking place in both schools and industry. Significantly higher numbers of linguists were employed by the firms who were the most successful exporters. The majority of British managerial staff are neither linguists nor of the opinion that foreign-language competence is a particularly important asset. It is erroneous to suppose that foreign-language skills are essentially motor skills such as riding a bicycle, and that the process of teaching and learning them should be regarded as training, to be tackled when business circumstances require. Foreign-language learning is a process of cultural education and moral development which culminates in autonomous activity within a foreign culture. It is only this flexible approach which will fit us for changing demands and realities – the power to cope and to adapt.

82–257   Shuy, Roger W. Educational linguistics. *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **80**, 5 (1981), 455–68.

The paper provides a historical and theoretical viewpoint on the development of applied linguistics in America since the 1950s. The rapid growth of sociolinguistics in the past few decades has clarified the role of applied linguistics within the broader field. The four major domains of present-day American linguistics are: (1) theoretical linguistics, which furnishes abstract accounts of the organisation of language systems, (2) psycholinguistics, which investigates what makes language organisation necessary, (3) sociolinguistics, which investigates what makes the organisation of language systems possible, and (4) applied linguistics, which relates findings in the three

previous domains to relevant teaching and learning practice. Arguing for a terminological shift from applied linguistics to educational linguistics, the author discusses several topics of practical interest: second-language learning, non-mainstream English, first-language learning, reading, writing, and the development of evaluation procedures.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

82–258 Cummins, Jim (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education). Age on arrival and immigrant second-language learning in Canada: a reassessment. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 2 (1981), 132–49.

The popular notion that younger children are better second-language (L2) learners than older children has often been supported by contrasting the native-like fluency of young immigrant L2 learners with the obvious non-native L2 proficiency of many adult immigrants. This popular notion is challenged on the grounds that 'language proficiency' is not a unitary construct; specifically, some aspects of language proficiency, such as reading skills, are strongly related to cognitive and academic development, whereas others involving such basic interpersonal communicative skills as oral fluency and phonology, are less related to cognitive and academic development. Because of older children's greater cognitive maturity, we would expect them to display an advantage over younger children in acquiring those aspects of L2 which are strongly related to cognitive and academic skills. However, no advantage would necessarily be predicted for older learners in acquiring aspects of L2 which are unrelated to cognitive maturity. The recent literature on this issue is reviewed and then data from one of the lesser-known studies, that of Ramsey and Wright (1974), is reanalysed in the light of these hypotheses.

The reanalysis is consistent with virtually all previous studies in showing that older learners acquire cognitive/academic L2 skills more rapidly than younger learners. Older learners also appeared to have an advantage in acquiring L2 sound discrimination and recognition skills but these findings should be treated cautiously due to the questionable validity of the tests.

The finding that it takes at least five years, on the average, for immigrant children who arrive in the host country after the age of six to approach grade norms in L2 CALP has important educational implications and psychological or educational assessment of immigrant children in L2 within their first five years in the host country is likely to seriously underestimate their potential academic abilities: in many school systems ESL assistance is given to immigrant children only during their first two years in the host country. The findings are not necessarily generalisable outside the Canadian social context.

82–259   Felix, Sascha W. (U. of Passau). The effect of formal instruction on second-language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 87–112.

Thirty-four German high-school students learning English as a second language under classroom conditions were observed for a period of eight months. It was found that the students' utterances showed many structural features which are also known to characterise L1 and L2 acquisition. It thus appears that formal instruction cannot eliminate or suppress those processes which constitute man's natural ability to acquire language(s). In contrast to naturalistic learners, however, the high-school students were continuously forced to produce structures for which, developmentally, they were not yet ready. Here, the students used two basic strategies: (*a*) they followed principles of naturalistic acquisition; (*b*) they randomly selected any one structure from a finite repertoire.

82–260   Hall, James W. and others (Northwestern U.). Mnemotechnics: some limitations of the mnemonic keyword method for the study of foreign language vocabulary. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **73**, 3 (1981), 345–57.

The effectiveness of the mnemonic keyword method was examined in four experiments with college students learning lists of 24–32 pairs of Spanish nouns and their English equivalents. The first three experiments, in which the lists were presented for periods of free study, yielding the following results: (*a*) the keyword condition, with keywords supplied by the experimenter, was similar or somewhat inferior to the control conditions both in the Spanish–English (forward) and in the English–Spanish (backward) direction; (*b*) the keyword condition was clearly inferior to controls when students were required to generate keywords; (*c*) keyword and control conditions were similar in retention over one week. In the fourth experiment the keyword method was superior to the control condition with successive, experimenter-paced presentation but inferior with free-study presentation; free study was markedly superior to paced presentation for both keyword and control conditions. Implications for the further study and application of the keyword method, and mnemotechnics more generally, are discussed.

82–261   Long, Michael H. (U. of Pennsylvania). Questions in foreigner talk discourse. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 135–57.

A study was undertaken to investigate relationships among linguistic input, conversational interaction, and second-language acquisition. Tapes and transcripts of eight informal conversations among native speakers of English and 36 conversations between native speakers and students of English as a second language were compared. Differences were found between the two corpora in (1) their discourse structure, and (2) the relative frequencies of certain syntactic and morphological constructions. Relationships existed between the discourse structures and the relative frequencies, and between the relative frequencies and the order in which second-language acquirers produce the constructions accurately in obligatory contexts.

82–262 Stellingwerff Beintema, A. M. D. and Koppelaar, H. (U. of Utrecht). L'influence de différences de l'ordre des parties de la phrase sur la compréhension d'une langue étrangère par des personnes de langue néerlandaise. [The influence of word-order differences on the understanding of a foreign language by Dutch native speakers.] *ITL* (Louvain), **52** (1981), 43–54.

Word-order differences pose a problem for the understanding of French by Dutch native speakers. The aim was to find out whether subjects who are unfamiliar with French are able to establish a 'degree of difficulty' between different types of sentences with French and Dutch word order. From the experiment it was concluded that these subjects are unable to distinguish degrees of difficulty when the word order is not the Dutch one. Subjects were capable of distinguishing degrees of difficulty among various Dutch word-order types.

82–263 Valencia, Atilano A. (New Mexico State U.). Cognitive styles and related determinants: a reference for bilingual education teachers. *NABE Journal* (Washington, DC), **5**, 2 (1980/1), 57–68.

Research on cognitive learning styles is reviewed, and a brief description of 12 such styles is given, e.g. analytic/non-analytic, convergent/divergent thinkers, cognitive complexity/simplicity, field dependent/independent, levellers, sharpeners, scanners, focusers. Some research on the relationship of cognitive style to major field selection is cited: convergers tend to specialise in science and divergers in the humanities, but this does not necessarily result in higher academic performance. The relevance for bilingual education will be in the effects of different instructional strategies across various subject areas. It is helpful if the teacher is aware of this background and develops individual profiles of students. The programme should be flexible enough to accommodate a variety of cognitive approaches.

CONTRASTIVE/ERROR ANALYSIS

82–264 Krzeszowski, Tomasz P. (U. of Gdánsk). The problem of equivalence revisited. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 2 (1981), 113–28.

It is hypothesised that equivalent propositions will have the same deep structure or identical semantic representation across languages. English, Polish and Finnish phrases are used as examples. Attention is drawn to the need to distinguish between semantic equivalence and translation equivalence. The hypothesis is limited to semantic equivalence at the level of the phrase.

82–265 Morrissey, Michael D. Error grammar. *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main) **80**, 3 (1981), 173–94.

A description of noun phrase errors in English made by advanced German students. The description and analysis of the errors is based on the grammatical rules of English that are violated. The author analyses errors in the use of articles, count and mass nouns, possessives, quantifiers and demonstratives in simple noun phrases, errors of

pre- and postmodification in complex noun phrases, and selected errors in noun clauses.

82–266   Sah, Prajapati (Indian Inst. of Tech., Kanpur). Contrastive analysis, error analysis and transformational generative theory: some methodological issues in the theory of second-language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 2 (1981), 95–112.

The role of contrastive analysis (CA) in applied linguistics has changed in the course of its evolution. The aim of the first contrastive studies was the prediction of errors. Mainly through the influence of transformational generative grammar the aim became more and more an explanation of errors. Thus CA became largely complementary to error analysis (EA). The reason for the uncertain role of CA within applied linguistics is the lack of a well defined theory for second-language learning. A model is proposed in which the theory of learning valid for a second language is adapted to that of transformational generative grammar so that the descriptive model of transitional competence is not basically different to that which is valid for competence in generative theory. A model of CA which at the same time predicts and explains errors according to the methodological principles discussed, would be able to incorporate the problems of error analysis into an integrated solution which would eliminate the CA v. EA controversy.

TESTING

82–267   Cross, David. Tests of substitution: a simple alternative to cloze. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1981), 51–3.

A test of substitution can be designed, administered and marked in a matter of minutes. Unlike cloze it does not assess comprehension. Like cloze it demands sensitivity to grammatical function and appropriateness of lexis. At an individual level it provides an indication of vocabulary size in the target language; it may indicate oral fluency. At group level a calculation of verb to noun ratio has proved an efficient indicator of oral proficiency, unlike cloze which provides correlation only for within-group analysis. Repeated errors indicate remedial programmes.

82–268   Ellis, Richard J. (Stevenson Coll. of Further Education, Edinburgh). The assessment of oral skills. *Teaching English* (Edinburgh), **14**, 3 (1981), 19–23.

An oral English assessment (in mother-tongue teaching) should (*a*) signal to the pupil where progress has been made and where more work needs to be done, and (*b*) signal to the teacher where more emphasis should be placed in preparing the pupils. Schools should devise their own assessment of the kinds of skills they think worthwhile for their pupils: a 'package' of skills which will help any pupil in various vocational and social situations. Teachers should all be using the same terminology for the same things. The use of a profile sheet is recommended on which the various skills thought necessary are indicated as segments of a circle. As pupils progress through secondary

school, their teachers will shade in the various segments until they are complete. Such a chart is more suitable for a slow process like acquiring oral skills than a one-off test; progress and shortcoming can be seen at a glance.

82–269 Fischer, Robert A. (Southwestern Texas State U.). Measuring linguistic competence in a foreign language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 3 (1981), 207–17.

The article evaluates several testing techniques which provide a relatively direct assessment of the student's linguistic competence, and reports the findings of pilot tests carried out in first-year university French classes. It was concluded that the most direct means of evaluating linguistic competence seems to reside in multiple-choice test items that require the student to make a comparative judgment of the grammatical acceptability of the options given to him. The nature of the response mode limits its utility to the early phases of classroom testing. Extended use of multiple-choice as a testing device creates a passivity syndrome and yields only marginal returns. After the initial stages of language instruction, the cloze procedure holds the greatest promise as a method for assessing linguistic competence because of its flexibility in deletion patterns and variety of examination formats. In tests of function words the basic open-ended form presents a sufficiently challenging task to the student and provides reliable results. In tests of inflected content words either the lexical inventory form or the open-ended form, which requires more active recall, produces an economical testing device that accurately measures both morpho-syntactic and semantic knowledge. The cloze procedure not only provides a relatively direct evaluation of the student's linguistic competence but also introduces him to the contextual demands of a communicative situation. As such it leads the student from purely linguistic competence to communicative competence.

82–270 Rijlaarsdam, Gert and Blok, Henk (Stichting Centre for Educational Research, Amsterdam). Beoordeling van schrijftprodukten door leerlingen: theorie en praktijk. [Assessment of written work by pupils: theory and practice.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **365** (1981), 753–66.

There is a case for involving students in the assessment of (mother-tongue) written work because (1) it helps students learn more about writing; (2) it encourages students to be independent of the teacher; (3) students are better able to assess the suitability of a piece written for a student audience; (4) they are often better able to explain mistakes and correct points to their colleagues; (5) the method provides for quicker feedback, (6) allows more written work to be done, (7) frees the teacher from the chore of marking, and (8) allows a piece to be assessed several times.

A number of objections to the scheme are discussed and rejected, and results from some studies relevant to the proposal are briefly summarised. The final section reports an attempt to use student assessments in a classroom: 54 students wrote a 10 page article which was assessed, using a 62 point questionnaire, by the teacher and three other students. Reactions to the task were generally very positive.

COURSE/MATERIALS DESIGN

82–271   Allwright, R. L. (U. of Lancaster). What do we want teaching materials for? *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **36**, 1 (1981), 5–18.

The question 'What do we want teaching materials for?' is premature until we establish what there is to be done in teaching and who should do it. Starting with a unified conception of language teaching and learning as 'the management of language learning', this paper proposes a management analysis which establishes a necessarily limited role for teaching materials, given the great complexity of the management problem revealed by the analysis. This leads to a diagnosis of teacher 'overload' and learner 'underinvolvement', with implications for teacher-training and 'learner-training'. (Training is probably necessary if learners are to become productively involved in managing their learning.) 'Learner-training' has further implications for course design and for teacher-training, and raises the question of how teachers can best put their expertise at the disposal of 'trained' learners. Returning to materials, the paper then makes specific suggestions in support of a switch of emphasis from 'teaching' materials to 'learning' materials. Finally the conclusion is drawn that questions of materials should generally be related to the conception of the whole of language teaching and learning as the co-operative management of language learning.

82–272   Ewer, J. R. and Boys, O. The EST textbook situation: an enquiry. *ESP Journal* (Washington, DC), **1**, 2 (1981), 87–105.

Reference to the now extensive literature on EST syllabus and textbook design gives rise to serious doubts as to whether the present EST textbooks are likely to be capable of fulfilling the claims made for them and the expectations they arouse. An enquiry is reported into the teaching contents of ten representative texts, based on parameters which include the extent to which the teaching points dealt with in each textbook cover the main communicative features of formal scientific and technological discourse, the amount and relevance of the explanations and examples given, the number, coverage and adequacy of the exercises provided, and the kinds and extent of the supplementary aids for teachers and students supplied (visuals, notes, glossaries, etc.). The results reveal that there are serious and widespread deficiencies in all the textbooks studied, and the implications for the present and future state of EST/ESP are drawn. Possible reasons which have led to this situation are discussed and tentative solutions indicated.

82–273   Mackay, Ronald. Accountability in ESP programmes. *ESP Journal* (Washington, DC), **1**, 2 (1981), 107–22.

ESP programme designers are often required to answer to financing bodies as to the effectiveness of their programmes. The demand for accountability requires that the ESP specialist add evaluation techniques to his repertoire of skills. It is important that the evaluator does not confuse research and evaluation. The former tests inferences based on observation and phrased as hypotheses; the latter has as its purpose the provision of those in authority with information which can be used in making decisions about improving or modifying the programme. A case study demonstrates an

approach to determining the effectiveness of a specific ESP-type programme and provides a comprehensive framework within which practicable ESP evaluations can be conceived and carried out.

TEACHING TRAINING

82–274 Carver, David and others (Moray House, Edinburgh). Self-directedness and exploratory microteaching in an in-service ELT programme. *System* (Oxford), **8**, 3 (1980), 205–10.

In in-service courses, the prescriptive model (in which the tutor hands on his professional skills to the unskilled students) tends to break down, as the course members will have useful previous experience to contribute. A more structured approach is described, which responds to issues as they arise, but within the framework of theoretical categories. The aim is to help the course member to be self-directed. The programme begins by being tutor-directed as it consists of outlined descriptions of 'classroom events'. Course members then microteach peer groups, and are video-recorded. In discussion, the tutor examines the lesson as a set of data exemplifying various methodological issues, rather than as an individual specific lesson. Issues concern goals (lesson objectives and technique objectives, increased focus, acceptability of language, use or usage, set induction). Issues of presentation concern use of mother tongue or target language, cognitive procedures, situationalisation, etc. Other areas include practice, material, application, organisation and learning. These categories are not 'skills' in the microteaching sense, but issues to which students need to be sensitised as the first stage of the process of the formation of skills. Self-assessment questionnaires are used to pinpoint issues of technique.

82–275 Early, Patrick (British Council, London) **and Bolitho, Rod** (South Devon Tech. Coll.). 'Reasons to be cheerful' or helping teachers to get problems into perspective – a group counselling approach to the in-service teacher training of foreign teachers of English. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 2 (1981), 113–24.

A group-counselling procedure evolved during a short course for secondary-school teachers of English in West Germany is described, which attempts to bridge the gap which always seems to exist between the visiting teacher trainers, bringing ideas from another world, and the local teachers who are often cynical about innovations, knowing the constraints under which they labour in day-to-day teaching. The article describes the conditions which led up to the counselling session, the steps in the counselling process, and the relief which the teachers experienced during and after the session. It compares, retrospectively, the German experience with more broadly based findings on teacher stress, and examines the potential of this type of procedure in in-service training. Implicitly, there is a call for a re-think of the role of the visiting 'expert' in seminars of this sort.

82–276   Williams, Ray. A procedure for ESP textbook analysis and evaluation on teacher education courses. *ESP Journal* (Washington, DC), **1**, 2 (1981), 155–62.

The article examines the applicability of an approach employed in the Open University's four-stage 'Group Study Skills' sessions to ESP textbook analysis and evaluation (TAE) during a teacher education course. The major factors affecting on-course TAE procedure are suggested, and the OU's approach to study skills sessions is set out. On-course TAE factors lend themselves to the OU approach.

The author describes a recent attempt to apply the four-stage OU approach to TAE during a teacher education course in Manila, the Philippines. In particular, an example is given of a TAE 'script' used, and an evaluation is made of the TAE procedure in practice. This four-stage procedure is a distinct advance over the inflexible, predetermined 'check-list' approach, and may indeed be equally applicable to other components of teacher education courses.

TEACHING METHODS

82–277   Armanet, C. M. and Obese-jecty, K. Towards student autonomy in the learning of English as a second language at university level. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London) **36**, 1 (1981), 24–8.

A pedagogical experiment carried out since 1977 has led to the development of an original learning strategy which is flexible and easy to adapt. It places the emphasis on the student and his specific needs and motivations, and is designed to free him from the traditional pedagogical limitations. It is both self-initiated and group-initiated, with support provided by the 'teaching' staff. Individual work alternates with group work, which focuses on the production of a collective 'project' or task corresponding to the set of objectives defined by the members of the group. This enables students to master the social functions of language.

82–278   Battaglia, John (Language Inst. of Japan). Better communication through summarisation. *Cross Currents* (Odaware, Japan), **8**, 1 (1981), 15–27.

A method of teaching summary techniques to high intermediate and advanced students of English is described. The materials are authentic short texts taken from newspapers or magazines. They should be challenging but not too difficult. An initial five-minute reading is followed by a question-and-answer period and a further reading. A set of multiple-choice comprehension questions then focuses students' attention on the key points. The aim of the written summary is to explain the main points of the article, but clarity of expression is more important then the information included. Two methods are suggested: pair work and group work.

82–279   Beatty, Ross. Notions from the field of reading as they apply to TESOL. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), **20**, 3 (1981), 107–11.

Notions from the field of reading are applied to TESOL (the teaching of English to speakers of other languages), covering the elements of readiness, language development, word recognition, oral reading, comprehension, locational skills, and reading at varied rates.

82–280   Beaudoin, Michael and others (Schools Superintendent, NE Alberta). Bilingual education: a comparison of Welsh and Canadian experiences. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 498–509.

At the invitation of the British Council, the authors participated in a study tour of bilingual schools throughout Wales in May 1979. The diverse school language programmes which were visited and the sociopolitical context of Wales bear some striking similarities and, at the same time, some noteworthy differences to the Canadian situation and, therefore, are of potential interest to Canadian educators. This report is a distillation of some of the information and insights that were gained while on the tour. It provides a brief history of the Welsh language in general and then in education specifically. Then follows a description and discussion of different language programmes which exist in contemporary Welsh schools.

82–281   Boys, Odette (U. of Chile). What newspaper advertisements have to say about English language needs. *EST/ESP Chile* (Santiago, Chile), May (1981), 6–12.

A small needs survey was carried out on job advertisements in a widely circulated newspaper. The number of advertisements for jobs requiring English was unexpectedly high. It was by a long way the most important foreign language required in commerce and industry. Jobs ranged across office staff, business and industrial executive staff, technical staff and professional staff [tables]. Nearly two-thirds of the total jobs were for bilingual secretaries, engineers, book-keepers/accountants and salesmen. The demand for EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) is now high, and largely unexpectedly so. Teacher training will be required to cope with the new demands, and the school programme should give much greater priority to EVP and EST.

82–282   Cook, Charles O., III (U. of Denver). Another look at the use of students in the presentation of grammar and vocabulary. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **54**, 6 (1981), 836–41.

Students can be the teacher's most effective and available visual aids. Many of the concepts that can be illustrated by a picture or an object can be presented more dramatically by having students act them out. The action must be simple and informal; while it is in progress, the teacher explains what is happening and asks the class to describe the action. The 'actors' do not speak, but silently follow the teacher's directions (given in French). Simple props may also be used to create a setting. The

8-2

skit is followed by a practice phase [examples]. The elements of play and surprise increase concentration and motivation.

82–283 Cummins, Jim (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). **Four misconceptions about language proficiency in bilingual education.** *NABE Journal* (Washington, DC), **5**, 3 (1981), 31–45.

This paper identifies four misconceptions about language proficiency which are currently impeding the implementation of effective bilingual education programmes. These misconceptions involve: (1) the attribution of deficient language or cognitive skills on the basis of non-standard varieties of L1, and the consequent attempt to eradicate these stigmatised varieties; (2) the attribution of 'English proficiency' to language minority students on the basis of adequate surface structure in 'context-embedded' face-to-face communicative situations, with the result that low English academic performance in 'context-reduced' communicative situations is attributed to deficient cognitive abilities; (3) the belief that L1 and L2 proficiencies are separate rather than manifestations of a common underlying proficiency; (4) the belief that a home/school language switch, or 'linguistic mismatch', is the major cause of language minority students' academic failure.

82–284 Cummins, Jim (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). **The entry and exit fallacy in bilingual education.** *NABE Journal* (Washington, DC), **4**, 3 (1980), 25–59.

The relatively minor impact of research on policy decisions in bilingual education stems primarily not from the lack of research data nor from the sociopolitical ramifications of bilingual education, but from the invalid theoretical assumptions with which the research findings have been approached. In particular, there has been a failure to adequately conceptualise the construct of language proficiency and its cross-lingual dimensions. Two theoretical positions on these issues are elaborated: (1) Cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) becomes differentiated and can be empirically distinguished from basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) in both L1 and L2; (2) L1 and L2 CALP are interdependent – i.e. manifestations of the same underlying dimension. The implications of these positions for bilingual education in the United States are described in relation to current assumptions regarding entry and exit criteria. The 'entry fallacy' consists of the assumption that a consideration of superficial linguistic factors is adequate to determine whether or not a particular student, or subgroup of students, requires bilingual education. The 'exit fallacy' consists of the assumptions that mainstreaming minority children out of a bilingual programme into an English-only programme will promote the development of English literacy skills more effectively than if children were maintained in a bilingual programme.

82–285   de Bot, C. (U. of Nijmegen). Intonation teaching and pitch control. *ITL* (Louvain), **52** (1981), 31–42.

A survey of methods of teaching intonation in foreign-language teaching (excluding tone-languages) is made. (A) Auditive: in most language laboratory methods, the learning of the rules and patterns of intonation is supposed to take place unconsciously by imitation. (B) Auditive + visual: several different types of notational systems are used in courses and handbooks – numerical, graphical and musical, or point-, bar-, lines-, script-, number-, colour- and accent-types. Sometimes more than one system is used. Nearly all types attempt to describe all relevant supra-segmental aspects of a language by means of a minimal number of symbols. Place and amount of pitch change are considered the most relevant aspects.

Some defects of intonation teaching methods are that pupils are expected to reproduce sentences with various pitch patterns correctly when they probably cannot hear the differences in pitch. Nearly all courses are impressionistically based, depending on the author's perception. It is difficult to judge intonation consistently, so prior auditive training would be helpful to pupils, to 'sharpen' their ears. In visual feedback techniques, a target sentence is presented auditively while at the same time its pitch contour appears on a screen; the pupil imitates the target sentence and then compares the contours of target and imitation which both appear on the same screen. Pupils have had difficulty in relating auditive and visual signals, but the technique is promising.

82–286   Drum, Priscilla A. (U. of California). The effects of surface structure variables on performance in reading comprehension tests. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **16**, 4 (1981), 486–514.

A developmental model of performance on reading comprehension tests is described in which variables have stronger or weaker effects depending on the skill level of the reader. This model has been used to identify the structural variables for predicting performance on seven standardised reading achievement tests. The structural variables accounted for about three-quarters of the variation in item p values for the norming samples and revealed different patterns of specific variables in predicting performance from one grade to another. Word recognition and syntactic control variables were more important predictors for younger children. At fourth grade and above, pupils had more difficulty in selecting the appropriate response from plausible alternatives. These results, though subject to limitations, are nonetheless useful in suggesting procedures for constructing more appropriate tests of comprehension.

82–287   Ehnert, Rolf (U. of Bielefeld). Bausteine zu einer Video-Didaktik für den Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Various elements of teaching methods using video equipment in foreign-language classes.] *Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld), **2** (1980), 135–40.

The main advantage of video is that it can add a touch of authenticity to the classroom situation. However, the over-use of video encourages a passive consumer attitude on

the part of the learner. To guard against this, the teacher should use the video sparingly and only show short film sequences with maximum involvement of the pupils.

The legal aspect should not cause great concern, though the teacher should be careful not to fall foul of copyright laws. Nor is undue cost a valid objection. The main drawback to videos is the fact that there are at least five mutually incompatible systems available. This prevents exchange of material and cooperation on a big scale.

The main criteria for choosing material are: the length of the film; the ease with which it can be subdivided into sequences of no more than three minutes; the relevance of the subject matter; and the linguistic suitability. Video recording of pupil-oriented lessons for play-back and analysis by the class is still to be developed. Video should become an essential part of the teacher-training process so that the student teacher can be made aware of his gestures and non-verbal reactions.

82–288   Gaudiani, Claire (National Humanities Center, NC). The participatory classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **14**, 3 (1981), 173–80.

The participatory classroom aims to involve the individual student in the learning process as fully as possible. Its use in intermediate, multi-skill French courses is described. The students are encouraged to share the teacher's duties. Goal development is the initial explanation of course objectives; students also prepare personal assessment statements at the beginning of each course, which help them to develop analytical skills and can also be used for individualising instruction techniques. The degree of students' commitment is closely related to the teacher's involvement with them. Workshop sessions on grammatical points increase teacher–group interaction. Unexpected quizzes and tests are power-play threats and should be avoided. Creative ambience is maintained by avoiding tedious repetition. The students' role includes evaluating their own work and helping their classmates. Course and teacher evaluations are also encouraged. This approach has been found to be more satisfying and more efficient than more traditional methods.

82–289   Gez, N. I. (Moscow). Роль условий общения при обучении слушанию и говорению. [Factors involved in the presentation of material in the teaching of listening and speaking.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), **5** (1981), 32–9.

Speed of delivery, the number of repetitions, the length and scope of the text, (supporting and orientating elements) are considered in relation to aural comprehension. Ways of measuring the tempo at which a text is delivered are discussed, together with the weight to be given to pauses. Comprehension is best where natural pauses are observed and an average rate of speech is adopted. Rephrasing is more valuable than repetition for most learners, but may not be appropriate for immature beginners.

The duration of text appropriate to various ages of learners is considered, as are subject matter and style in relation to ease of comprehension. The role of intonation, pauses, rhetorical questions, repetition are among features of natural speech crucial to comprehension of any audio text, whether spoken or pre-recorded. Research into comprehension of audio texts presented simultaneously with the written or printed

form is reviewed. Evidence to suggest that a combination of the two results in improved comprehension is weighed against the need to ensure the establishment of correct audio images.

82–290 Gimson, A. C. (University Coll., London). The pronunciation of English: its intelligibility and acceptability in the world. *Modern Languages* (London), **62**, 2 (1981), 61–8.

More than 300 million people use English as a first language; the total number of users is probably 600 million. So how much mutual intelligibility exists among the many varieties of English and how 'incorrect' or unacceptable are some of the different kinds? A high level of efficiency in day-to-day communication can be achieved with a limited vocabulary and a minimal command of syntax, providing interlocutors share certain basic features of phonology. Factors which inhibit comprehension include noise and unfamiliarity with the subject matter. The level of intelligibility can be measured but 'acceptability' is harder to define, particularly as regards pronunciation. Yet in the field of teaching English as a foreign language a choice of model in pronunciation as well as in grammar has to be made.

In estimating the degree of success which the English-speaking communities of the world have in communicating with one another, three categories of speaker are considered: (1) mother-tongue users – mutual intelligibility is high, mainly because of improved communications; (2) users of English as a second language and as a lingua franca in their own country (e.g. India and Africa) – there are alarming divergencies of lexis and grammar, and especially of pronunciation. The gaps between these various forms of spoken English are growing dangerously wider.

Possible remedies are (*a*) the pronunciation of a mother-tongue form of English should be strictly prescribed as a model in the training of teachers, or (*b*) an international 'neutral' pronunciation should be devised, containing the dominant features of the main mother-tongue English accents. Solution (*a*) is the more realistic; native speakers would find (*b*) difficult to use and teach.

82–291 Hausfeld, Steven (Macquarie U.). Speeded reading and listening comprehension for easy and difficult materials. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **73**, 3 (1981), 312–19.

Comprehension was compared for speeded reading and for listening to compressed speech. A reading and a listening group of literate adults were presented with three easy and three difficult passages, with one passage at each difficult level presented at each of three speeds, 180, 290, and 380 words per minute. No difference between reading and listening comprehension levels or quality was found at any of the speeds or difficulty levels, contrary to previous suggestions of a listening disadvantage. Reading and listening comprehension were related to subjects' habitual reading speeds. There was evidence of a working-memory processing limit of about 275 words per minute. This processing limit indicates the importance of silent reading strategies.

82–292 Hieke, Adolf E. (U. of Tübingen, FRG). Audio-lectal practice and fluency acquisition. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **14**, 3 (1981), 189–94.

A technique is outlined which offers systematic and controlled practice in connected discourse while emphasising the oral discourse features of the target language: rhythm, tempo, and pausing, as well as the alternation of suprasegmental patterns and contours typical for connected speech. A simultaneous mode of cue-feeding makes it possible for the learners to listen to, read along with, and imitatively record texts concurrently. The resulting discourse practice helps them assimilate and gain familiarity with the properties of fluent speech in the target language. The paper explains the principles of audio-lectal practice (ALP) and the 'fifth skill' required to master this technique (concurrent listening, reading and speaking), and it discusses how such a programme operates. First test results on the effect of imitative speech practice on spontaneous speech and its fluctuation in fluency are cited from an experimental ALP programme at the University of Tüebingen.

82–293 Hill, Brian (Brighton Poly.). Linguistics and statistics. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 3417 (25 Dec 1981).

The broadcast media, reaching half a million people, are the single most important provider of language teaching/learning material. Yet relatively little is known about the subtle interaction between the learner and radio or television. The French government and the Goethe Institut are collaborating on a three-year research programme at Brighton Polytechnic with the aim of (1) surveying a representative cross-section of the population, both 'pure' beginners and intermediate level; (2) using different production techniques for pilot programmes to be tried out on a large scale, and; (3) producing full broadcast-standard pilots to be assessed by learners, the results to be fed into new series. The first stage is nearly completed. Initial results are that 15 per cent of the adult population (about 19 million people) know no French at all (75 per cent know no German), 81 per cent have no qualifications in French (96 per cent for German). Those unwilling to improve their French made up 74 per cent (79 per cent for German). Three quarters of the population have never seen or heard a language broadcast, but, on the other hand, nearly seven million people have seen or heard a French programme and half a million a German programme.

82–294 Holmes, Glynn and Kidd, Marilyn (University Coll., London, Ontario). Serving learner needs: from teletype to micro. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 2 (1981), 125–32.

For the past four years the University of Western Ontario has been developing CAL (Computer-Assisted Learning) programmes to assist in the learning of foreign languages, specifically French, Italian and German. The facilities offer the student an adjunct to classroom teaching and, as such, their use is purely voluntary. In view of this, particular care has been taken to create a system that will promote positive user reaction. Lessons are carefully designed so that, in addition to being pedagogically sound, they are also easy to use and presented in an interesting manner. Because students are working independently, detailed analysis and pertinent feedback are

crucial features. The project originally ran on teletype printers connected to a remote mainframe. More recent experiments have been centred on the use of the colour microprocessors. [Discussion of the relative advantages and disadvantages of the two systems in addressing a variety of learner needs.]

82–295 Jobin, Lise and others (Commission de la Fonction Publique du Canada). **Ces petits mots qu'on oublie... [These little words we forget...]** *Médium* (Ottawa), **6**, 2 (1981), 37–43.

The function of these 'little words' is: to structure the discourse by introducing the subject, announcing a change of subject or concluding the conversation; to assure the speakers of mutual comprehension by showing that they have understood and checking that the other has understood or simply by filling a silence. Techniques used include repetition, requesting clarification, reformulation, the whispered suggestion, use of synonyms and suggesting examples. The foreign learner can acquire confidence from observing that native speakers also pause, hesitate and repeat themselves, and that these activities, properly used and controlled, can serve a useful purpose in facilitating communication.

82–296 Juel, Connie and Holmes, Betty (U. of Texas at Austin). **Oral and silent reading of sentences.** *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **16**, 4 (1981), 545–68.

The study examined whether oral and silent sentence reading represent the same cognitive process for children, and whether good and poor readers differ in their approaches to reading in the two modes. Reading rate and comprehension scores for oral and silent reading were compared for sentences which varied in terms of decodability (regularity of phonic patterns), word frequency, syllables in words, and semantic difficulty of sentences. Results suggest that oral and silent sentence reading represent a similar cognitive process. However, there was evidence that readers decrease processing time on difficult words in silent as compared to oral reading. This tendency was particular striking for poor readers.

82–297 Kamarás, Istvan and Nagy, Attila (National Széchényi Library, Budapest). **Reading research in Hungary.** *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **4**, 2 (1981), 81–91.

Much recent reading research in Hungary has focused on the formation of readers' attitudes and value judgements. This paper reports the results of a number of such studies, based on research with various groups, including library users, 'skilled-worker' students, and children. A 'more books' programme has been found to be successful in developing a more discriminating approach to literature, but there is concern over national trends in reading. International studies have shown Hungarian students to be comparatively good at science but poor at reading. More books are being bought, and the proportion of women readers is increasing, but adults are spending less time on reading, and have a growing interest in non-fiction. The results of reading research in Hungary are not regarded as of purely theoretical interest. Such results are regularly used by librarians and by educational administrators.

82–298 Knop, Constance K. Directions for change in an audio-lingual approach. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 4 (1981), 724–38.

The audio-lingual approach should incorporate changes suggested by recent research into communicative competence (devoting more time to free responses and more active communicative activities, including questioning techniques). Teachers should plan activities bearing in mind the importance of an exchange of information, that students should initiate as well as respond, and activities must be meaningful and realistic. Possible communicative activities are suggested: interviews, problem-solving, talking your way out of a situation, role-playing. The teacher's role is that of diagnostician, engaging in error analysis rather than error avoidance. Cognitive mapping of learning styles uses inventories and interviews with students to find their preferred way of learning new materials, so that lessons can build on their preferences and strengths, with specific reference to skills, social interactions or presentation. An easily administered test consists of a brief set of questions.

Class activities should vary in the skills used so that every student has some satisfaction as regards learning style. Research on classroom interaction suggests that more attention should be paid to the inner needs of the student. The Maslovian scale of development suggests that students must feel secure first and foremost. Frequent positive reactions by the teacher are important. Their rewards may be linguistic, non-verbal, verbal-communicative and communicative-personal. Teachers should be prepared to answer questions as well as asking them.

82–299 Krakowian, Bodan (Łódź U., Poland). Techniques of teaching in the 'pre-speaking' period. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 2 (1981), 133–9.

Learning a foreign language should begin with a period of training in listening comprehension. Delaying speaking calls for new techniques which could be used in this 'pre-speaking' period, and which would ensure the learners' active participation in the lessons. The following eight techniques are discussed: (1) following directions, (2) solving problems (or multiple choice pictures), (3) same/different, (4) true/false, (5) completing sentences, (6) answering in the native language, (7) translation and (8) dictation.

82–300 Marty, Fernand (U. of Illinois). Reflections on the use of computers in second-language acquisition. *Studies in Language Learning* (Urbana-Champaign), **3**, 1 (1981), 25–33 [also in *System* in 2 parts: pt I in **9**, 2 (1981), 85–98].

A computer language course is described which aims to give students a high level of accuracy in the four skills. The minimum requirements for such a course are (1) when the student begins to work, he should be returned to the point where he last finished; (2) he is free to interrupt an exercise and proceed to another one; (3) he should know beforehand what the purpose of each exercise is; (4) he should have the option of typing his answer or viewing the correct answer; (5) when he types the correct answer there is no need to reward him with special effects; (6) if he types an incorrect answer, he

should be guided to correct his error with the minimum of help, i.e. initial feedback '*Non*'. If he needs help, he can choose from four different levels – vocabulary items, cues as to morphology or syntax, or step-by-step analysis of his error. Errors which he discovers and corrects on his own are less likely to recur.

The computer can count and classify all the student's errors, and can review any grammar item. Performance data are for the student's use and not for grading. Such a programme offers gains in time and performance; students can achieve higher levels of concentration over longer periods, which results in greater retention. The cost is estimated at about $250 per year per student. [Hints for teachers wishing to use computerised materials; possible future developments for CAI.] [Special issue on 'The PLATO system and language study'.]

82–301 Paviolo, Ema T. (Pennsylvania State U.). Spanish structural density score: an index to linguistic maturity. *NABE Journal* (Washington, DC), **5**, 1 (1980), 17–26.

This study was designed to determine those linguistic variables observed in the writing of native Spanish-speaking students which would best predict their levels of linguistic maturity, using grade levels as a basis of comparison. The sample population was composed of 34 male and 56 female Spanish-speaking students, randomly selected from fourth to ninth grades. Two stimulus pictures were chosen to elicit 200-word writing samples. The frequencies of 21 linguistic structures in the two writing samples were used as predictor variables in a stepwise regression analysis in which the grade level of each student was used as the criterion measure. The sum of the weighted frequencies of coordinated T-units, sentence adverbials, structure words, compound predicates, and adjectivals was found to be optimal in the prediction of linguistic maturity.

82–302 Porter, Don and Roberts, John (U. of Reading). Authentic listening activities. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **36**, 1 (1981), 37–47.

The authentic listening experience involves more than exposure to certain features of language – it involves a great variety of listening activities, such as listening to the radio, face-to-face conversational interaction, greetings, etc. Specific listening activities are suggested to promote active guessing (a kind of 'listening role play'): station announcements (mutilated message), weather forecasts (focused listening for specific information), radio broadcasts (evaluative listening and scanning), tape recording of a song (use of context and cultural knowledge), radio advertisements ('minimal' comprehension), extracts from conversations (to encourage guessing). Listening activities should be integrated with the rest of the course. Authentic texts will be more difficult than idealised material: a transcription may be helpful. In real life, the listener is aided by features of the setting. Acquiring knowledge of format and probable content is part of cultural boundary-crossing.

82–303 Quinn, T. J. What should we expect of community language pro-grammes? *Babel* (Victoria, Australia), **17**, 1 (1981), 36–47.

Objectives for community language teaching should be realistic and achievable (the term refers to languages spoken by Australian immigrant groups and not traditionally taught in schools). Community language programmes range from 1–3 hours per week of teaching the language as a school subject (common) up to a full bilingual programme (rare). Three common perspectives are those of (1) social justice, (2) linguistic resources, and (3) multicultural/interactionist – all are ill-conceived and unrealistic. The multicultural approach paradoxically destroys the very compartmentalisation that helps minority languages to survive. Knowing the language of another group is a necessary but not sufficient condition for cultural interaction with that group. The school system will have less effect on the maintenance or demise of minority languages than factors like marriage patterns and ethnic community attitudes.

Realistic objectives for choosing to have a programme in Modern Greek, etc., are the same as for any other language or subject, i.e. intellectual and cultural. Community language programmes must transcend the local community; they should be enriching as the best foreign-language programmes are enriching.

82–304 Ramirez, Arnulfo G. (State U. of New York). Language in bilingual classrooms. *NABE Journal* (Washington, DC), **4**, 3 (1980), 61–79.

The role of language in bilingual classrooms is particularly significant because of the deliberate attempts to manipulate the use of two languages in the instructional process. Language use in bilingual schools is partly affected by the goals of the programme and the choice of the instructional model. Studies of language use in Spanish–English bilingual classrooms have focused on four major areas: (1) amount of English and Spanish used, (2) functional uses of English, Spanish, and code-switching, (3) language use during verbal interaction, and (4) factors which affect language choice. Various research studies are examined in terms of implications for bilingual education.

82–305 Roe, Peter J. (British Council, Paris). Fundamental principles of ESP methodology. *Recherches et Échanges* (Paris), **6**, 2 (1981), 1–10.

This paper considers some basic reasons why ESP has earned itself a bad reputation in some quarters. All LSP (language for special purposes) must be seen as text, on the one hand (e.g. words, phrases, sentences, structures, etc.) and discourse (or communicative act, elocutionary force, etc.) on the other. Text is incapable of purpose. Only people have a purpose. Purposes can be seen variously as acts, moves, exchanges, negotiations, tasks or some wide context of task. Only people can perform these. These units of 'purpose' cannot be analysed into text. Elements of text are not elements of discourse. We cannot determine purposes by identifying text. Neither can we predetermine text by identifying purposes (with the possible exception of certain items of lexis in high specialised subjects). Needs analyses specified in terms of text cannot be LSP specifications because they give no indication of purpose. This is the principal error of most so-called ESP materials. (Materials are nearly always text and therefore

purposeless.) The most manageable unit of purpose for classroom management is the task [definition of the notion of task and its application to programme design].

82–306   Sampson, Gloria Paulik (Simon Fraser U.). A functional approach to teaching writing. *Forum* (Colchester), **19**, 3 (1981), 10–13.

In the functional approach, students perform tasks; in carrying out the tasks they discover that certain language forms are required. Tasks must have (*a*) a product as an end result (short speeches, news broadcasts), (*b*) a specific audience, (*c*) a function and (*d*) a linguistic focus. Tasks should be embedded in the context of a theme, or area of experience (games, the city, technology). This approach provides reading and writing tasks which are motivated and individualised.

82–307   Schachter, Jacquelyn. The hand signal system. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 2 (1981), 125–38.

When a student produces an error the teacher needs to make an instant decision on whether to correct the error, and, if so, on how to correct it. Three commonly used verbal feedback techniques are discussed and criticised, and a proposal is put forward for a nonverbal feedback technique comprising a set of hand signals, each of which is used to indicate a certain error type. [Discussion of the value of the use of negative feedback in the classroom.]

82–308   Schweitzer, K. K. Situational teaching und Simulation im kommunikativen Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Situational teaching and simulation in communicative foreign-language teaching.] *Englisch* (Berlin), **16**, 3 (1981), 89–96.

Pragmadidactic influences have brought about considerable changes in foreign-language teaching theory, particularly in introducing such concepts as communicative competence and advocating a more functional approach to teaching. Pragmatic discussion is now concentrating on trying to establish the stable underlying factors amid changing didactic trends and to reunite didactic practice and theory, thus healing the rift which has grown between them and prevented full recognition of the fact that the resulting communicative ability must be greater than the teaching input. The situation is of essential importance here. It is not regarded as simply the framework for presenting grammatical structures, as in conventional situational teaching, but as providing the essential pragmatic context for the simulation of real communication. In the simulated real-life situation, the role-players react and respond to the circumstances dictated by it and experience simulated consequences which relate to their decisions or performance. Thus, the situation has direct bearing on 'appropriate ways of saying things'. The original communication is reduced in the simulated model to control its application, but not to an extent which would interfere with the model's logic(ality). Simulations therefore provide a bridge to reality and to communication by establishing a close interconnection between situation and 'appropriate ways of saying things'. [Copious examples.]

82–309   Sinatra, Richard. Visual compositions and language development. *NALLD Journal* (Athens, Ohio), **15**, 2 (1981), 16–23.

This paper presents a visual literacy approach for improving verbal development. Organised slide stories called visual compositions are shown to be a useful aid for visual/verbal interaction in the classroom. A model is presented showing the six levels or stages of literacy development which are achieved with the use of each slide story. The initial and final stages indicate the teacher's role: involving students in viewing the same visual experience and then helping them share, edit, and react to each other's written compositions that were written about the visual theme. The four middle levels of the model represent the verbal and nonverbal processing modes achieved by each student through viewing, imagining, composing, and writing. The approach stimulates language and ideas while providing an organising strategy for written paragraph development. The strength of the visual involvement is that it provides a procedure for language discovery while achieving cooperation between the visual/spatial, holistic mode of right brain processing and the analytic, sequential mode of left brain processing. The right brain encourages the formation of images, impression, and feelings about the pictorial story while the left brain consciously works on the words and sentences that capture those meanings. Motivation and stimulation to write and to read are provided by this approach.

82–310   Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove (Roskilde U.). Guest worker or immigrant – different ways of reproducing an underclass. *Journal of Multilingual and Multi-cultural Development* (Clevedon, Avon), **2**, 2 (1981), 89–115.

An attempt to relate the different functions of migrants in the capitalist system to educational provision in different countries for the children of migrant workers and immigrants respectively. The migrant workers' children are being educated to fulfil the needs for cheap flexible labour. The school system keeps them separated from the majority society and ready to be sent home whenever the labour of their parents is not needed any more. The immigrants' children are being educated to fulfil the function of a social buffer, to prevent higher social strata from experiencing the worst impact of structural changes in the capitalist world economy. Both groups are educated so that they do not as groups have any chance of economic and social progress. The educational systems for migrant children in West Germany and Scandinavia are examined to illustrate the claims, and the role of the researchers, trying to handle the conflicting factors involved (segregation or forced assimilation), is discussed.

82–311   Smolicz, J. J. and Lean, R. (U. of Adelaide). Parental and student attitudes to the teaching of ethnic languages in Australia. *ITL* (Louvain), **49/50** (1980), 91–116.

One fifth of Australia's population is now derived from a variety of non-English-speaking backgrounds. According to the Federal Government's 1975 survey, as many as 15 per cent of primary-school and 12 per cent of secondary-school children had

a native tongue other than English. At secondary level, only 10 per cent were actually able to study their mother tongue; at primary level, less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent (1 in 70). Three studies carried out by the University of Adelaide on parents, trainee teachers and students are reported; the aim was to discover the extent to which Australian languages other than English were being maintained and studied, as well as attitudes towards them. The data showed that while ethnic languages were being maintained in the home for communication with parents and other ethnic adults, ethnic-Australian children used English almost exlusively in conversation with their own generation. Moreover, the level of literacy in the ethnic language, where it existed at all, was minimal. These results raise the question of whether ethnic languages can remain living traditions.

There are three realistic alternatives in relation to language at the individual level: (1) dominant (English) monolingualism, (2) bilingualism, either as (*a*) a minority phenomenon, or (*b*) among both Anglo- and ethnic-Australians. The latter is most likely to ensure a permanent state of linguistic pluralism. The studies tried to probe which of these possibilities was most favoured.

While some parents responded positively to the learning of ethnic languages, both at home and at school, others accepted the right of parents to teach their languages in the home domain, but objected to their teaching in the school. As many as 83 per cent of children though that ethnic Australians should keep their own language. Support for bilingualism among all groups is greater among children than parents. Trainee teachers favoured the teaching of ethnic languages, and tended to support the idea of bilingualism for all Australians.

82–312 Tahta, Sonia (City U., London) **and others.** Foreign accents: factors relating to transfer of accent from the first language to a second language. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), 24, 3 (1981), 265–72.

This study examined predictors of transfer of accent from the first language (L1) to a second language (L2), in a group of people whose acquisition of English as an L2 had begun at ages ranging from 6 to 15 +. The effect of age of L2 acquisition is very marked. If L2 acquisition had begun by 6, there is no transfer of accent. If L2 acquisition began after 12–13, there is invariably accent transfer, usually very marked. When accent transfer occurs between 7 and 11, it is usually very slight. These findings agree quite well with those of other studies, but there are discrepancies and these are indicated and discussed. Between 7 and 11, accent transfer may be affected by factors other than biological maturation. In this study, the only such factor to emerge strongly was whether L2 was used in the home, suggesting a shift of identification from the L1 to the L2 culture.

82–313 Teaching modern languages. An 'Education' digest. *Education* (London), **158**, 15 (1981), i–vii.

This 'digest' touches on some currently unresolved problems and special difficulties of foreign-language teaching. A look at the history of the discipline shows that meaningful use of the language is essential for classroom sessions to be effective (the

'great reform' of the 1880s and 1890s). There were sharp differences about objectives, especially as to the 'natural method' (imitate the child learning its mother tongue), the 'direct method' (banish the mother tongue from the classroom) and the 'phonetic method' (base teaching on the new 'living phonology' of, e.g. Henry Sweet). Later developments included the Leathes Report in 1918 which recommended ancillary study of a foreign language for all sixth formers, and caused the creation of the Subsidiary Paper as a target for such study (axed in 1950).

Recent topics covered include French from Eight, and the tape recorder. Progress in the 1970s stemmed from initiatives by practising teachers to improve motivation among less able learners, and a major advance in second-language acquisition theory which suggested that effective teaching should exploit activities which concentrate on the forms of the language and lead to insight into the language, as well as activities which distract the learners from form by getting them to accomplish some purpose. The challenges to teacher training include some integration of mother-tongue and modern-language teaching, and how to check the flow of teachers from the profession.

82–314   Tordoir, Atty (Stichting Centre for Educational Research, Amsterdam). Taalbeschouwing voor MTO en VTO. [Language study in mother-tongue teaching and foreign-language teaching.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **364** (1981), 641–59.

This article discusses the place of grammar teaching in mother-tongue and foreign-language teaching. Current practice in Holland is discussed, and generally held views about what grammatical ideas are necessary and how they should be taught are considered. Some attempts to bridge the gap between mother-tongue teaching and foreign-language teaching are outlined.

Part II is devoted to the relationship between mother-tongue teaching and foreign-language teaching in other countries. The 1972 Turku symposium considered this question at length, and these deliberations are reported together with discussions which the author has had with knowledgeable people in England, Switzerland, Germany and Hungary. In none of these places does grammar teaching play an important part in foreign-language teaching.

It is concluded that traditional grammar is not taught satisfactorily, and there are few attempts to bridge the gap between mother-tongue and foreign-language teaching. Much could be gained by emphasising the similarities between mother tongue and foreign language. There is a case for teaching language *per se* independently of either the mother tongue or a foreign language, and that linguistics might be expected to play an important role in this. The aim should be for every pupil to gain personal insight into language.

82–315   Williams, David (Ahmadu Bello U.). Factors related to performance in reading English as a second language. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 31–50.

The results of a study of the reading performance of 368 Nigerian primary-five pupils are reported. The study assessed performance in reading English as a second language in relation to variables such as (1) language environment, (2) reading resources, (3)

attitude towards reading English, (4) exposure to the mass media (English), (5) type of school, (6) sex differences, and (7) age. Data were collected from tests of comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and rate of reading and from questionnaires administered to pupils, teachers, and head teachers. Results of multiple regression analyses indicated that type of school and reading resources were the best predictors of scores on the reading tests. The multiple regression analyses also showed that attitude towards reading English contributed significantly to the prediction of reading performance, although this variable, taken separately, did not correlate very highly with scores on the reading tests. Exposure to the mass media, and age, acting in combination with other variables, accounted for some of the variation in the reading scores. Language environment as a single factor correlated substantially with reading performance, but the influence of this variable was apparently suppressed in the prediction analyses. Sex was one of the least important variables in the prediction of the reading performance scores.

82–316 Windeatt, Scott (U. of Lancaster). A project in self-access learning for English language and study skills. *Practical Papers in English Language Education* (Lancaster), **3** (1980), 43–82.

Characteristics of self-instructional courses are (1) an emphasis on learning rather than teaching, (2) the importance of student motivation, and (3) provision for individual choice. Such courses can taken a variety of forms, which differ in the role accorded to the learner. The self-access project for overseas insessional students at Lancaster is described, with particular reference to (*a*) self-assessment procedures, (*b*) materials design, and (*c*) access to materials. [Self-assessment questionnaire and several sample worksheets are included.]