The British Association for Applied Linguistics

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The following support scheme 1985
New from the

CURRENT INFORMATION:

Communications
Mention again under the auspices of the Communication of the Presson
Publications: Journal of Interlanguage Communication

REPORT ON RESEARCH IN PROGRESS:

Peter Shahan
Success and Failure in the Learning of a Second Language
A Follow-up Study

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Abstracts of Papers

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The following is a good example in submitting other members will follow.

The Newsletter is likely also to be an interest are we hope.

The abstracts of the annual meeting are included in this issue.

The following letter is from the British Association for Applied Linguistics.

The following is a good example of the Newsletter's contents.

The following letter is from the British Association for Applied Linguistics.
and is 'applied' in the sense that its outcome hopefully has some significant implications for foreign language teaching, and in many countries, it is carried out in close cooperation between teachers and researchers. I wonder what this cooperation would look like today if researchers had seriously attempted to convince teachers instructing, say, Danish, French, Polish or German learners in English that their students did not rely on their mother tongues, when this was precisely what teachers experienced in their daily work.

It is not surprising, then, that in Europe, the predominant paradigm in which the contrastive hypothesis was the Interlanguage hypothesis and its well-known varieties as formulated by Pit Corder (1967, 1971), and William Nemser (1971). Work on transfer from a descriptive-linguistic perspective continued, of which Carl James' book (1980) is an excellent example. At the same time, empirical and psycholinguistic transfer studies were initiated by Kellerman (1977) and Jordens (1977), exploring what makes L1 material transferable or non-transferable from the learner's point of view.

As the limitations of the Identity hypothesis became increasingly apparent (cf. e.g. Tarone 1974, Kennedy and Holmes 1976, Rosansky 1976), the need for a theory that can account for both acquisition universals (e.g. the acquisition hierarchy established for relative clause formation by Keenan and Comrie (1977) and Comrie and Keenan 1979) and transfer from L1 or L2 was more and more recognized as well. Today, much work in North America is devoted to investigating the relationship between universals and transfer in L2 acquisition (e.g. Gass 1979, 1984, Zobl 1980, 1984, Andersen 1983, and Gundel/Tarone 1983).

Very timely, the Michigan conference on language transfer in 1981 marked a new and more enlightened era for transfer studies. The research question as it puts itself today on both sides of the Atlantic is thus no more 'is transfer a relevant phenomenon in L2 acquisition and use, or is it not?'. The generally shared assumption is that it is, and consequently, the questions to be asked about transfer have multiplied: we would like to know what the conditions are for transfer to take place, and how it interacts with other factors and procedures in L2 learning and use. We would like to know no less, and probably more, than where learners transfer what, how much, when, and how. You will be relieved to learn that I shall not attempt to answer all of these questions. In fact, I shall not attempt to answer any of them. What I propose to do is rather to outline some theoretical constructs which may be useful in pursuing them.

Let me now give you an overview of what I shall be talking about in the next 55 minutes.

1. Historic background
2. Transfer in learning and communication
3. Declarative and procedural knowledge
4. Transfer relating to declarative knowledge
4.1. Transfer at different linguistic levels
4.2. Transfer relating to the cognitive organization of declarative knowledge
4.3. Transfer load
4.4. Transferability
5. Transfer relating to modes of activation
5.1. Attention and automatization
5.2. Transfer as a production procedure
6. Sherry

Most, though not all of what I have to say about these topics is based on research I have carried out together with Claus Faerch over the past few years. As can be seen from the overview, I shall approach the notion of transfer from a cognitivist and psycholinguistic perspective. In a preliminary definition, the term 'transfer' will be used to denote a psycholinguistic procedure by means of which an L2 learner activates her L1/Ln knowledge in developing or using her Interlanguage (IL). Subsequently, 'L1/Ln' will be replaced by 'L1', which should be understood as "the learner's knowledge of L1 or any other language she might possess, apart from the currently used IL". The suggested definition reflects the view commonly held today, that transfer should be characterized as a process, independent of the effect it brings about. Consequently the former distinction between "positive" and "negative" and "neutral" transfer (e.g. Selinker 1969 and many others) has to be abandoned, as it is clearly product-related.

2. Transfer in learning and communication

A first distinction of transfer procedures is functional, relating the notion to L2 learning or communication. Any characterization of transfer as a learning or communication procedure depends, of course, on the explicit or implicit model of L2 learning or communication the researcher subscribes to. Transfer in an Inter-language model thus has a different status from transfer in the Monitor model (Krashen e.g. 1982), and I am looking forward to hearing Carl James' - presumably rather critical - appreciation of the role of transfer according to the Monitor model tomorrow.

2.1. Transfer in learning


According to this model, transfer is used in the learner's attempt to establish hypotheses about L2 rules and items. These may be formed on the basis of the learner's L1 knowledge alone, or as the result of an interaction between such
knowledge and the L2 input the learner receives. The first case can be illustrated by a German learner of French hypothesizing that the gender marking of the French possessive pronouns is reflexive, as it is in German (Franz trifft ihren Vater \( \rightarrow \) Franz rencontre *son* mère - Ilse rencontre *sa* mère). As an example of the second case can be mentioned a German learner of Danish hearing native speakers say strings like "*I morgen bliver det regnvejr igen*" and "Devaerren kan jeg ikke komme til medet". She notices the word order and concludes that Danish, like German, has subject-verb inversion following an initial adverbial ("Morgen regner", etc). These examples illustrate what Corder has recently described as the "heuristic and facilitative role" (1983:88) of transfer "in the process of discovery and creation" (92).

An alternative conceptualization of transfer in an information-processing model of L2 learning has been suggested by Schachter (1983). She proposes not to view transfer as a process but rather as a constraint on the hypotheses learners establish about L2, operating together with other previous knowledge and the learner's expectations about L2.

2.2 Transfer in communication

Transfer as a learning procedure should be distinguished from transfer as a communication procedure. Indeed, Corder emphasized a functional difference between the two phenomena, suggesting referring to the latter as "borrowing", rather than transfer (1983:92). While I shall not follow his terminological distinction, I find his argument for making the functional distinction compelling: learners may well activate their L1 knowledge in order to procedure an IL utterance, or in order to understand incoming messages, without retaining these rules or items in their IL systems. This may happen, of course, in which case transfer used as a communication procedure has a learning effect.

My last remarks indicate that when talking about transfer in communication, one has to distinguish between transfer as a reception procedure and transfer as a production procedure. This important distinction, however, has been conspicuously neglected - not only in transfer studies but in IL research in general. We will be hearing more about it from Håkan Kingborn tomorrow, so I can be brief.

2.2.1 Transfer in reception

As a reception procedure, transfer implies that the learner interprets incoming L2 utterances on the basis of her L1 knowledge. It is thus a case of inferencing - "interlingual inferencing", as Carton (1971) has put it (cf. also Bialystok 1983). In the case of closely related languages such as the Scandinavian and the Romance languages, receptive transfer allows for high interlingual comprehensibility, outweighing by far the productive abilities of non-native speakers of these languages. Experimental evidence for receptive transfer between related languages has been provided by Bieritz (1974) in his study of lexical comprehension, and is currently being investigated in the comprehensive project on "Scandinavian - Dutch Mutual Language Understanding" (Hedquist 1984).

2.2.2 Transfer in production

As a production procedure transfer refers to the activation of IL knowledge in the establishment of an IL speech plan by means of which the learner seeks to realise a communicative goal. The IL knowledge activated can be of different types of cognitive representation (phonological, syntactic, pragmatic, .. declarative/procedural), and the activation itself can involve different degrees of cognitive control (Faerch and Kasper, in press a). A more precise characterisation on these dimensions of transfer as a production procedure will be suggested in the following.

I shall confine my remarks in the remainder of this paper to transfer as a production procedure, although some of what I shall be saying may apply to reception and learning as well. Looking at IL users' speech production, there are two ways in which L1 transfer can be relevant for IL speech. Firstly, certain aspects of IL speech may be brought about by the direct, synchronic utilization of L1 specific knowledge (transfer as a production procedure). Secondly, certain aspects of IL speech may be the result of rules stored in the learner's cognitive representation of L2, established by means of transfer learning procedure. We may refer to the latter case as a diachronic, and the moment of speech production. Clearly, it is often difficult, if not impossible, to tell from performance data whether synchronic or diachronic transfer was at play, whereas some perspective methods may prove more successful.

The functional distinction between types of transfer as suggested here is reflected nicely in 3 collections of papers, all of which are impressive indications for the transfer research. We are witnessing the book "Language Transfer in Language Learning", which came out last year under the editorship of Susan Gass and Larry Selinker, a volume edited by Hana W. Dechert and Manfred Raupach under the title "Transfer in Production", and a collection which Eric Kellerman and Mike Sharwood Smith are editing entitled "Cross-Linguistic Influence in Second-Language Acquisition and Performance", (both the last two collections are in press).

In the following section (3.) I shall briefly outline two aspects of knowledge which should be distinguished in examining language learning and use in general, and transfer in production in particular.

3. Declarative and procedural knowledge

Following a distinction of long standing in philosophy (cf. Ryle 1949), and recently revived in artificial intelligence, cognitive psychology and cognitive science (e.g. Anderson 1976, 1980), Faerch and Kasper (in press a, b, c, d, Kasper 1984) have described two types of communicative knowledge. Declarative knowledge comprises the language user's...
Transfer learning is a powerful tool that can significantly improve the performance of various machine learning models. In essence, it involves transferring knowledge from a source domain to a target domain, thereby leveraging pre-trained models to enhance the learning efficiency and effectiveness.

To achieve this, transfer learning typically involves the following steps:

1. **Source Domain Performance**: Initially, a model is trained on a large and diverse dataset to achieve high performance. This dataset is referred to as the source domain.

2. **Feature Extraction**: The learned features from the source domain are then extracted and serve as the input for the target domain.

3. **Target Domain Adaptation**: The extracted features are further refined and adapted to the specific requirements of the target domain, where the model is to be deployed.

4. **Transfer Learning Application**: This adapted model is then used in the target domain, benefiting from the knowledge acquired in the source domain.

By following these steps, transfer learning enables the reuse of knowledge across different domains, leading to improved performance and reduced training time. This approach is particularly useful in scenarios where labeled data is scarce or expensive to obtain.
activated in a given stretch of discourse. One might reasonably assume though, that speech production, both in L1 and L2, is typically based on unanalysed and analysed knowledge. However, informal self-reports by advanced and academically trained FL learners suggest that they can establish sub-plans of an IL utterance on the basis of their articulated knowledge, for instance, basing tense and aspect marking in English, or the choice of the subjective in German or French, on their articulated grammatical rules. Basal transfer on articulated knowledge presupposes, of course, that the learner possesses such articulated knowledge of her L1 — which most FL learners do not, or only in a very rudimentary fashion. However, contrastively based pedagogic grammars sometimes point out similarities between L1 and L2 which the learners can exploit for correct production. As for a recent example, Davidsen-Nielsen, Faerch and Harder, in their manual for teachers instructing Danes in English (1982), suggest a variety of useful conversation rules from Danish to English, e.g. "if there is a choice in English between a gerund and an infinitive complement, use the gerund if Danish has an infinitive, the infinitive if Danish has an at-clause" (43f), cf

jeg så at hun kom \(\Rightarrow\) I saw her come
jeg så hende komme \(\Rightarrow\) I saw her coming

the semantic difference between the first and the second pair of sentences being the same in the two languages. As an example by way of self-report I may perhaps mention my desperate attempts to assign gender to Danish nouns on principled basis. I have adopted as a conversion rule to mark as neuter those nouns which are "short" and neuter in German, such as

das Glas \(\Rightarrow\) glasset
das Problem \(\Rightarrow\) problemet
das Ziel \(\Rightarrow\) målet
das Thema \(\Rightarrow\) emnet

Unfortunately, it is not a very efficient rule, as there seem to be just as many instances where it does not apply as where it does, such as when I recently proposed in a teachers' meeting that a course we were planning should include something about "sprog og jernet", which is "language and iron", whereas I had intended to say "language and brain." "Brain" is "hjernen", i.e. it has common gender in Danish rather than neuter as the German "das Gehirn". Strictly speaking, applying articulated conversion rules to IL performance presupposes in production but rather one of using an IL-specific type of articulated knowledge, viz. knowledge about equivalence relationships between L1 and L2.

Just as articulated knowledge, unanalysed knowledge does not lend itself easily to transfer. What happens in most cases of transfer is that L1 knowledge is not applied holistically to IL production but rather that it interacts in various ways with IL-based plans, this interaction presupposing some structural transparency of the L1 knowledge in terms of its underlying rules and subcomponents. This implies that when learners transfer, say, a routine formula from their unanalysed knowledge into their IL production, they first decompose it into its underlying rules and elements, i.e. they transform a piece of unanalysed into analysed knowledge.

The most suitable candidate for transfer is thus analysed L1 knowledge, as it fulfills the requirements for most transfer types viz., that individual rules and elements are discernible for the learner. Transferring compounds, for instance, presupposes that the learner in her L1 distinguishes the elements the compound is made of. In a recent investigation (Møgensen 1984), Danish learners of German produced the following utterances:

(1) L1: wir haben Schulpflicht bis die die neunte Klasse (we have compulsory education up to grade nine)

(L explaining the different lines in the Danish "gymnasium")

(2) L2: und äh die - äh - die sprech/Sprachen lernen kennen

zwischen - Ah - neu - neusprachlich nennen wir es das heisst

dass man die neue Sprachen wie Deutsch und Französisch und

Englisch - lernt aber auch Latein (looks inquiringly)

(and er those er who learn languages can choose) between er

modern languages we call it it means that one learns the

modern languages such as German and French and English -

but also Latin)

In the retrospective interviews conducted immediately after the conversational data had been collected, the learners reported that they had not known the words "Schulpflicht" and "neusprachlich" but had made them up by transferring the two elements of the Danish compounds "skolepligt" and "nyprogligt", respectively, into German. In both cases, the learners made thus use of their analysed L1 knowledge, although, as I shall argue later, they activated it in quite different ways.

As analysed knowledge is involved in most of the transfer types to be discussed in the next section, more examples will be provided there.

4.3 Transfer load

As Adjemian (1983) has pointed out, it would be an undue simplification to regard transferred L1 elements as homogenous and invariable. Learners may transfer more or less of a given L1 rule or item, or they might even decide not to select specific L1 material for transfer at all. One can thus distinguish types of transfer according to the criterion "how much is transferred", referred to as 'transfer load'. Let's look at some data exemplifying different degrees of transfer load.

(3) L2: do you want some - Zinsen or do you want some more

(Zinsen German for 'interests')
(4) L: I think I better like to maybe (laughs) I really don't know men maybe I better like to live there (men Danish for 'but')
   The lexical items selected from the learners' L1s are integrated into an L1 plan without any adaptation to the IL system. This type of transfer has been referred to as borrowing or code shift, the latter term being used in particular when longer stretches of discourse are involved.

(5) N: what is it you're cleaning
   L: I'm cleaning (sighs) -- a big house and (N: mm)
   they doing er lamps - (N: yeah) - and -- ['peipsk a ly']
   (papirkurv Danish for 'waste-paper basket')

(6) N: d'you know what you want -- to do when you finish school
   L: no (N: mm) my big brother is [skael] - [haendisku:]l
   in a -- he will [wea] in a bank
   (skal Danish for 'is going to', handelskole Danish
   for 'commercial school', vaere Danish for 'be')

In (5) and (6), the L1 lexical items chosen by the learners are adapted phonologically and morphologically to the IL system. This transfer procedure has been referred to as foreignizing or, in the case of English as L2, anglicizing (Haastrup and Phillipson 1983).

(7) L: they (= my pet) eats - erm - greens - things
   (grøntsager Danish for 'vegetables')

(8) N: Kojak speaks funny English doesn't he -- very American
   it's difficult -- difficult to understand --
   L: (tut) yes - 4 - can I understand English can I
   understand [lit aemri'kaensk] well
   (kan jeg forstå engelsk kan jeg også forstå lidt
   amerikansk Danish for 'if I understand English then
   I also understand a little American')

The transfer procedure in (7) has been termed literal translation: complex items and rules are transferred element by element from the L1 repertoire at or above the lexical level, and adjusted to IL at the lower levels. When literal translation occurs at the syntactic level, as in (8), this is also known as re-lexification.

(9) L: he stand up and set some warm water over to coffee
   (han rejte sig og sæt valv vand over til kaffe
   Danish for 'he got up and made some hot water for his
   coffee')

(10) L: once I swammed swim in the river
    (svømme - svømmede Danish for 'swim - swam')

In (9) and (10), the learners choose items and rules from their repertoire on the basis of corresponding formal regularities in L1. Somewhat clumsily, this has been called intra-/interlingual transfer. (9) involves the choice of formally corresponding lexical items; (10) illustrates how the distribution of an IL verb into the regular or irregular declensional classes is carried out on the basis of its distribution in L1.

The transfer categories just mentioned have been presented according to decreasing transfer load. This can be schematized as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{L1 system} \\
\text{borrowing} \\
\text{(code shift)} \\
\text{foreignizing} \\
\text{lateral translation} \\
\text{(re-lexification)} \\
\text{combinatory} \\
\text{transfer} \\
\text{IL system}
\end{array}
\]

Fig. 1: Types of transfer according to transfer load

Apart from borrowing, all the discussed transfer types involve a combination of features from the L1 and the IL knowledge. They can therefore be characterized as combinatorial transfer. In terms of the types of declarative knowledge they operate upon, it is evident that borrowing can operate on unanalysed knowledge, whereas combinatorial transfer requires analyzed knowledge, as individual rules and elements are combined in various ways with IL knowledge.

The classification of transfer types according to transfer load is no more than a first approximation. As could be seen, some of these categories are closely related to particular linguistic levels, for instance borrowing and foreignizing, which operate on the lexical level. How, if at all, can these categories account for transfer at the, say, phonological level? More work is needed to clarify the notion of transfer load, if we want to account for the integrity and interaction of primary and secondary declarative knowledge in learners' speech production.

However, learners have not only the option of transferring L1 knowledge to different degrees, they can also decide not to transfer at all. As one example of transfer avoidance, the conspicuous non-occurrence of the English gambit 'I mean' in German learners' conversational performance can be mentioned (Kasper 1981). Although this
In order to account for the complex interplay between cognitive processes, social interactions, and cultural factors in understanding specific phenomena, it is crucial to adopt a multidisciplinary approach. This approach involves integrating insights from disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and neuroscience to provide a comprehensive understanding. The goal is to understand how these factors interact and influence each other, leading to the observed patterns in cognitive and social behaviors. By doing so, we can develop more nuanced and effective strategies for improving cognitive outcomes and social interactions in various contexts.
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situations. As Mogensen (1984) has demonstrated in her investigation into the transfer of culture-specific concepts, learners sometimes transfer in want of a better solution, even though they consider a given concept non-transferable. This raises, fourthly and lastly, the question how far we can get, in transfer research as well as in other studies of process-level phenomena, with performance data. If we wish to explore transferability as related to context variables, the cognitive organisation of transferred L1 knowledge, or transfer types in terms of attention and automatization, then we have to employ data types which provide a more direct access to learners' underlying knowledge and its activation. Recent evidence from a project on "Procedural Knowledge", carried out at the Universities of Aarhus and Copenhagen, indicates that different intro- and retrospектив methods may be a step into the right direction.

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THE MONITOR MODEL AND THE ROLE OF THE L1

This paper attempts to assess the role assigned to the first language during second and foreign language learning by the Monitor Model. "Monitor Model" refers to the five hypotheses which Krashen claims constitute a viable and methodologically exploitable theory of second language learning, one of which five hypotheses in the Monitor Hypothesis. In particular I shall claim: that the first language plays a more potent role in second language learning than Krashen would have us believe; that the first language imposes on other hypotheses than just the Monitor; and that the claim that 'ignorance' explains first language influence better than 'interference' does is not irrefutable.

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A CROSS-CULTURAL LOOK AT SEXISM IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS

The paper examines the contents of foreign language textbooks focusing on various types of sexism present in them. The material for the discussion comes from a number of textbooks on Polish and English published in Poland. Apart from contrasting these two types of textbooks with regard to sexism, I compare the findings of others writing on this aspect of foreign language textbooks outside Poland.

A distinction is drawn between teaching a foreign language using sexist language and imagery, and teaching a foreign language including material on sexism in the target culture. Thus, the often mentioned argument for preserving the sexist bias of foreign language materials as a reflection of the reality of the target culture, is refuted. I also consider how some feminist issues are presented in the textbooks, and how teaching about feminism is realised.

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THE TRANSLATION OF NEW WORDS

1. Neologisms, here defined as (a) existing lexical items which have acquired a new sense, and (b) newly coined lexical items, are one of the most difficult and an increasing problem in many areas of translation particularly in technology and journals.

   For unrelated reasons, the media and industry are continuously expanding their vocabularies. Neologisms are usually popular, sometimes for prestige rather than linguistic reasons.

2. For the purpose of discussing this multifarious problem, I set up a frame of reference, listing ten types of neologisms (words and collocations with new senses; new coinages; derived words including blends; collocations; exonyms; phrasal forms; transferred words; acronyms; pseudo-neologisms) and setting these against (presently) thirteen contextual factors and nine translation procedures.

3. I shall then discuss the translation of a wide range of neologisms, mainly English and French, within the context of my frame of reference.

4. The object of the exercise is to assist translators to clarify their ideas about the solution of the problem, and to make maximal generalizations about the translation of each type of neologism.

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FRENCH LOANS IN THE SEMANTIC FIELD OF KINSHIP IN ZAIREEAN COPPERBELT SWAHILI

This paper discusses the presence of loan words of French origin in the semantic field of kinship in Zairean Copperbelt Swahili (ZCS). The phenomenon is shown to be mainly prompted by a search for precision in the speech of 'school-educated' ZCS speakers, whose kinship lexicon is made up of words of Bantu and French origins. As a way of characterizing the difference in behaviour between grossly synonymous terms in the mixed lexicon, an analysis is proposed which incorporates the contextual features 'E EDUCATED', 'E VOCATIVE', 'E AFFINITY' and 'E YOUNGER' in the semantic specifications of words. It is demonstrated that when appropriately combined in respect of what are referred to as the EPA and EVP subcategories, the abovementioned features will adequately predict the selection of appropriate items from particular lexical subunits in the field concerned, and accurately determine when items of French origin should be vested with the connotations of their Swahili equivalents and when not.

Illustrative of the first aspect of the demonstration is the insightfully explained observation that far from being mere synonyms that can freely be used for one another, the following three terms for 'father' can be differentiated at the level of connotation - with their nuances being determined by the particular combinations of features with which they are associated:

    BABA [ - EDUCATED; + VOCATIVE; ]
    PAPA [ + EDUCATED; + VOCATIVE; ]
    DEP [ - VOCATIVE; + AFFINITY; ]

As regards the second aspect, the analysis clearly shows that the term 'PAPA', for instance, can indiscernibly refer to one's father, father-in-law, or stepfather, depending on the features [-EDUCATED; + VOCATIVE] and to only one's father in French when the associated features are [+EDUCATED; - VOCATIVE].

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ACQUISITION THROUGH DEPLOYMENT

A 5-year (1979-84) classroom experiment ('The Bangalore-Madras Communicational Teacher Project') in teaching English in some South Indian schools is described in terms of:

1) Its hypothesis: acquisition of language-structure is best brought about through meaning-focused deployment;
2) The teaching procedures evolved; task-based (problem-solving) activity, using only 'natural' simplification (e.g. caretaker talk) and-anchoring any planned progression, preselection and practice in terms of language structure;
3) The learners and learning conditions involved: beginners/near-beginners in English in ordinary, mother tongue medium schools, with little out of class contact with English; low technology situation;
4) Implications for syllabus statement and materials: a 'procedural' syllabus of partially-ordered tasks; source book rather than course book;
5) Implications for teachers at large and teacher training: dependence on one's own linguistic resources and sense of plausibility, not carrying out a given method; training as preparation for continuous change, and
6) Evidence from a recent attempt at evaluation.

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A METHODOLOGY FOR DESCRIBING THE SOCIOLINGUISTIC VARIABILITY IN A MULTILINGUAL CONTACT SETTING

This paper describes a methodology being used in part of my research into the language spoken by 2nd generation South Asian children in Bedford. By focusing on independent variables more delinquent than sex, ethnicity, SES etc, it aspires to be both sensitive to the high degree of sociolinguistic variability often found in multilingual societies, and at the same time theoretically coherent and quite economical.

It initially involves (1) an analysis of sociolinguistic variables. These are provisionally selected as being characteristically responsive to West Indian, Punjabi and English language backgrounds, and are also likely to be differentially distributed across the E L use of my 20 or so, mainly Punjabi bilingual informants.

The aim is then to relate these to the kinds of factor outlined in Le Page's guiding hypothesis and riders: 'Each individual creates the system for his verbal behaviour so that they shall resemble those of the group or groups with which from time to time he may wish to be identified, to the extent that
(a) he can identify the group;
(b) he has both opportunity and ability to analyse his behavioural systems;
(c) his motivation is sufficiently strong to impel him to choose, and to adapt his behaviour accordingly;
(d) he is still able to adapt his behaviour.' (1975)

I try to operationalise components of this in 3 further types of analysis: (2) an analysis of how people perceive their social environment, and the extent to which they identify or counter-identify with it (the main hypothesis, riders (a) and (c); also eg Giles and Johnson 1981). F Weinreich's I S A approach provides a means for investigating and computing this sensitive to idiosyncratic social perceptions. (3) An analysis of social network, both in terms of the social composition of a speaker's network and their own degree of involvement in it (of the 1st bit of (b); also Gal 1979, Milroy 1980). (4) An analysis of patterns of bilingual use, through a language diary and questionnaire. This partly provides a dependent variable similar to (1) - patterns of use will be affected by (2) and (3). Yet if the extensive use of an ethnically different language in cooccurs with a high degree of Punjabi use, there is at least a prima facie case for considering whether the use of this feature is influenced by psycholinguistic processes of L transfer and L2 acquisition (cf (d) and the 2nd part of (b)).

These 3 types of analysis should together provide a basis for coping with socio-linguistic variation in Bedford. It should be possible to see for example whether patterns of intra-ethnic network association, or strong ingroup identification, or both, largely account for the currency of a particular ethnically distinct L item. If predominantly intra-ethnic association were to account for such a variant, it might be the result of (2) to decide whether to attribute it to the stabilization of new non-standard norms, or to L transfer processes.
transfer does not easily develop and learning is therefore delayed. For the beginning learner this is of particular importance in the development of a receptive competence and for the mastery of phonological, morphological, lexical and phrasal items.

It is a different matter altogether that the cross-linguistic item equivalences perceived by the beginning learner must be constantly modified and refined as learning progresses. When the learner starts learning systems rather than mere item equivalences and when greater demands are made on his productive skills, the basic facilitating effect of LI-transfer is no longer obvious.

Reference:


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University College of North Wales

A SEQUENCE OF ACQUISITION STUDY

This study was undertaken among a special category of adult learners of English as a second language in the US. All of the learners were refugees from S.E. Asia, and spoke a non-Indo-European first language; most were from a non-westernized, non-technologically advanced society. Most of those who were literate, were literate in a language using a non-Roman alphabet, but the majority were illiterate, or preliterate.

The sequence of acquisition study was undertaken to test the hypothesis that factors would influence both sequence of acquisition of grammatical morphemes, and levels of acquisition, when compared to the sequence of other learners of English, not affected by these factors. Since many of the learners were illiterate, a BSM-type oral test was used to elicit utterances. Carefully chosen pictures, showing various objects and actions were shown, and the learners were asked questions requiring answers containing obligatory occasions for the 10 morphemes.

The students were grouped, and their scores pooled, to give sequences for several groups which had certain factors in common. These sequences were then compared.

The factor which caused the most variation in the sequences, though there was still significant correlation, was non-Indo-European first language. The factor of age had almost no effect on the sequence. The factors of illiteracy, non-technologically advanced culture and non-Roman alphabet had more effect on the sequences than age, but less than a non-IndoEuropean first language. The rates of acquisition varied considerably, for all factors except age, with the effects of illiteracy being particularly marked.
COMMUNITY VARIATION IN WELSH LANGUAGE USAGE

This paper will illustrate and discuss some preliminary results from an ongoing research project. Because the fieldwork is not yet completed, the content of the paper cannot be specified in detail. The intention is to identify diagnostics (like incidence of consonant mutation, gender and number marking in adjectives, spelling pronunciation) which vary systematically across the population. The project, which is a feasibility study in preparation for an intended comprehensive study, uses a sample of 64 speakers, stratified according to age, social class and sex.

Marie-Paule Woodley, Joan Allwright and Dick Allwright
University of Manchester and University of Lancaster

INTERVENTION AND SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING: DEVELOPING THE RELEVANT ANALYTICAL TOOLS

Most assessment of intellectual ability or merit is done through the evaluation, formal or informal, of written texts. But what are the relevant criteria for this evaluation? A commonplace requirement for a text to be successful is that it should 'hang together'. But what does 'hanging together' mean? Can useful measures be found? Impressionistic holistic measures are notoriously unreliable, and too broad to provide helpful guidelines to learners. Objective measures tend to focus on sentence level phenomena which are not really central to textual 'quality'. There is a need for an intermediate level of analysis, one which will relate syntactic choices and overall coherence.

This paper will illustrate the measures being developed by the first author, at this intermediate level. The data for the illustration consists of university-level ESL and native English writers' texts, produced in the context of a writing course based on the 'reformulation' technique (developed by the second and third authors from work by Cohen). This technique offers ESL writers native 'reformulations' of their written work instead of corrections of it. The problem for test analytic techniques is to characterise in a relevant way the differences between ESL writers' drafts, native writers' reformulations, and ESL writers' rewrites. Learners generally report that they find the reformulation technique helpful, but what do they actually learn from it? Do their writing change and, if it does, can anything at all be said about whether or not it changes for the 'better'?

Work so far towards an intermediate level of analysis suggests that the distribution of 'given' and 'new' in the sentence is a central concern, with the pragmatic analysis of the role of grammatical subjects, for example, proving to be particularly revealing. Also of significance is the extent to which a writer 'sign-posts' the discourse, and embeds it in reader-guiding meta-discourse.

NEW MEMBERS

The following new members have joined BAAL, during the year October 1983 - September 1984:

Margaret Simonot
Michael Johnson
Peter Skehan
Jeremy Harmer
Albert Weideman
Rick Bhanot
Liet Hellwig
Clive Holes
Claire Wickham
Andrew Thomas
Brian Bamber
Peter Trudgill
Gillian Donnall
Michael Green
Netta Biggs
Mary Kilborn
Douglas Pickett
Barbara Seidlhofer
EEva Leinonen-Davies
Lars Sigfred Evensen
Alan Thomas
Sinan Bayraktaroğlu
Gabriele Kasper
Patricia Daniel
David Hill
Janet Higgins
Peter Gannon
Nikolas Coupland
Claus Faerch
Philippa Line
Pindi Makaya
Robert Ison
Jennifer Coates
Anne-Marie Simon-Vandenbergen
LSU Aston (Associate)
Sawston Hall (Associate).

(In autumn 1983, BAAL made a 'pump-priming' research grant of £200 to Peter Skehan of the London Institute of Education, to enable him to do the preliminary groundwork for a followup to the Bristol Language Study, concerned with later success in FL learning. Peter Skehan later obtained full funding for the research project from other sources, and the work is currently under way. In the following paper he gives an account of progress so far.

We are delighted that BAAL funding was of help in launching this substantial research project, and hope that other members will follow Peter Skehan's example and make active use of the association's (new) research grant scheme. Full details of how to apply etc. are given elsewhere in this Newsletter.)
SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING: A FOLLOW-UP TO THE BRISTOL LANGUAGE STUDY*

Peter Skehan
Institute of Education, University of London

The summer 1984 issue of the BAAL Newsletter contained a Keynote Paper by Professor Gordon Wells on success and failure in first
language learning, as revealed by data from the Bristol Language
Project (Wells, in press, a). The 128 children on whom the re-
search was based were born in the period 1969-72, and the data
for Wells' paper collected largely during the early to mid 70s.

The existence of such a large group of children for whom such ex-
tensive first language developmental data had been collected
suggested the possibility of a follow-up study with the original
children which would look at their performance as foreign lan-
guage learners in secondary schools. Such a study could attempt
to relate the wealth of individual difference data from their
first language development (Wells, in press, b) to their capacity
and achievement in FL study. Two classes of variable suggested
themselves as most worth investigation - differences in FL
aptitude (Skehan, 1980, Carroll, 1982), and differences in FL
achievement. The possibility of measuring both these classes of
variable suggested a research project which would examine three
basic relationships:

a) between first language development and current foreign
language aptitude
b) between first language development and current foreign
language achievement
c) between current foreign language aptitude and current
foreign language achievement.

The first relationship might shed light on whether FL aptitude
is a stable construct, and on its origin, i.e. as to whether
there is evidence to suggest that it emerges early in life,
influenced by innate or early experience factors, or

1. It is a pleasure to thank several people who have made im-
portant contributions to this article. First of these must be
Professor Gordon Wells, whose conception the Bristol Language
Project was. He has generously provided access to the Bristol
data, and encouragement for the present project. Without him the
current research would have been completely impossible. I would
also like to thank several individuals for more specific contrib-
utions. Margaret Binnie, under Professor Wells' direction, put
considerable effort into tracing the children who had been part
of the Bristol Language Study; Lucile Ducroquet, Zuzanna Crouch,
Mr. and Mrs. Fewen, for the efficient way in which they conducted
the test organisation; and Sally Barnes, who provided the data
from the Bristol Language Project which is used in the present
research for the comparison with the aptitude measures.

whether it is affected by more recent environmental and learning
factors. The second relationship, probably in conjunction with
the first, might help reveal whether there is indeed a "talent
for languages", and whether those children who make rapid progress
in the acquisition of their first language make quicker progress
in foreign language learning. The third relationship, between
foreign language aptitude and achievement, is the least innovative.
There are many published articles in this area. The current
project would simply attempt to confirm the pattern of relation-
ships which has been found elsewhere. (Although even here the
care which the Bristol team took to ensure a carefully balanced
sample of the Bristol population might add to the importance of
this section of the research.)

In March 1983 when I made contact with Professor Wells, the
potential of the proposed research was quickly evident. So were
the problems. At the initial stages these were largely organisa-
tional and financial. The Bristol team were able, fairly soon,
to trace more than 110 of the original 128 children. These chil-
dren were distributed in nearly forty different schools, requiring
multiple visits and testing sessions if the research was to attempt
to preserve the integrity of the sample. Quite clearly, this
situation had serious financial implications since it required
the capacity to make a very large number of visits to a large
number of schools, to arrange testing sessions, and to carry them
out, as well as to train test administrators. In addition, all
the while, the children concerned were getting older, introducing
a time element which meant that the opportunity of doing effective
research was diminishing.

This need to mount a research project as soon as possible
led to a strategy of trying to obtain both small and large quanti-
ties of funding, since it was felt that if a major research project
could not be mounted, at least some marker data could be obtained.
The research grant of £200 from BAAL was of particular significance
in this respect since it enabled the first steps to be taken in con-
tact with schools, training of test administrators etc. It was undoubt-
dedly important that such work should be done at an early stage since it demonstrated the feasibility of mounting such
an ambitious project successfully. Such preparatory work was
eventually extremely helpful in obtaining a higher level of funding
to enable an extensive testing programme to be organised.

The Assessment of Foreign Language Aptitude

It was decided to assess language aptitude by means of five sub-
tests. These were:

EMLAT Part 1 Hidden Words: In this test, composed of 30 items,
the candidate is presented with misspelled versions of
words, together with four descriptions of the mis-
spelled word might mean, eg 'april' a month of the year/
kind of fruit/lazy/boy's name. this test purports
to measure native language vocabulary and sound-symbol
association ability.
EMLAT Part 2 Matching Words: In this thirty-item test, pairs of sentences are presented. The first sentence contains one word in upper case. The candidate has to select the word in the second sentence of each item which 'does the same job' as the upper case word in the first. The test attempts to measure Carroll's 'grammatical sensitivity' factor, i.e. the ability to recognise the functions that words fulfill in sentences.

York Language Aptitude Test: In this test of forty-two items, candidates are provided with examples of how certain English/Swedish expressions are conveyed in the other language. They are then asked to indicate how other English (and Swedish) expressions can be represented. The test becomes progressively more difficult. It measures inductive language learning ability.

Pimsleur LAB, Part 5: This is a taped test. Three 'tive' words are learned, in isolation, and then the candidate has to pick out from sentences presented on tape which of the learned words was included in each sentence. The test attempts to measure sound discrimination ability.

Pimsleur LAB, Part 6: This is also a taped test. Nonsense words are presented, and for each word four possible spellings are provided. The candidate has to select the correct one. The test purports to measure sound-symbol association.

In addition, the verbal section of an intelligence test, the ANF, was administered.

The Assessment of First Language Development

The Bristol team have developed several indices of first language development. Eight of these will be considered here.

MLUS42: the mean morpheme length of utterance at 42 months

EPVT39: the score on the Peabody Vocabulary Test at 39 months

FUNCTION: a score representing the range of language functions used by the child at the age of 42 months

LEVEL: the child's score on the Bristol Scale of Language Development (Nells, in press, a), taken at 42 months.

MLUS60: the mean morpheme length of utterance at 60 months

EPVT66: the score on the Peabody Vocabulary Test at 66 months

TALKTO: an index of the amount of talk addressed to the child, based on samples of data taken on ten different occasions.

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NOMINAL: a score indicating the complexity of the nominal phrases used by the child

In addition, a four-step social class index is available on each of the children.

The Relationship Between First Language Development and Foreign Language Aptitude

We are currently nearing the end of a programme of aptitude testing with the children, and will follow this up in the New Year with a programme of foreign language achievement testing. On a very provisional basis it is possible to report correlations between first language indices and foreign language aptitude scores for 57 of the children in the sample. It is likely that final figures will differ from those shown (though probably not by too much), and that when testing is complete, finer-grained analyses of sub-samples of the children will enable us to go further than the relatively gross correlations that are presented here. However, the figures that are available are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Soc</th>
<th>ANF2</th>
<th>EMLAT 1</th>
<th>EMLAT 2</th>
<th>York</th>
<th>PLAB5</th>
<th>PLAB6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Class</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLUS42</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>.30*</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPVT39</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUNCTION</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.47**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLUS60</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>-.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPVT66</td>
<td>.47**</td>
<td>.41*</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALKTO</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.48*</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>.44*</td>
<td>.45*</td>
<td>.54*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOMINAL</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.44*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The .05 level of significance is represented by '*', the .01 level by '**'. There are differences in the numbers of subjects involved in the different correlations. Most correlations are based on an N of 57, but MLUS57, EPVT66, and TALKTO are based on lower Ns, requiring higher levels of correlation to reach significance.

Space does not permit a detailed analysis of this table of correlations. However, certain broad trends do stand out, and require some comment. First, the general impression from the numbers of significant correlations, is that there are important
associations involved. Although none of the correlations is
greater than .60, the prevailing impression is that a clear, if
moderate, level of relationship is involved. When one considers
that a time interval of between six and ten years is involved,
such a level of relationship is little short of remarkable. It
certainly indicates that, in many cases, there is a clear associ-
ation between a first language index and a measure of current
foreign language aptitude. In other words, children who are
more rapid developers in their first language are more likely to
have more foreign language aptitude.

Second, when one examines more specific relationships, there
are suggestions of more definite and specific patterns. At the
simplest level, this means that certain of the first language
indices and certain of the language aptitude measures enter into
a larger number of significant correlations. In terms of first
language indices, MLUS42, LEVEL, EPWT56, and NOMINAL are the most
frequently occurring measures. (TALKTO will be considered later.)
On the other hand, early vocabulary level; the child’s control
of range of language function; and later morpheme length of utter-
ance do not enter into numerous significant relationships, perhaps
reflecting the changing appropriateness for different ages of
the different indices of first language development (Gottfrend,
personal communication). Looking at the table in terms of the
correlation coefficients, we see that of the foreign language
aptitude tests, EMATL1, PLA25, and PLA56 enter into the highest
number of significant correlations, with the verbal intelligence
scores also appearing regularly.

At a more complex level, when one tried to detect systemat-
ic patterns of relationship, there is a possibility that the
aptitude tests involving an auditory component, (EMATL1, PLA55
and 6) are associated with the more structure-based indices of
first language development (LEVEL, MLUS42, and NOMINAL) —
a rather paradoxical set of relationships. There is also a
suggestion that the York Language Aptitude Test, Vocabulary at
66 months, and the Social Class relate to one another, suggest-
ing a dimension of language development independent of syntactic
complexity and more connected with lexical knowledge.

The third general issue relates to the TALKTO variable.
This is an index of the amount of talk addressed to the child
at over ten separate sampling occasions. It enters into the
highest level and most consistent correlations of all, ranging
from a low of .40 to a high of .57. In other words, there is
a moderate to strong relationship between the amount of talk
addressed to the child during language development, and the
level of across-the-board foreign language aptitude many years
later. Quite clearly the question of causation is a difficult
one to deal with on such a small sample (N=24 only with this
variable). Even so, it is tempting to speculate that it is
the nature of the early language environment which influences
the later development of foreign language aptitude. However,
additional and more complete research will be necessary to
establish the exact strength of the relationship more clearly,

the relationship between both sets of variables and other first
language and language aptitude measures, and the extent to which
talk addressed to the child is an independent influence rather
than something influenced in turn by the child’s own level
of development.

Discussion

The results which have been presented here are from the
eyear stages of the research project. It is expected that
subsequent work will examine the relationship between first lan-
guage development and foreign language aptitude in much more det-
ail. In addition, the results for foreign language achievement
will also become available to add another dimension to the find-
ings. It may also be possible, if additional funding is obtained,
to go beyond the collection of test results and extend the research
to investigate the aspects of the classroom interaction and teach-
ing methodology that influence the foreign language achievement
of the children. Most ambitiously of all, of course, one would
like to obtain information on the performance of the children in
informal language learning environments. If this were possible
it would link more effectively with the original approach to re-
search, taken by the Bristol Language Project, emphasising the
interactive basis for the development of conversation.

For the moment the most important tentative conclusion is
that several indices of first language development are signifi-
cantly associated with measures of foreign language aptitude.
Further, given the length of time between obtaining the two sets
of measures, the strength of the relationship involved is impres-
sive. It indicates that the construct of aptitude has some
stability, and that there are common elements in a facility for
first language learning as well as for foreign language learning.

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will be necessary to
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REVIEW:


Launched in 1982 under the editorship of J.C. Sager of UMIST, Multilingua is a multilingual and multidisciplinary quarterly. "Interlanguage" in the sub-title refers, not to the interaction of systems of the second language learner, but to communication across languages. The contributions are in any one of the EC's four official working languages: English, French, German and Italian, but only Articles, as distinct from Notes, Reports, Reviews and Advertisements, which make up one half of each issue, are preceded by Abstracts in those working languages, while the sections on Current Research and Literature in Abstract - all indispensable tools for the researcher - appear in English only. Nowhere is the multilingual character of this journal more in evidence than in the "prefaces" (the plural was introduced after the second issue) written by the editorialist J.M. Zemb of Paris, which are stylistic "tours de force" in four languages or, rather, quadrilingual variations on a common theme; they must be read in all four versions if their total meaning is to emerge. They would seem to be designed as a challenge to translation, whether human or machine.

All disciplines within the purview of Multilingua are listed on the inside cover and defined again by the classification chosen for the section on Current Literature in Abstract. They include: Language communication (and Barriers); Language Planning; Bilingualism; Language teaching and linguistics; Interpreting and Translation (theory and practice); Human and machine translation; Lexicography; Documentation; Terminology; Multilingual data banks and thesauri. Had I confined my review to the first four issues (1-1-4, 1982), I would have been led to the conclusion that the journal was primarily interested in the applications of information technology and machine translation, areas already covered in many specialist reviews, with a particular bias towards the problems of interlingual communication within the institutions of Western Europe; I would have criticised it for not being really concerned with "the substance of communication, natural language, and especially the problem of communication between natural languages, and the implications of a multilingual society", which its editor in his general introduction saw as needing greater attention (1-1, p.4). By the sixth issue, however, the field had broadened considerably to include studies of, among others, language and ethnicity in the U.S., cross-cultural problems of business transactions with Japan, language planning in Friesland, loanwords in Kiswahili, and a survey of the (mis) uses of bilingual dictionaries by English students of German. This extension in the range of disciplines, languages and countries gives the journal a truly multidisciplinary, multicultural and multilingual dimension and is to be welcomed.

Foremost still in the contents of the first eight issues are articles devoted to "telecitics" and "informatics", to systems with names formed on the Euro-prefix, like Euronet-Diane, Eurodictautom, Eurotrans, or acronyms like Salem, Satan or Suzy. In the very first article Ben Patterson, MEP, draws our attention to the colossal cost of plurilingual communication in the institutions of Western Europe, where the number of language pairs for interpreting and translation is arrived at by application of the formula n(n-1); languages; with the admission of Spain and Portugal this will mean a total of 72 combinations. To meet this interlanguage communication explosion the Commission decided in 1976 to make use of existing tools, ranging from the automated dictionary to the multilingual thesaurus and from the terminology bank to computer-assisted translation. These were further developed under successive "Action Plans". Meeting some of the need to store, retrieve and translate technical information apart, perhaps the most exciting aspect of the European Research and Development programme is its heuristic value. EUROTRA is a case in point. It is presented (1-1, passim) as the machine translation of the future. Original and unique in concept, born of recent advances in linguistics and artificial intelligence research, it is multilingual in design; before EUROTRA, all the MT translation systems were bilingual, the analysis of the source language being done only on the grammar and spelling, and the target language without any reference to any other. However, there has to be a bilingual link or "transfer", but this transfer must be kept as small as possible. This has repercussions on the level of semantic representation which must go beyond the analysis of surface structure - how far beyond will depend on a compromise between the ideal of producing a complete and explicit semantic/pragmatic representation of the text and the need to achieve early practical results. For it must be remembered that even EUROTRA will only produce final tests for limited purposes. A by-product of MT of interest to applied linguistics is text typology. G. van Slyke has developed a methodology which is a prescriptive for evaluating the quality of MT (1-4, 221-237), while A.M. Loffler-Laurian puts forward a typology of errors in MT - an error here is any feature of a machine-translated text which requires human post-editing (2-2, 65-78). The study of MT errors is designed on the one hand to improve the system and on the other hand to distinguish between those texts which are suitable for machine translation and those that are not; an essential role of expert translators to set up criteria for a classification of texts.
Next to computerised systems and machine translations, the most common single topic in the journal is that of human translation and interpretation. The most interesting contribution on this subject is Marianne Lederer’s "Le processus de la traduction simultanée (i.e. simultaneous interpretation)" in 1-3, 149-158, which is a very good summary of the author’s thesis (1961). She defines three dynamically related and overlapping "phases" in the decoding-encoding process of simultaneous interpreting: perception, conceptualisation (which involves restructuring), and expression and distinguishes between two levels of expression: transcoding, which looks for surface translation equivalents and follows the input speech chain closely (e.g. at the beginning of an argument or when there are discourse constraints) and translation proper which conveys the deep semantic meaning of the text. She is most enlightening on the complex relationships between discourse organisation, the speech chain and the decoding and encoding mechanisms, and on the role in all this of short and long-term memory. But her data is scanty and even in the thesis one wonders how representative her examples are. Her hypotheses, however stimulating, need to be tested against a great quantity of varied data, including different types of text, topic, situation and language pairs; moreover, some theoretical framework is called for: it is all very well for the author to take anonymous psychologists to task for examining simultaneous interpretation in artificial laboratory conditions; but she appears to be unaware of the existence of psycholinguistic models of text perception and memory, like those of Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978) and Van Dijk (1980) for instance.

The technique of "relay interpreting" is mentioned several times in these issues but it is nowhere properly defined nor its effectiveness investigated. To my knowledge the only empirical work on "relay" is Jennifer Mackintosh (1983). We look forward to in-depth articles on this very important technique.

Neither information technology nor machine or human translation can solve the innumerable problems of language communication and barriers in the multilingual institutions of Western Europe. Ben Patterson (act. cit.) is right to warn us against the dangers of "Eurospeak" which result not only from machine and human translation, but also from speeches and texts produced by people not using their first language(s). He shows this in respect of legal texts, I have developed similar arguments with reference to European political discourse over the past twenty years (Blanc, 1980). In the last analysis I agree with Ben Patterson's plea for an "asymmetric" solution to the problem of multilingual communication in European institutions: everyone speaks their own language but understands a small number of other languages into which everything is translated. This means increasing and making more effective the training and teaching of modern languages in Europe. Text typologies should help us to decide which texts can sustain machine translation and which need careful human translation.
NEWS FROM CILT

New address

We are now at Regent's College, Inner Circle, Regent's Park, London NW1 4NS (tel: 01-486 8221). This is the former Bedford College building (stil partly used by the College), 5-10 minutes walk from Baker Street station.

Our new location provides spacious accommodation for both the Language Teaching Library and the CILT staff. A meetings room is available for use by associations, and CILT will have access to conference accommodation on the College site. We hope also to be able to provide additional services to associations in due course, and a further announcement about this will be made later.

CILT's enforced move means that the former joint Language Teaching Library has been divided: we have brought CILT's holdings (applied linguistics, foreign languages and language teaching in Britain, including English as a second language) to our new address, where the library will open as soon as it is satisfactorily installed (please write or telephone for new opening hours). The British Council's holdings remain in the Resource Centre at Spring Gardens/Carlton House Terrace, and enquiries about access to that Centre should be made direct to the Council (01-930 8466 ext 2786). We hope to maintain close links with the British Council, and we continue to collaborate in the production of our abstracting journal, Language Teaching (Cambridge University Press), which will in future be based on the periodicals holdings of the two libraries.

Publications

Recent CILT Publications include new titles in Language & Culture Guides; this year the following have appeared: Finnish, Japanese, Swedish, Modern Hebrew; the next to be published will be Arabic, a guide to the wide range of resources available for learning that language. The Guides are £1.95 each + postage/handling charge (see below). They are not included in our Subscription Scheme, but are covered by a separate Standing Order/discount scheme.

Finding research funds for language and language teaching: a guide for researchers with advice on the preparation and presentation of applications (CILT Information Guide 21, new edition), is now available. The Guide has been revised extensively; a good many changes have been made in funding provision and priorities since it was first published in 1981 (with the title Sources of funds for research...). Addresses, titles of publications etc have changed too. The Guide has also been extended in several ways and is almost 50% longer; more funding bodies are listed, with information about the areas of work that each can support, eligibility for research grants,
RESEARCH SUPPORT SCHEME 1985

At its September meeting, the Executive Committee agreed on the details of the proposed Research Support Scheme, which will be implemented for the first time this year. Applications for grants under the scheme are therefore now invited from BAAL members.

The Scheme has been established to enable members to initiate, continue or complete a specific research project in applied linguistics for which support is not available from other sources. The grant may be sought, for example, for a piece of equipment, secretarial assistance, or travelling expenses. In this first, experimental year of the scheme, the total sum being made available is £200.

Details and Conditions

1. Applications for grants under the Scheme should be in the form of a letter to the Secretary of the Association, giving precise details of the planned use of the grant. Applicants should indicate any other sources they have approached.

2. Applicants should have been fully paid up members of BAAL for at least two years before they make application for a grant. They should not currently be members of the Executive Committee.

3. All applications will be considered by the full Executive Committee, at its Spring meeting. Any grant awarded must be used within the following 12 months.

4. The total sum made available in any year may be awarded to a single applicant, or may be divided among several applicants.

5. Successful applicants should submit to the Editor of the BAAL Newsletter a brief account of the research project which has been supported, no later than a year after the award has been made.

1985 DEADLINE: Applications for grants under the scheme, up to the first year's maximum of £200, should be submitted to the Secretary of the Association by MARCH 15, 1985.

Euan Reid
Secretary