Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

72–112 Emmans, K. A. What languages does the country really need? *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2944 (22 October 1971), 36.

An eighteen months' inquiry at the University of York into the language needs of industry and commerce. The results will be compared with the developing pattern of language learning in the education system. [Proportions of languages in Ordinary Level and Advanced Level examination entries are given.] A representative sample of firms in the United Kingdom is being asked with which countries the firm does business, the language in which transactions are carried out, whether the firm employs translators and interpreters, the frequency of use of the foreign languages and whether the firm provides language courses for its employees. Employees will also be asked to fill in a questionnaire on the acquisition and use of their languages. Newspaper advertisements of jobs requiring foreign languages are also being studied. The survey has considerable limitations and is intended as an initial pilot survey. Unless reasonably authoritative forecasts of future language needs can be made, appropriate courses may not be available.

EPQ ED ABL EBS

72–113 James, C. V. A concurrent survey of language curricula and performance. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2944 (22 October 1971), 36.

A survey at the University of Sussex is being conducted into what is being currently taught in the modern-language field, excluding primary schools and traditional university language departments. Languages surveyed are French, German, Italian, Spanish and Russian, and both examinable and some non-examinable courses within the

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State system will be considered. The aim is precise description of the language content and linguistic performance. An attempt will be made to relate the findings of the project to the situation in other European countries.

EPQ EBS

72–114 Lawler, John and Larry Selinker. On paradoxes, rules, and research in second language learning. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **21**, 1 (1971), 27–43.

A sound statement of the contribution of linguistics to second-language learning will not be available until more is discovered about second-language learners. A new empirical approach to the study of second-language learning should begin with Saporta's paradox that the ability or inclination to formulate the rules which govern language behaviour interferes with the performance needed to make the application of the rules automatic. [The author discusses the nature of paradoxes and then examines Saporta's.] Generative grammarians have dismissed several obvious facts about language behaviour in order to delimit a field of interest for theory construction. Some second-language learners are not helped by explicit formulation of rules, while others are and can apply these rules when time permits, as in reading and writing. In generative theory there is no criterion for judging the pedagogical value of a rule. There are four types of learner: those who cannot learn a rule, those who can learn and apply it automatically, those who can learn it but who cannot apply it at all, and those who can learn it and, if they have time to do so consciously, also apply it. A research strategy concerned with profiles of idealized learners differing from one another in these four ways is needed. Such profiles should be related to a theory of second-language learning relevant to the way *individuals* actually learn second languages. [The author gives examples of possible research.] [Bibliography.]

EPQ ED

72–115 Niethammer-Stott, A. M. G. Research tasks for language teaching. **Folia Linguistica** (The Hague), **4**, 3/4 (1971), 393–417.

It is one of the tasks of the researcher to fill the gaps in information on grammar, phonology and registers of a language, and make this information available to the teacher. Studies of language in communication are sparse. [To determine the different types of situation in which language behaviour occurs a questionnaire was designed, addressed to a hypothetical student. This is given in an appendix.]

To provide a description of language in use, language should be studied and analysed from recordings of real communication situations between native speakers. The teacher will then need advice on how to apply this knowledge to his teaching. His pupils should acquire both a conscious (grammatical) and an unconscious knowledge of the language. The problem is whether the conscious knowledge is best acquired deductively or inductively. It is assumed that the imparting of conscious knowledge will not be the primary objective of a course, though it may give a security and intellectual satisfaction which performance cannot provide, particularly for adult learners. In preparing more advanced students to understand specialist lectures in a foreign language, practice should be given with authentic rather than simplified material. Where active production of speech is concerned, it is the teacher's job to reduce the gap between what an advanced learner can say and what a native can say, while keeping real communication as the basis of performance training. The principle involved here is that the learner be given as much independence and responsibility as possible for his own learning. [A brief summary follows of means, media and material and the type of setting called for in this type of method.] It would be ideal to have a large proportion of native speakers in the class. This would only be feasible where students of different nationalities were in the same institution or where all the students were also occupied in learning something additional to the language. This last suggestion is particularly attractive as it has often been suggested that language is best learnt as part of a different activity. Variety and mobility are lacking in the present classroom system.

EPQ ED ABL

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

72–116 Apelt, Walter. Grundprobleme der Fremdsprachen-psychologie. [Basic problems of the psychology of foreign-language learning.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **8**, 3 (1971), 136–50.

The psychology of foreign-language learning developed as a scientific discipline to contribute to language learning with other sciences like philosophy, pedagogics, linguistics. Its task is to investigate those factors and processes relevant to the learning, teaching and use of a foreign language in social activities and draw up principles to form a scientific basis common for all foreign-language teaching. The theory of language as a process of communication must extend beyond information theory to consider the unity of content and expression and other, extralingual factors. Research on speech centres of the brain and recognition of the roles of the kinaesthetic, acoustic and optical senses in foreign-language psychology reinforces the accepted order of language learning – listening, speaking, reading, writing – and stresses the integration of these senses.

The mother tongue is acquired through a system of clues which produce reflex actions in response to certain stimuli. This system is complete before school age. Learning a foreign language means acquiring a second system which must function separately from the first. Mother-tongue interference must be kept to a minimum. The direct method is proved unscientific by comparing the differences in learning a mother and a foreign tongue. A child learning its mother tongue starts with a clean slate – no previous system of clues – and pursues its aim with great intensity while still having endless time to work in. At the same time the ability to think is developing.

EPQ ED EG

72–117   Carroll, John B. Current issues in psycholinguistics and second language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington), **5**, 2 (1971), 101–14.

The apparently conflicting viewpoints of the 'audiolingual habit theory' and the 'cognitive code-learning theory' can be reconciled. There is no basic opposition between a view of language behaviour as resulting from the operation of 'habits' and a view of that behaviour as 'rule-governed'. Psychologically, the notion of 'habit' is more fundamental than that of 'rule'. There is no one-to-one correspondence between linguistic habits and linguistic rules. A language user can become aware of some of his linguistic habits and can often report this knowledge. Chomsky's conclusions, through unquestioning acceptance of his attack on one formulation of behaviourist psychology, have been over-generalized. The concept of the stimulus has been mistakenly rejected and thus the role of the objective situation and the environment in the formulation of linguistic rules has been underestimated. One aspect of the grammaticality of a sentence may be whether its use is appropriate in a given situation. Linguists have neglected the 'semantic' component of language.

Language teachers should evaluate grammatical theories in terms of the degree to which they conform to the linguistic habits which enable a language user to speak and understand the language. An adequate theory of competence or of performance would include statements of how speakers encode meanings into communicatively acceptable utterances and how hearers decode those meanings.

There is a large biological component in first-language acquisition, but the evidence for a decline in language-acquisition ability is not strong, and any such decline may be due to first-language interference. The new orthodoxy underplays the role of learning.

The audiolingual habit theory directed attention to the aural–oral objective of language teaching and emphasized the formation of habits through practice and repetition. It paid insufficient attention to the formation of truly functional habits. Successive repetition of the same response is less effective than the evocation of the response on a number of widely spaced occasions.

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The cognitive-code learning theory gave insufficient opportunity of forming language habits appropriately, and tended to present the facts of language in difficult or inappropriate ways.

The critical factor in success is to manage the learning procedures so that, at any given stage, the student is learning what he needs to learn, is being given the appropriate strategy for learning it, and is being properly reinforced in that learning. One-sided theories of language teaching distract the teacher from his task.   **EPQ ED EG**

72–118   Sauer, Helmut. Sequentialität als Ursache für Minderleistungen im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Sequentiality as a cause of underachievement in language learning.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **24**, 3 (1971), 133–42.

In the United States Pimsleur and a team of researchers have investigated the problems of underachievers and slow learners; based on their findings, several factors are mentioned as being important for success or failure in languages: perseverance, the IQ, socio-cultural background, motivation, auditory ability, teaching methods and sequentiality. The sequential nature of languages – i.e. the fact that any new achievement depends on past achievement and that any gap in knowledge or lack of grounding results in underachievement or failure – is defined and discussed in depth.

General recognition of the importance of sequentiality should lead to revised curricula, differentiated teaching goals and modernized textbooks [detailed suggestions]. Even the duration of language courses might be affected. Intensive, well-organized shorter courses with sufficient opportunity for revision might prove more efficient than the present longer ones of up to nine years. The positive aspects of sequentiality should be put to use, whereas at present it is mainly its negative influence that makes itself felt.   **EPQ ED EG**

72-119   Standish, P. Language learning and intelligence. *Universities Quarterly* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 77–83.

Recent theoretical work casts doubt on the system of presenting foreign-language material in a highly controlled manner. If an analogy with first-language acquisition is valid the adult will proceed by hypothesis and experiment through a succession of 'grammars' which are increasingly powerful and adequate. The significance of these suggestions is considered in relation to the university student. An extreme point of view is that the rightful place of language learning is outside the university but, in the case of the minority languages, the opportunity to learn may not arise at all if not at university. Language learning in order to read literature is frequently the aim but the student cannot formalize his observations on the structure of the target language unless he has some frame of reference. This may be provided by some preparation in general linguistics and the use of the native language as a source of contrastive study. These two interdependent possibilities represent a far more radical departure from the norm in that they make learning a language and learning about a language inseparable. Merely to establish skills is insufficient in a university context. There are no effective methods that are not intellectually demanding.

EPQ ED AG EMT

72-120   Strevens, Peter. The medium of instruction (mother tongue/second language) and the formation of scientific concepts. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 267–74.

The difficulties of students in developing countries learning scientific concepts through a foreign medium are considered in conjunction with the problem of the drop-out rate and the successful organization of education in such countries. There is ambiguity in the meaning of 'scientific concepts'. Five distinct ideas covered by the term are examined. One of the tasks of science education is to ensure that the complexity of the concepts being presented at each stage is not beyond the capacity of the individuals concerned, as many languages do not have equivalents for the verbalizations of scientific concepts which

exist in English and other languages in which scientific study is pursued. For a young child the learning of concepts and the more complex devices of his language is still before him, but the adult, already literate and imbued with the culture of his own society, will encounter science after adolescence. A group of specialists working in the area where psychology and linguistics overlap has proposed ideas on brain development and language learning which can be illuminating not only on mother-tongue but also foreign-language acquisitlon. It is clear that concepts *can* be learned in a foreign language. If the individual has the ability, generalizing concepts can also be learned and, under appropriate conditions, concepts of science. It is not certain how far the learning of science and its concepts in a foreign language is made more effective by the manner of teaching. Foreign languages are usually taught with aims unrelated to science and achievement is not high. The results of this are reflected in the short-fall in the education of scientists, engineers, technologists and fitters. If a foreign language were taught for science and through science it might be more effective. Those who show no ability or interest for science could then continue along general cultural and literary lines. Such a course would face difficulties in its preparation and in the re-training of teachers, but only such a drastic remedy seems likely to provide a massive improvement in the effectiveness of science education in the developing countries.

EPQ ED AG

72–121   Le Roncé, Robert. Le collège de demain sera-t-il bilingue ?
[Will tomorrow's secondary school be bilingual ?] *Education*
(Paris), 109 (1971), 18–19.

As the result of an agreement between the French and German Ministries of Education, several bilingual classes have been established in each country. At one of these classes, the first year in an Orléans grammar school consisting of twenty pupils, modern audio-visual methods are used in German lessons, and a German teacher gives art, music and other practical classes where the use of the foreign language is helped by the practical tasks. There are seven hours of German per week and three hours of practical classes in

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German. There is great satisfaction with the pupils' progress and it is hoped to continue the bilingual class in the second year. There may be difficulties later if other pupils whose German is not so advanced enter the class, but the experiment may well be carried out more widely in future.

EPQ ED ENW

TESTING

72–122 Deyes, A. E. How well can our students speak ? (language laboratory testing), *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 31–7.

The author describes and criticizes the construction, administration and making of a series of experimental tests of students' oral production in the language laboratory.

EPQ EHP ELY

72–123 Dimitrijević, Naum R. and Dušan Djordjević. The reliability of the subjective assessment of the pupils' pronunciation of English as a foreign language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 245–65.

Methods for an objective assessment of a learner's achievement are constantly being improved, but in spite of a substantial body of knowledge about language testing there are still areas in which the teacher has to use traditional and subjective ways of assessing the learner's achievement. These are: speech, written composition and pronunciation. A small-scale experiment was conducted to compare subjective marks given by different categories of examiners and to examine the range of disagreement in assessing the same material. There were four categories of examiners: secondary-school teachers, phoneticians, native speakers of English, and senior university students of English. Taped material was assessed and the resulting marks were analysed. The native speakers were the most consistent in their subjective evaluation of speech. The teachers proved to be the most lenient in judging a continuous text. [Tables of test results appended.]

EPQ EHP ATD

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72-124   Kamratowski, Joachim. Leistungstests im Sprachunter-
richt. [Achievement tests in language teaching.] *Englisch*
(Berlin), **6**, 4 (1971), 97–101.

Achievement testing is now accepted but criticism is still levelled
against the methods of test compilation and administration. In present-
day education such tests are becoming more and more an instrument
for self-criticism. The objectivity and limited scope of a test are its
strongest points. It must be reliable and must correspond to certain
recognized norms which give it general validity. It must be subjected
also to careful evaluation. In addition to tests which may be applied
to, for example, all pupils in their fifth year in one district, there is a
place for informal classroom tests on active vocabulary, passive vocabu-
lary, aural comprehension, reading comprehension, grammatical struc-
tures and spelling. There are many types but two are suitable for
foreign languages: multiple-choice tests with four choices [advantages
and disadvantages discussed] and gap-filling tests which can be used
to check active vocabulary and spelling. [Several examples are given
of test forms which have been validated and should encourage a be-
ginner in test construction to develop tests for himself and try them
out in the course of his teaching.]   EPQ EHL

72-125   Rudd, Elizabeth. Language tests for immigrant children.
Multiracial School (London), **1**, 1 (1971), 26–9.

The need for language tests for immigrant pupils is being met by tests
now under development at the National Foundation for Educational
Research in England and Wales. A diagnostic test seemed the most
obvious need but its production would prove an enormous task as a
battery of tests would have to be developed to indicate errors and
difficulties for immigrant groups from different national backgrounds.
Looking at the immediate language-learning goal – English for school
purposes – at least delimits an area to be tested.

   The concept of language proficiency as comprising listening com-
prehension, speaking skill, reading and writing is familiar but inade-
quate to describe English for classroom purposes. One needs to know

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what kinds of material are being listened to and read. In specifying the nature of the skills to be tested one has to think first of function and only then of actual language usage and the linguistic implications. One needs to know the distance between the child's present command and what his education demands of him. Visits to a large number of first-year junior-school classrooms and a collection of tape recordings of lessons indicated that the sort of questions asked, and the kind of conceptual interests and the grammatical features used to describe them, were identifiable. Vocabulary will be limited as the immigrant child will not have home and play words and differences of background experience between immigrant and native speaker continue to be significant even as the child becomes more bilingual. Finally, care must be taken to use the results of a test only in the way in which it was intended. There is also the problem of cultural bias and the only defence here is a continual alertness to the problem.

EPQ EHP ENT

72-126   Upshur, John A. Objective evaluation of oral proficiency in the ESOL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 5, 1 (1971), 47-59.

It is appropriate to test when we do not know to what extent teaching has been successful. Classroom testing by language teachers is essential. Testing and its function in teaching is defined by the procedure of giving the student a task, observing his performance, and informing him of his degree of success. Classroom testing, because it is a necessary part of teaching, may give a better indication of student ability than a standardized test.

There is a place for tests not used directly in the course of instruction. A good test should be objective. Objectivity is achieved by means of a multiple-choice format, by 'directed speaking', or by measuring the time taken to perform an oral task. [Various other suggestions are mentioned.]

The first step in the testing process – deciding what to test and how – is usually subjective. The teacher who has kept accurate records of the students' daily oral performance has given an excellent oral test.

[A specimen record sheet is given. The author also describes games which can be used as oral proficiency tests.]

If the teacher knows the day-to-day objectives of the course, he can conduct a running test of skills involved in the ability to communicate. If he knows why his students are learning English, he can test their ability to communicate in the kind of situation for which they are being trained.

EPQ EHP ATD

TEACHER TRAINING

72-127 **Beattie, N. M. and D. C. B. Teather.** Microteaching in the training of teachers of modern languages: some preliminary comments. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **9**, 3 (1971/2), 117–21.

A general dissatisfaction with existing methods of teacher training at a time when video-taping facilities were becoming available led to the decision to experiment with micro-teaching techniques for modern-language graduates. One of the biggest problems for a teacher in training is to know how much knowledge his class already possesses. It is also difficult with language teaching to isolate one point from its context in order to teach it. For lack of funds the 'classes' were made up of five or six other students (American experimenters at Stanford could afford to pay local children to act as guinea pigs). A thirty-minute lesson was taught, split up into separate units, each dealt with by a different teacher, and covering such points as an initial lesson to beginners in a language, a composition lesson, use of gestures to convey a story, and question and answer work. Camera equipment and the studio environment were rapidly accepted. More difficult to over-come was the embarrassment of some students at teaching their peers, which raised the question whether such methods should be urged upon more introverted personalities. The 'teachers' benefited most from the exercise but 'classes' also learned from simply observing and reacting. Comments on timing and gesture frequently came from the trainee teachers themselves during replay, which could not arise from an ordinary classroom teaching situation. It was found useful to have

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a tutor in the 'class' as he could guide the pace and activity of the lesson by his questions and draw on a greater knowledge of what children of a given age really do find difficult. **EPQ EKF**

72–128 Jones, Hywel. Error-analysis in language teaching. *English for Immigrants* (London), **4**, 3 (1971), 33–8.

Free composition is a good basis for initial error-analysis, although it has little value as a classroom exercise. [The writer describes the procedure of collecting and analysing errors made by Asian students in a college entrance test. The mistakes were discussed with the students.]

Common errors are listed and commented on under various headings. English pupils accepted unusual grammar from an overseas teacher in training without hesitation, but immediately rejected unusual words and collocations. Advanced learners should be encouraged to study all language varieties and levels, and not be content with a multi-purpose formal style.

This type of error analysis can give an initial direction to remedial work. **EPQ EKF ENT**

72–129 Riddy, D. C. Aspects of teacher training. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2944 (22 October 1971), 38.

The past eight years have seen a big increase in the number of modern-language courses provided in the colleges of education. Previously most trained teachers of foreign languages came from university departments of education. A third or more of the students who take main courses in French at the colleges of education look for appointments in secondary schools. Both colleges and universities have difficulty in estimating the number of teachers at the various levels who will be required. The few graduates in training for teaching Spanish, Russian and Italian are at present widely scattered but concentration of these graduates in a few universities would make it more difficult to find practice places. Many lecturers believe that the amount of ground which students must cover in the methodology of modern-language teaching is more extensive than in other subjects. Sugges_

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tions have been made to ease the pressure for both college students and university students, by combining the university training year with the probationary teaching year, by introducing short in-service training, by granting study-leave in term-time and by inter-changing, for example, British teachers of French and French teachers of English.

EPQ EKF

72–130 Vanhelleputte, Michel. La formation scientifique des professeurs de langues vivantes. [The scientific training of modern language teachers.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), **37**, 4 (1971), 464–80.

Departments of modern philology in Belgium have recently been undergoing considerable reform and it is interesting to see how these reflect on the university training of future language teachers. Two conferences, at Saalbach in Austria and Munich in Germany, dealt with aspects of the subject. At Saalbach standards in language skills, residence abroad and the presentation of cultural background were discussed. Stress was laid on the importance of instruction in contemporary language, literature and background, with the suggestion that historical studies might be reserved for a special category of students. This was a revolutionary suggestion for most European universities. Spoken language was considered very important; all arts faculties should have their own language laboratories. The Munich conference concentrated on cultural background, particularly for German teaching, recognizing that the background of the students affects the presentation of material. (European students have much more direct access to German culture than students from Japan or Thailand.)

There is still much confusion about the possible applications of linguistics to teaching – some seeing it solely as a matter of new learning techniques. The sociology of language will probably come to play a much greater role than it does at present. A teacher of languages in the present day needs to be well versed in all aspects of the contemporary language and its literature and should be able to use all the modern technical aids available to achieve this. [The recent practice

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of certain Belgian universities in training future language teachers is examined.]

EPQ EKF

TEACHING METHODS

72–131 Howgego, J. Experiment in group teaching in modern languages. *Scottish Education Department National Steering Committee for Modern Languages Bulletin* (Edinburgh), 3 (1971), 11–16.

In 1969 a subcommittee of the National Steering Committee was asked to consider the possible applications of group teaching to modern languages in secondary schools. Ten schools of varying size cooperated, most of them having mixed-ability classes. A guided social grouping was used by which the pupils chose their own group-mates with nominal interference from a teacher and these resulted in the desired ability groups. The usual size was four to six pupils. The work fell into three categories: (1) preparing background material of the scrapbook variety, (2) production of short scenes and dialogues by the abler pupils, (3) reinforcement of course material through listening to tapes, answering questions orally, inventing questions on pictures, working in collaboration to produce oral and written compositions, etc. Pupils were seen to participate more in their own learning and the standard of the group work was higher than that normally achieved by individuals. Problems arising are: noise, movement of furniture, availability of materials, time available in one school period. Group teaching is not only a means of solving the problem of the mixed-ability class but is an approach to language teaching which can be used with advantage in any class for certain activities.

EPQ EL

72–132 Monsen, Thomas. Some linguistic assumptions and their consequences for the teaching of foreign languages. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), **7**, 3 (1971), 16–22.

The linguistic assumptions considered here are those of Bloomfield and Firth. They shared the view that language is basically an activity.

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Slogans such as 'learning by doing', 'habit forming', 'pattern drill', and the 'inductive method' derive from this point of view. Some of the dogmas associated with language learning need reconsidering. Those of 'habit formation', 'learning of rules', 'application of rules', the importance of spoken and written language, and correctness versus acceptability are critically examined. The practising teacher must of necessity be prescriptive and normative because of the impossibility of teaching all varieties of English at once, but the more he knows himself about the varieties the better.

EPQ EL

72–133   Smith, Larry E. Don't teach – let them learn. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 5, 2 (1971), 149–51.

There are great differences in the learning abilities and rates of pupils. To 'lock-step' pupils into a procedure of exercises is a mistake. Individualization is not a new concept but it is rarely found in language teaching. [The author describes heterogeneous adult classes he has taught in Hawaii and Bangkok by means of individual pacing.]

EPQ EL

72–134   Taillefer, Renée. Individualization in the foreign language program: report of a visit to the Ithaca City schools. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 28, 1 (1971), 26–33.

Since autumn 1970 Ithaca City schools have adopted a programme of individualized instruction for foreign languages. Using an established course, the teachers are developing learning packets, programming the textbook so that the students can learn on their own. The packets contain instructions, questions and supplementary exercises. Oral or written work may be stressed but in practice emphasis is placed on the reading and writing skills. Students are encouraged to work in pairs or groups and the teacher moves from group to group. The teachers concerned have met regularly and have the full support of the administration. The clerical work is heavy for the teachers and it is still found that the best teachers produce the best results. In future

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teachers will have one day per week free from teaching duties to work on their packets. Oral work appears to suffer somewhat under the system and oral communication is important in Ontario where bilingualism is the aim. Nevertheless the Foreign Language Co-ordinator, though aware of the pitfalls, is optimistic about the system. At present it seems to flourish largely because of the enthusiastic work put into it.

EPQ EL

72-135   Tongue, R. K. Attitudes towards language and their reflec-
tion in language teaching methods and techniques. *RELC
Journal* (Singapore), 1, 2 (1970), 29-35.

There are three principal ways of looking at language on which language-teaching methodologies have been based. The best results are obtainable by adopting the advantages and rejecting the dis-advantages of all three.

The view of language as code has been influential through the grammar-translation (or classical) method, and is now to be found in transformational-generative grammar. The description of English offered by the transformationalist approach is too complex for lan-guage teaching. A methodology based on it has all the drawbacks of the grammar-translation method: teaching about the language, con-cern with rules rather than usage, and little exposure to the target language. To teach only the regular features of the code is impractical, except in the preliminary stages, for the most frequent items are irregular. Any methodology exclusively concerned with the teaching of the code is inadequate, but where a rule with few exceptions exists it is worth teaching, at least to adults. An eclectic method should not wholly reject all the techniques associated with the cognitive code-learning type of method.

The view of language as a set of habits has been influential too, but aural–oral techniques are exclusively concerned with linguistic form. Mere parroting, unrelated either to code or to context, is unlikely to produce competent speakers. Audio-lingual techniques offer the opportunity for a great deal of controlled practice in a short time. Repetition is a vital factor.

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Both views of language are concerned with form rather than function, and too little attention is given to communication. Extreme proponents of situational methods, on the other hand, neglect form. Situational approaches tend to reject the assistance of linguistic studies. Further, the teacher's ingenuity is overtaxed if *all* the language to be taught has to be contextualized. But situational methods are very important, since they strengthen motivation and interest.

Exclusive reliance on one of the three general types of methodology will not give the best results. An eclectic (structural–situational) method offers something for every learner. **EPQ EL**

CLASS METHODS

72–136   Molina, Hubert. Language games and the Mexican-American child learning English. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington), **5**, 2 (1971), 145–8.

The author describes a sample game included in the 'Language and Concept Skills Program for Spanish Speakers' developed at Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. Fifth-grade children tutored young Spanish-speaking children learning English, and a game was played in the last few minutes of each tutorial session. Every game included answers to questions and also vocabulary introduced by chance situations, reviewed oral language skills already taught, contained an unexpected gain or loss based on chance, was competitive, was meaningful to young children, had an objective measure determining a score and winner, and encouraged verbal interaction. Field testing of the lessons and tutorial materials showed a marked improvement in scores.

(420) EPQ ELB 973

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72–137 **Peck, A. J.** Teaching the creative use of a foreign language. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **9**, 3 (1971/2), 133–42.

The most important aim of foreign-language teaching is to enable pupils to make creative use of the grammar rules and vocabulary passed on to them. The Schools Council Modern Languages Project at York has been trying to select language items and exercises for limited linguistic means which will give the pupils practice in creating new sentences, though little is known about the process which enables people to invent new units of language. [Some of the different types of exercise included in *Vorwärts* are described, all conforming to the requirements of language acceptable to native speakers, relevant to a situation, and demanding of the pupils original speech in an authentic context presented visually or linguistically. The situations are highly charged emotionally to involve pupils as much as possible and encourage them to use language for communication. Fluency is the top priority, mistakes can be corrected later.]

(430) EPQ ELD

72–138 **Rattunde, Eckhard.** 'Aha, eine Birne': zum Problem einsprachiger Wörterklärungen. ['Oh yes – a pear': on the problem of monolingual explanations of words.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 11 (1971), 571–6.

The monolingual explanation of words to pupils cannot effectively exclude the use of the mother tongue even with the use of pictures, because the sight of an object or a picture of it will immediately provoke the mother tongue name in the pupil's mind. He will then associate this word with the new, foreign name which the teacher provides. It may be better to give the new word first, explain it with a picture and then let the pupil make his association with the mother-tongue word, but opinions are divided on this. Whichever presentation is made it is impossible to exclude the mother-tongue word from the learner's mind. What is more important is that the pupil should begin

to use the word, so that it passes as quickly as possible into his active vocabulary. The aim of subsequent exercises is to associate the new word directly with the object, and as firmly as the mother-tongue word is associated, so that passage of meaning via the mother tongue is rapidly eliminated.

EPQ ELD

GRAMMAR

72-139 **Baetens Beardsmore, H.** Gender problem in a language contact situation. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **27**, 2/3 (1971), 141–59.

If two languages in contact both classify their nouns into gender patterns, transfer of lexical items will involve problems with the gender of the transferred elements. The position is illustrated from the Flemish/French bilingual situation in Brussels. The individual's handling of gender will depend on the degree of his acculturation and the extent to which he manages to keep his two languages apart. [An outline is given of the gender classifications of nouns in French and Dutch.] It appears that although socio-cultural factors play a part in determining the gender of loanwords, internal linguistic features and the structures of the languages in contact play an equal if not greater role in the choice of gender.

EPQ ELD AKT

READING

72-140 **Norris, William E.** Advanced reading: goals, techniques, procedures. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **9**, 5 (1971), 6–14.

The goal in an advanced reading course is to teach the student how to get information from print quickly and with full understanding. Advanced ability requires improvement in reading speed, vocabulary recognition, and the comprehension of sentences, paragraphs and complete reading selections. [Analysed into subcategories.]

Reading ability does not develop as a by-product of training in the spoken language. [The author lists features of difficulty and ease in

reading as well as speech, and gives examples of the commonest techniques and exercises to improve advanced reading. He distinguishes five types of comprehension questions.] Training in the use of context clues and of word analysis is needed. [The author describes the main types of context clue.]

Most advanced reading lessons are based on a reading selection. There are three stages: pre-reading preparation, reading the selection, and follow-up activities. [Description of how each of these should be conducted.]

Extensive out-of-class reading should make use of easier reading materials. Student motivation and follow-up are important here too.

The common classroom aids may be supplemented by greater use of duplicated notes, and examples given on the overhead projector.

EPQ ELD ASP

72-141 Yorio, Carlos A. Some sources of reading problems in foreign-language learners. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **21**, 1 (1971), 107-15.

According to K. Goodman, reading is a selective psycholinguistic process in which the reader, guided by his knowledge of the language he is reading, picks up graphic cues and relates them to syntactic, semantic, and phonological cues in order to reconstruct an encoded message. Reading a foreign language is more difficult because the reader's grasp of the language is inferior to the native speaker's and because there is interference from the reader's own language. For both native reader and foreign reader the main difficulty is vocabulary.

Results of a questionnaire answered by Spanish students of English showed that most thought vocabulary their main problem. Many reported that they found it easy to 'lose the thread'. All said that when reading silently they stopped at words they did not know how to pronounce. The majority said that when reading they tried to understand directly in English all the time. Ninety per cent admitted using a bilingual dictionary. Most considered fiction and textbooks easier than newspapers and magazines.

Reading should be taught progressively, emphasizing overall com-
prehension from the start. Reading material must be chosen carefully,
beginning with stories. The first passages should be short. Students
should not read aloud passages they had not read silently before.
Exercises to encourage speedy reading should be given. There should
be provision for individual needs.
EPQ ELD ASP

SPEECH

72–142 Botsman, P. B. Collective speaking with older learners.
English Language Teaching (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 38–43.

Collective speaking is a useful way of maximizing oral practice and has
other advantages too. It helps to make students aware of the musical
resources of the voice. Collective speaking enables the teacher to ob-
tain from older pupils the sort of response without self-consciousness
which is obtained from younger children.

Language laboratories are misused where the 'selfconsciousness
syndrome' is given too much significance. A language laboratory
should not be so designed that language teaching is only possible
through the machine. It should be used as a supplement to other
methods, including collective speaking. [The author describes an
arrangement in which the booths are built round the perimeter of the
classroom and outlines how collective speaking can be used in con-
junction with the equipment.] Collective speaking serves as a bridge
between acquired facility and its use. It also helps the teacher to
emphasize the intonation and rhythm associated with the syntactic
pattern concerned.
EPQ ELD ATD

72–143 Prator, Clifford H. Phonetics versus phonemics in the ESL
classroom. When is allophonic accuracy important ? *TESOL
Quarterly* (Washington), **5**, 1 (1971), 61–72.

Distinctive-feature analysis has cast a lot of light on the systematic
relationship between spelling and pronunciation. Especially at ad-
vanced levels, teachers should help students to relate spelling and

sound, stress and vowel quality, roots and derivations. The structuralist concept of the phoneme is still useful but we do not know enough about which phonological elements contribute most to the intelligibility of speech to be able to ignore allophones. Unintelligibility is probably the cumulative effect of many little departures from the phonetic norms of the language. Attention should first be given to intonation and rhythm, then to distinctive vowel and consonant sounds, then to the relationships described by the distinctive-feature analysts, then to allophones in complementary distribution (especially those involving aspiration and vowel length), and lastly to allophones in free alternation of an idiosyncratic or dialectal nature. New research is needed if this order of priority is to be confirmed, rejected, or refined.

EPQ ELD ATD

72–144   Seliger, Herbert W. The discourse organiser as a framework for continued discourse practice in the language classroom. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 195–207.

Bridging the gap between manipulation of sentence patterns in the classroom and creative production of language is a serious problem for language teachers. Unfortunately modern linguistics does not provide many clues to the structural nature of continued discourse. There are non-linguistic aspects in the realm of conceptual relationships and certain prevalent patterns in the organization of oral discourse in English. The discourse organizer concepts discussed in this paper deal with the chronological or causal sequence of events expressed in the discourse. Exercises leading to natural discourse have been neglected in teaching for lack of an adequate theoretical basis. [The author explains a pattern in three phases which will help the pupil to join short statements together into connected discourse.]

EPQ ELD ATD

COMPOSITION

72-145   Knapp, Donald. A focused, efficient method to relate composition correction to teaching aims. *The Modern English Journal* (Ashiya-Shi), **2**, 2 (1971), 85–96.

Corrections and grades should be based on what the student has been taught. Corrections should entail reasonable tasks that the student can perform without much error and with the expectation of learning something. A good system of correction should at least isolate specific skills. Correction should involve the teacher in a search for successes rather than proof-reading for mistakes. Grades should reflect achievement against an absolute standard.

[The author explains and illustrates the use of a composition checklist, based on the syllabus of the course.] The teacher ensures that the student can use successfully those items on the list which have been singled out for teaching, and marks the student's list accordingly. Mistakes due to carelessness are merely underlined. A limited number of pattern mistakes should be marked and written pattern drills based on them: these drills should involve the writing of true, meaningful sentences.

Difficult constructions are in this way taught in the clearest contexts and when the teacher is ready to teach them. The method also reinforces what the students want to remember and practise.

EPQ ELD ATG

72-146   Lawrence, Penny. Free compositions. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), **22** (1971), 19–20.

The principle of not letting a pupil write free compositions while he is still liable to make many mistakes can be challenged. Controlled compositions are boring and boredom lowers motivation. Self-expression is one of the most satisfying aspects of language. This kind of work should only have the most glaring mistakes which affect the meaning corrected. The important thing is that it should say something interesting in the foreign language. Controlled work should be

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steadily continued but the dangers of free composition too early can be minimized. The teacher can note persistent mistakes and plan exercises round them for a later date. Very slow children who are incapable of writing sentences can occasionally be given a word-association type of composition, possibly in the form of a poem.

EPQ ELD ATG

72-147 Majstrak, Manfred. Die Technik der Darbietung von narrativen und sachkundlichen Texten im Englischunterricht. [The technique of presentation of narrative and factual texts in the teaching of English.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **18**, 4 (1971), 343–61.

The methods of presenting the passages for reading which are found in a course book have hardly been examined from the point of view of a monolingual approach. There is a gulf between theory preached and actual practice in the classroom. Traditional presentation stops short at making a passage understandable to the pupils, but most textbook passages are short and their interest value is not great; it is the vocabulary and structures presented which are important. Many teachers have difficulty in turning the written forms of the passage into speech structures which can be practised and some passages consist of forms unsuitable for the spoken language. Expression of opinion on a philosophical text can only be conducted after its structures and lexis have been mastered, and if the pupils have an interpretative vocabulary at their finger tips. Older pupils need to understand 'linguistic content' and to learn what is suitable in a particular context. A text should be a pretext for conversation. It may not always be possible to base immediate situational teaching upon it but it may give occasion for phonetic, intonation or lexical exercises which can later be transferred into a situation. [Practical suggestions are made for presenting a text covering audio-imitative method, text analysis with examples of question and answer work (demanding imagination and quick reactions on the part of the teacher), use of pictures for textual work; presentation of factual and problem texts to intermediate and advanced pupils and

finally preparation for an interpretative essay on a discussable passage
to be done as homework.]   **(420) EPQ ELD ATG**

STYLE

72–148 Sopher, H. The elements of clarity – an approach to the
study of style. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1
(1971), 20–31.

Style and grammar are separate, though related. To ensure clarity, a
writer should consider syntactic relations, notional relations and
patterns of thought, lexical ambiguity, simplicity and economy of
language, and concrete illustration of abstract ideas.

It is the element of discretion in the application of syntactic rules
that constitutes the stylistic element in syntax. [The author illustrates
by quoting exceptions to the rules that adverbials are not placed
between the verb and its direct object, and that participles must not
be unattached or wrongly attached. He argues that there are no rigid
rules governing the use of anaphoric words, and gives examples of
syntactic ambiguity.]

Words and word-groups in a sentence must be so arranged as to
bring out their relation to each other. A clear pattern of thought must
be established in the larger context of the paragraph and the essay.
The referent of every word should be clear and unambiguous. Am-
biguity may be due either to what is stated or to what is unstated. A
balance should be struck between simplicity and economy of language
on the one hand and complexity, redundancy, and circumlocution on
the other, taking account of other relevant factors. The elements of
style must not be considered in isolation. Aspects of style can profit-
ably be studied by analysing both good and bad prose.

EPQ ELD AV

TEXTBOOKS

72–149 Digeser, Andreas. Zeitgemäße Texte vom dritten und vierten Lernjahr ab. [Up-to-date texts from the third and fourth years on.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **24**, 3 (1971), 168–74.

To promote greater motivation in learning a foreign language among adolescents of the third and |fourth| years a radical overhaul of existing texts is necessary. Two main types would be suitable for youngsters exposed to mass media and therefore sceptical of cultural clichés: informative reports on contemporary social issues, and interesting and amusing stories. The two types should be kept separate, graded structurally, and be of high-quality content. Follow-up work with the texts should stimulate lively discussions, drawing on pupils' existing knowledge. Questions requiring parrot-like answers should be avoided and practice of new structural items confined to language periods.

EPQ ELD ELP ELQ

72–150 Heuer, Helmut. Psychologische Aspekte der Lehrwerk-kritik. [Psychological aspects of textbook criticism.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **18**, 3 (1971), 269–84.

In examining teaching material from a psychological standpoint three fields have to be considered: motivation, the psychology of learning and the psychology of speech.

Teaching material produced according to recent linguistic theories pays surprisingly little attention to pupil motivation although this is probably the decisive factor in successful learning. The psychology of learning is bound up with motivation. The psychology of speech is concerned with the associative and sequential aspects of speech. Small learning steps have to be sequential within a whole teaching plan. Psychological insights which are validated and suitable for the evaluation of teaching materials are difficult to discover and for the present specific questions have to be asked for specific sections. [An investigation is carried out here for the third chapter of volume 1 of *English for Today* by Weber, Denninghaus and Piepho. The sequence 'Act,

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Speak and Write' is discussed and the likely associations in the pupils' minds between the three. A sequence of pictures is examined and the effects of a long versus a short series of stimuli discussed.]

The reactions of both teachers and pupils to a textbook are also worth considering. A selection of pupils received a multiple-choice enquiry on five textbooks. A multiple-choice questionnaire was also given to the English teachers in a selection of secondary schools. A great variety of opinions was recorded, obviously influenced by the teachers' search for an ideal textbook.

EPQ ELD ELP

72–151 Marton, Waldemar. Transformational grammar, psychology, and foreign-language textbooks. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* (Poznan), **3**, 1/2 (1971), 81–8.

When a particular linguistic theory is applied to the preparation of foreign-language teaching materials it may affect the content or the methods employed to teach this content. Until recently the linguist has been preoccupied with methodology which is the proper field for the psychologist. The uncritical following of Skinner's behaviourist theories resulted in the popularity of the audiolingual habit theory in the United States, but in recent years this has been criticized as results fell short of the promises. There followed an increasing interest in the cognitive code-learning theory. The transformational grammar theory also has its advocates as the basis for the construction of pedagogical grammars. It has been felt intuitively that surface structure is not enough. The learner needs to develop a competence in his foreign language which will enable him to distinguish a grammatical from an ungrammatical sentence, and interpret syntactic ambiguities. Transformational grammar has little to contribute to the theory of learning or teaching. For this the teacher must listen to the psycholinguists, whose theories and experiments, though sometimes contradictory, may help a teacher to reconsider and modify some of his procedures and techniques. [Rutherford's *Modern English* is examined as an example of a textbook based on transformational grammar and intended for a fairly advanced level.]

EPQ ELD ELP

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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

72–152 Butzkamm, Wolfgang. Kritische Gedanken zur audio-visuellen Methode. [Critical thoughts on the audiovisual method.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 11 (1971), 581–95.

The advantages of audio-visual courses – natural dialogue and narrative; the tape-recorder as a new teaching medium with native speakers providing listening practice and correct pronunciation and intonation; mimicry–memorization of complete meaningful sentences; accompanying illustrations which reinforce learning by involving another sense and stimulating speech – all these are balanced against the unsolved problems of providing unambiguous illustrations which can provoke a precise structure or convey an exact meaning; the late introduction of reading and writing; and the final phase of inducing natural speech in free situations based on material learnt. [Examples are drawn from three audio-visual courses in current use.] EPQ ELR

RADIO TEXTBOOKS

72–153 Lally, Dale V. Short-wave receivers and the foreign language teacher. *NALLD Journal* (Athens, Ohio), **6**, 1 (1971), 37–42.

There are many audio-visual devices now in use in the foreign-language classroom but the short-wave receiver seems to have been overlooked. News programmes have several advantages over commercially produced tapes – immediacy, contemporary spoken language, a version of world events as seen by the speakers of that language. The problems are (1) the selection of the short-wave receiver, (2) the broadcast timetable and usable frequencies, and (3) the classroom use of recorded short-wave materials. A school radio club may have a receiver adequate for the purpose [some technical advice is given on the kind of receiver which would be suitable and on sources of information on the timing of short-wave broadcasts]. In the classroom, grammar instruction can revolve round the vocabulary, news items

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and grammatical constructions included in the broadcasts. The teacher himself will probably pick up a few new words and he, too, will benefit in this way. [Suggestions are made for playing back the tapes to a class, first complete, then in short segments for study, repetition, questions and dictation.] Testing can be carried out by a quiz on content. A sequel to this experiment would be the use of videotape materials, including foreign-language videotaped versions of film classics.

EPQ ELD

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

72–154 Bliesener, Ulrich. Didaktische und methodische Probleme beim Einsatz und bei der Erstellung von gedruckten Programmen für das 1. und 2. Lehrjahr Englisch. [Didactic and methodological problems in the use and construction of printed programmes for first- and second-year students of English.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 9 (1971), 453–61.

Programmed instruction has many advantages but it is not suitable for all teaching situations; instead, it should be used in conjunction with more traditional teaching methods. [The article deals with problems and questions arising after the publication of *Programme zur englischen Grammatik* (Verlag Diesterweg).] Programmed instruction is used most effectively where detailed information on a linguistic phenomenon will help the student to achieve active mastery of the language. It is also valuable where there is particularly strong mother-tongue interference. The printed programme is aimed at the individual student. It should be studied by him as part of his homework and followed by fixation, exploitation and transfer in the group. Understanding linguistic mechanisms is often more effective than intensively practising them.

Fully programmed courses are of relatively little value, especially for younger students, because they leave no room for learning within the group and require strong motivation. Linear programmes are mainly devoted to analysis of language, and this might lead to too

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much grammar for its own sake. Also, the student might get an over-simplified and narrow view of language as a system of logical classifi-cations and rules. [Suggestions on how to avoid these dangers.] A strictly linear programme leaves the student little freedom to draw his own conclusions or jump any of the study steps, although some programmes allow for a certain flexibility. Printed programmes should be constructed along inductive lines. This involves certain problems such as the choice of material, the situational element, and the use of the mother tongue.

EPQ ELD ELW

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

72-155 Beile, Werner and Alice. Assessing specific language laboratory drills. *Modern Languages* (London), **52**, 2 (1971), 54–62, and **52**, 3 (1971), 104–12.

The language laboratory does not lend itself to the introduction of new material but chiefly to the practice of structures. Previous classifi-cations of language-laboratory drills have failed to indicate at what point in the learning process a specific drill could be inserted or what type of drill a specific teaching point called for. In order to establish the role of any given drill the teacher must know to what extent the drill will teach the pupil to produce the structure correctly and how the drill will help the pupil to produce the| structure| spontaneously. [Drills are grouped as 'mechanical' and 'communicative' – these are subdivided and illustrated.]

The second part of the article continues the consideration of com-municative drills within a context, given in the form of a rubric, with or without visual or aural stimuli, or given in the course of normal class-work. The greater the independent effort needed on the part of the pupil to produce the correct responses and the more interesting the context, the more closely does the language-laboratory work re-semble the real speech situation and the more easily can the pupil later transfer what he has practised into free speech.

EPQ ELD ELY

72–156 Franke, Wolfgang. Ein sprachpraktischer Grundkurs für Anglisten. Ein Erfahrungsbericht aus der Arbeit der englischen Abteilung des Sprachenzentrums der Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg. [A basic practical language course for students of English. A report on the experiences of the English department of the language centre at the University of Erlangen-Nürnberg.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 11 (1971), 567–71.

The formation of this course was prompted by an attempt to wean students from choosing only options set in examinations; by the mediocre standard of English of new entrants; by a wish for greater guidance for English lectors, qualified in German but not in teaching English; and by a desire to integrate the language laboratory. Five hours a week were set aside, two double periods and one laboratory period. The level was not pitched high but aimed at revising known grammatical material. Texts were used for vocabulary building, oral summaries, discussion, translation and written work. Translations from German into English were prepared in order to practise vocabulary and grammar. Short stories were prescribed to improve reading ability and language-laboratory tapes made available for individual practice. A final test paper was set at the beginning of the second semester at the students' request. Further courses are being introduced for the second and third semesters. EPQ ELD ELY EMT

72–157 Paneth, Eva. Some functions of language workshops in the USA. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **9**, 3 (1971), 123–6.

A number of American universities' 'listening centres' were investigated. These provided a twenty-four hour service of tapes which could be dialled from a desk and heard through headphones. The service was manned from 8.00 am to 11.00 pm. Students could call the centres from libraries, language workshops and from other positions around the campuses, including dormitories. Copies of tapes could be made in the centres at accelerated speeds and in some places

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facilities were available for students to plug in their own tape-recorders and make their own copies. Remote control meant that there was less wear on the tape-recorders and they were centrally available to the mechanics for repair when necessary. A coordinated indexing system made it possible for aides in charge to advise on the material available. The aides were usually students earning their way, who had been trained in the manipulation of language workshops by the director. As they advised in the choice of programmes, took testing sessions or were introduced to the supervision of practice sessions they were being introduced to teaching and might be inspired to explore further. The students also acquired experience which would enable them to decide the direction and set the trends for future developments in teaching. It should not be left to commercial interests to dictate the forms future hardware will take.

EPQ ELD ELY 973

SECONDARY PUPILS

72-158 Hawkins, E. W. 'Language lab' should be the foreign environment. *Dialogue* (London), 9 (1971), 8-9.

The Schools Council's Working Paper No. 28 proposes new patterns for sixth-form modern language studies. The need to find new patterns for sixth-form study abroad is one of the more interesting subjects not spelled out in detail. Three possible models are: (1) a local survey carried out during a group visit by pupils to a town or village in France or Germany; (2) for less accessible languages, intensive 'language camps' in Britain are needed; (3) a sixth-former may spend two-thirds of his lower-sixth year as a pupil in a French or German school. This last pattern is described from the experience of a particular grammar school and problems of lodgings, work supervision of the other subject(s) studied, expense involved, and personal discipline problems, are discussed. **EPQ ELD EMS**

TERTIARY STUDENTS

72–159 Farrington, Brian. The language laboratory, University of Aberdeen. *Scottish Education Department National Steering Committee for Modern Languages* (Edinburgh), 3 (1971), 17–20.

The ability of a laboratory to act as a mechanical *répétiteur* is its least important aspect in university language learning. The article is concerned with French not only for French specialists but also for non-specialists, brushing up or even beginning their studies. Most of the material is for private study. At all levels it has been found satisfactory to prescribe a course of tapes, usually for one hour a week, and to abandon all monitoring. A 24-tape course for first-year students is monitored by one tutor for a group of thirty and includes orthographic transcript, directed conversation, comprehension exercises, poetry, grammar exercises. Second-year students follow a lecture course in phonetics. More advanced work of this nature has been done with Honours students, exploring the differences between written and spoken French on grammatical and lexical levels.

(440) EPQ ELD ELY EMT

72–160 McFarlane, I. D. Preparing to study languages at university. *Scottish Education Department National Steering Committee for Modern Languages Bulletin* (Edinburgh), 3 (1971), 5–10.

There is a great deal to be said for scrapping not only university examinations but degrees, and if professional examinations have to be set, the professions themselves can set them. Coming up from school, however, students are so conditioned to examinations that they show concern for their absence. Intense specialization should not come too early. A 'linguist' may, with profit, combine a language with a non-linguistic discipline. At school too it might be of more educational value for a pupil to specialize in one language rather than two and devote more time to non-linguistic material. In the last year at school

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certain qualities of mind should be trained: analysis, synthesis, judgment and independence of thought. A substantial part of a language learner's studies during his last school year will have to be devoted to improving his knowledge of the language. A facility for handling ideas orally in French must be developed; an awareness given of the relations between language and literature (even good students take a long time to understand the vital role of linguistic features for the tonality of a whole text); opportunity provided for essay, para-phrase- and précis-writing rather than the traditional prose composition.

EPQ ELD EMT

IMMIGRANTS

72–161   Peace, W. M. A study of the infant school progress of a group of Asian immigrant children in Bradford. *English for Immigrants* (London), **4**, 2 (1971), 26–31.

Two groups of young immigrant children, from 'low concentration' and 'high concentration' schools respectively, and two control groups of English children in the same schools were tested, using a 'simple skills' test and the Burt word-reading test. The children were also interviewed. [The linguistic scoring of the interview is described.] The immigrants did less well on scores of IQ (but at present there is no readily available test suitable for immigrants), reading age, and com-bined errors. There were marked deficiencies in the syntax, mor-phology, and relevance of the immigrant children's English.

EPQ EMP ENT

LESS-ABLE PUPILS

72–162   Dimitrievich, Nada. Activities and specific curriculum materials which have proved successful with the less able students. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **28**, 1 (1971), 47–9.

A teacher often finds bright, average and less-able students in one language class. Identification is not difficult as the less able are often

bored and indifferent. But low-aptitude students can learn a language if the course is made relevant by a suitable presentation which will not tax them beyond their level of attention and memory ability. Comprehension will be slow and manipulation of data depends on both comprehension and recall. Motivation is fundamental to learning. The slow learner has a short attention span and is easily distracted unless he is involved. Satisfaction is always obtained from achievement and a sense of discipline in class will help this. [A practical account follows of what can be achieved by using a simple story and then following with a question-and-answer situation involving drills which can be turned into a game to develop confidence and fluency.]

EPQ ELD ENF

ENGLISH   *See also abstracts* 72–136, -147

72-163   Banjo, Ayo. The English language and the Nigerian environment. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), **4**, 1 (1970), 45–51.

It is not enough to distinguish English as a foreign language from English as a second language; the classification needs to be more delicate. The role of English as a second language varies from country to country. Another variable is the structural influence of the native language on the second language.

There is no homogeneous linguistic environment for English in Nigeria. It does not perform the same role in every district. Yet the English-learning problems of speakers of the numerous languages found in Nigeria are not as varied as might be thought.

Examinations in English taken in Nigeria are based on syllabuses which do not faithfully reflect the role of English in Nigerian society. [Detail is given.] The mother tongue is preferred within the family circle and for phatic communion. The context of situation in which English is taught should begin with the school rather than with the home. The view that the cultural background of English-teaching should be local has to be reconciled with the view that no language can be learnt in isolation from the culture of which it is part. It is best to teach a kind of English which is socially acceptable in Nigeria and

also internationally intelligible. If English is to be presented within a Nigerian context, the rhythm and intonation must be modified to suit Nigerian names. Vocabulary selection should not be wholly based on the frequency of items in the British environment.   **420 EPQ 966.9**

72–164   Barry, W. J. Remedial pronunciation practice for German-speaking students of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 43–7.

Students have to be trained to hear their mistakes, and this calls for instruction, linked closely with the students' practical problems. Recordings of students' English are played, followed by an acceptable version of the same utterance, and theory is based on the students' reactions. Practical sessions are held in the language laboratory, and each student is told what mistakes to concentrate on.

Points are selected for practice by contrasting the phonological systems of German and English. [The author lists the points of difference and suggests an order of treatment, beginning with supra-segmental problems. He mentions the main theoretical points under the headings: word-accent and sentence-stress, linking, consonants, final voiced consonants, and vowels.] A clearer distinction should be made between the written and spoken conventions than is normally recognized by native speakers. Exercises in transcription help the students to recognize weak and condensed forms and are a means of indicating the students' own pronunciation problems.

420 EPQ ATD

72-165 Bliemel, Willibald. Kontextualisierung von grammatischen Patterns. [Contextualization of grammatical patterns.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **18**, 3 (1971), 255–60.

Examples are given of how the English structures *is going to* and *don't* can be taught to students in context through questions on a given situation leading to the new structure, which the teacher may present in written form on the blackboard in answer to his own question. Variations are given to the situations, and drills are produced without the intervention of questions. Dialogue gives practice in using *don't* and *doesn't* in replies, and pictures with inset time indications can be used as the basis for a variety of structures [illustrated].

420 EPQ AK

72-166 George, H. V. English for Asian learners: are we on the right road? *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 270–7.

Teachers place a high value on standard English but the language has many uneconomical features and Asian learners tend to produce forms such as 'two dog' and 'he want'. The economical English they use is erroneous but too much remedial work will decrease motivation for learning and the pupils will cease to make progress. There are psychological and sociological considerations for language learning and these have to be borne in mind in addition to a high regard for standard forms of English. English is no longer the property of native speakers and the cultural background is too different for Asian pupils to imagine themselves easily into the situation of an English pupil. For effective work with Asian students, orderliness and economy of input are essential. A great simplification of grammatical items, under frequency control, may make English learning a reasonable investment of effort.

420 EPQ EL 950

72–167   Gomes de Matos, F. Linguistic claims in English language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 209–17.

By making an analysis of fourteen teachers' books which have appeared since 1960 accompanying English courses by English, American and two French writers, the author attempts to show to what extent the principles of modern linguistics are reflected in them.

420 EPQ ELP

72–168   Johnson, F. C. Individualized instruction and the teaching of English as a second language in the primary school. *English in New Guinea* (Goroka), 6 (1971), 17–37.

Courses in English produced for primary schools in the 'fifties laid emphasis on reading. With the expansion of primary education, more guidance had to be given to teachers. Two main courses are in use, and new teaching materials are being developed. These are tried out, modified, and then extensively used. With existing materials, too much is expected of the teacher, subject-matter is too rigidly controlled, there is lack of economy and a need for supplementation. The language content is unrealistic and dull. Existing materials do not reflect contemporary views of second-language learning and teaching, since they do not provide for individual differences, for skill in teaching, and for the use of language as interpersonal communication. Individuals progress at different rates, learn in different ways, and differ in interests and preferences. Learning materials should be designed to take account of these facts. Pupils should be able to choose what they want to do at a particular time and follow their moment-to-moment preferences. Teachers are highly skilled professionals and should not be forced to teach in one way. Materials should carry the burden of presentation, practice and correction of mechanical aspects of the learning process, while teachers should be responsible for guiding learners through the materials. Language teachers are concerned with language acquisition, not with the finished product. They should view English as acquired classroom behaviour which enables a

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pupil to communicate with other pupils and complete tasks, first simple and then more complicated. If individual differences and the learner's freedom of choice are provided for, there is no need to buy whole sets of reading books. The learning and teaching materials available largely determine the way a teacher teaches any subject.

420 EPQ EL EMR

72–169 Jones, W. E. Patterns in English intonation: 5. Conversation and prose dialogue. *IUT Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy), 13 (1971), 38–53.

This is the fifth in a series of articles in which four styles of utterance have been distinguished – conversation, narrative, description and discourse. The styles differ in tempo and in degree of emphasis but the patterns of intonation are common to them all. It is hoped that good intonation while reading aloud will lead to confidence and fluency in conversation. The wide range of native-speaker possibilities has been narrowed down to five major patterns. [Details of the various sections composing a pattern given.] Sentences may be shortened by interruption or lengthened by addition, causing modification of the intonation pattern. Four kinds of addition are illustrated: parentheses, vocatives, question tags and reporting phrases. The last implies the narrative links between passages of conversation in a novel. Reporting phrases can carry a wide variety of intonation patterns depending on their length and position in relation to the direct-speech utterance. A few simple guide rules are given for an accurate rendering of such phrases. [In conclusion, a passage from Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* is marked for a typical reading.]   **420 EPQ AJP**

72–170 Lee, W. R. Ten years of the teaching of English as a foreign language. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 3–13.

There has been a growing interest in the learning of the world languages, especially English. The response of the English-speaking

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countries to demands for help, though far from adequate, has in-
creased in scale. There has been close cooperation within the Com-
monwealth and between Britain and the USA. [The author outlines
the work of US organizations and of the British Council in this field,
mentioning teaching and teacher-training projects, help given to
immigrants, associations of teachers and of linguists, journals, books
and libraries, and films, examinations, private institutions and founda-
tions, and research.] Sometimes linguistic theory is given too much
weight. More regard is now being paid to meaning and communica-
tion, and the importance of motivation is better recognized. Trans-
formational-generative grammar has tended to concentrate attention
on formal features and relationships. Linguistics has helped to clarify
the course-writer's and the teacher's ideas of the language. Contras-
tive studies, which have been chiefly concerned with interference by
the mother tongue, have shed light on the causes of certain errors. We
are not sure which are the language-advancing and which the
language-delaying factors in the first-language learner's environment.
Foreign-language teaching is being started earlier. There is a de-
creasing tendency to teach a foreign language without associating
experience with it. School-age pupils need a basic course, and
specialization should begin only at a vocational or pre-vocational
stage. [The author lists a number of problems still under discussion.]

420 EPQ EL

72-171   Oke, D. O. English in the workshop. *Journal of the Nigeria
English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), **4**, 1 (1970), 21-37.

The Nigerian student must acquire a command of English similar to
that of a person of equivalent education in a country where English is
the mother tongue. Deviations which do not impair intelligibility may
be tolerated. [The author describes the present situation in Nigeria,
with particular reference to aims, content, time available, teaching
methods, and teachers' qualifications.]

At the lower levels there should be a shift of emphasis from
writing to speaking. More time should be given in the primary and

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secondary schools to both the mother tongue and English. At inter-
mediate level there should be a change from examination-oriented to
competence-oriented teaching of English. Teacher training pro-
grammes should be revised, and only those with a good command of
English allowed to teach in the lowest classes. More contrastive
analyses and more equipment are needed.   **420 EPQ EL 966.9**

72-172   Plaister, Ted. Contrastive analysis and materials adapta-
tion. *Bulletin of the English Language Center* (Bangkok), **1**,
3 (1971), 54–64.

A review of Stevick's criteria for the evaluation of language teaching
materials is followed by an examination of the social dimension and
its relation to contrastive analysis, taking a section of text from
English 900 on 'Greetings' as an example. An apparently simple
greeting can be very difficult for a Thai student from the phonological
point of view. Any teacher of English as a second language who has
been trained in the use of contrastive analysis can be aware of
phonological problems in a text. Many second-language teaching
materials do not clearly indicate who is talking to whom other than
by the superficial tag of a name. Materials consistently fail to show
the many and varied social relationships existing between and among
speakers. It is usually the teacher who has to supply the social dimen-
sion to the lessons. A native speaker can do this effectively but may
easily forget to do so; if the second language learners are beginners it
is difficult for the monolingual English speakers to get the social
dimension across. The non-native speaker has the advantage of com-
munication with his students in their mother tongue and he will have
some useful training in contrastive analysis where phonology and
grammar are concerned. The social dimension provides the gravest
difficulty. Complex behaviour has to be understood in context, hence
a recent call for meaningful language teaching materials rather than
items in isolation.   **420 EPQ AYF ELP**

72–173   Verner, Zenobia and Josué González. English language teaching in a Texas bilingual programme. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 296–301.

[The authors describe the main features of a programme designed to teach oral English quickly to young Mexican American children.] The children are given instruction in Spanish at the same time, so that they do not feel their own language or culture to be ignored or rejected by the school. Language is taught through subject-matter. New and 'culture-fair' curriculum materials are being developed. [The authors illustrate the approach by describing parts of classroom lessons.] Songs and rhymes are used to give additional practice. Teachers take part in a professional development programme. The children are acquiring subject-matter concepts as well as oral English which they use in class and out of class. [Bibliography.]   **420 EPQ AFG 973**

72–174   Walton, G. A language and its literature: the study of English in a West African University. *Universities Quarterly* (London), **25**, 4 (1971), 446–55.

In an African university English department, standards appropriate to an educated mother-tongue speaker have to be combined with a sense of the language as a living and changing medium of expression. A dialect of a language, which a number of people use among themselves, cannot be treated fully as a language nor should one particular form of English be imposed upon second-language speakers, but standards of clarity in speech and lucidity in writing should be inculcated. New phrases and words will come into existence among second-language users and the pronunciation of words and even the intonation of sentences will not remain static.

Studies of language and literature interlock. The question of understanding the background to literature is important up to a point. *Relevant* facts about an author and his work have to be known but there is the universal appeal of the study of human nature in all great literature. The danger of too much preoccupation with background

information is that it may distort what one reads and make one look for things that are not there. Interest in African writers in England shows that readers can understand and enjoy literature which presents situations and circumstances of which they have no direct experience. The discipline of the English department entails the critical study of a language as a medium of communication, of which literature forms a part, and the critical study of a literature which is the expression of that language.

420 EPQ AVL EMT 966

FRENCH *See also abstract* 72–159

72–175 Contassot, Yves and Rogert Girod. Pour un enseigne-
ment actif de la civilisation française. [Teaching French
culture.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 83 (1971), 19–21.

The Swedes have always considered it important to convey the cultural background and an understanding of the daily life of the people whose language is being learnt. There is, however, a gap be-tween theory and practice and the manuals in use in schools go out of date. Audio-visual aids can be more up-to-date but the time for their use is often limited. The aim today is to enable the pupil to express himself freely in the foreign language and the pupil has to be highly motivated in order to achieve this. The role of cultural background in the form of *actualités* is intended to provide just this motivation. Since 1969 Swedish schools have experimented with a 'cultural day' for pupils of sixteen to eighteen years. One subject is chosen and with the help of the *Association pour le Développement des Echanges franco-suédois* a short film is presented. A French *assistant* then explains and develops the theme presented in the film and then the pupils and the teacher discuss and draw up a list of questions to the *assistant* on what has been seen and explained. Finally the *assistant* returns and answers the questions which are put to him by the pupils while the Swedish teacher remains in the background. These 'information days' are greatly appreciated.

440 EPQ EPN

72–176   Grant Brown, T. Pedagogical implications of a case grammar of French. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 229–44.

The description of French grammar used here is based upon the case grammar theory developed by Fillmore. This theory dispenses with the phrase structure component of transformational grammar and considers the relational notions of subject and direct object as surface structure phenomena. The deep structure, consisting of the predicate and associated cases, is acted upon by an ordered set of transformations which select a subject and a direct object from those cases which are present and delete their case markers. The first major syntactic difficulty which presents itself to the student of French is the reflexive construction and this phenomenon is studied in detail through true reflexives, change of state verbs and the passive voice and verbs of emotion. The conclusions reached could reduce the amount of memory work required by the learner and make it easier for him to get to the meaning of sentences.   **440 EPQ AK**

72–177   Llasera, Jean. A propos de l'orthographe. [About spelling.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **84** (1971), 16–22.

A commission of specialists is examining the French language to try to remedy the present dissatisfaction with its spelling. Meanwhile children's examination results and future careers can still be affected by their spelling mistakes and foreign as well as French pupils have to struggle with spelling. It is up to the teacher to produce a rational and systematic teaching method which will reduce the present difficulties to a minimum. Correct spelling will depend in the first place on complete comprehension of what is being written. *Liaison* will help a French pupil to write correct endings in a dictation but it may confuse a foreign pupil by upsetting his comprehension. A tape-recorder may distort sound slightly and cause comprehension difficulties for foreign pupils. A certain number of such difficulties may be foreseen and explained by contrastive analysis. Other assistance, for dictation pur-

poses, can consist in teaching the pupils to sort out the sound patterns into their constituent elements, to recognize these elements in other combinations, to recognize *liaison*, junction and agreements which will have to be noted in the written language. [Examples given.] Making pupils constantly aware of the means which a language uses for communication is the best pedagogical approach to the problems of spelling. Both meaning and grammatical usage have to be clear before the spelling of the written form can be correct. Some appreciation of the economy of the language has also to be inculcated in conjunction with meaning, not by the use of abstract terms but by showing the pupils, by practical examples, the means the language puts at their disposal to express what they want to say.   **440 EPQ ASL**

72–178   Reed, J. Post 'A-level' French. *Modern Languages* (London), **52**, 3 (1971), 118–24.

There is a dearth of specific information on how languages are taught after A-level. In the universities there seems to be much reliance on translation exercises, some essay writing, conversation with a *lecteur* and some *explication de texte* in connection with literature.

Because of the demands for greater emphasis on the spoken language, Keele University decided to abandon translation exercises in the first year and attempted to find a more efficient alternative to prose composition. There was no need for an audio-lingual course as many students had had the opportunity of an academic year abroad and were more competent in the oral than in the written language. The new course was based on contemporary French texts and covered paraphrase and précis, grammatical and stylistic transposition, essay and *pastiche* writing and some systematic grammar studies. A test incorporating the correction of deliberate mistakes had the advantages of no interference, a high degree of relevance, and objectivity in marking, though results were no more conclusive than those on the prose. Closer scrutiny of the underlying principles of the course is needed, and more definite information on the linguistic

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attainment of the average 'A-level' candidate. The course has estab-lished a viable alternative to the translation type of course but its detailed application remains to be completed.   **440 EPQ EMT**

72-179   Santoni, Georges V. Un cours de civilisation française au niveau universitaire. [A university-level course in French culture.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 84 (1971), 27–33.

Systematic teaching of French culture raises certain basic problems: how to reconcile synchronic and diachronic teaching, how to avoid encyclopaedic listing and stereotyping, how to bring detail into a synthesis, how to obtain student participation and how to justify the existence of the course. The study of language and literature has been challenged as insufficient to enable a student to get to grips with a cultural system, and cultural courses come under similar criticism. The University of Michigan attempted to broaden the base of their course in French culture by using a team of three lecturers who had studied geography, the history of art and political science in addition to their language work. The presence of a team also made it possible to divide a class into three seminars for discussion, in addition to the lectures given. A section of the library was reserved for material in the form of magazines, newspapers and specialized books. An introduc-tion was given comparing American and French culture, using recent sociological and anthropological studies. This was followed by the study of a particular theme through a century, the aim being to underline the elements which still have some link in contemporary culture and personal ities who have great significance to the French The third stage was devoted to contemporary culture divided into: the family, society, education, the economy, politics, and artistic and scientific influences. Notes on the texts used were duplicated and given to the students, followed by brief questions on material set for reading. Such a course still leaves room for distortions, but is an attempt to fill in some of the gaps left by a traditional language and literature study.   **440 EPQ ELD EMT EPN**

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GERMAN *See abstract 72–137*

RUSSIAN

72–180 Sayakhova, L. G. and D. M. Khasanova. Лексическая микросистема 'почта, телеграф' и методика её усвоения. [The lexical microsystem 'post office, telegraph', and a method for learning it.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 4 (1971), 33–41.

In material designed as a guide to the teaching of word usage, lexical microsystems presented in the form of a thematic dictionary would help the student of foreign languages make an effective transition from the acquisition of meaning to its expression. Such lexical micro-systems would be based on two criteria: in the extralinguistic plane, on the selection and grouping of words according to a given situative theme, and in the linguistic plane, on the presentation of these words to reveal their semantic relationships and their lexical combinability.

The material for this particular microsystem, having postal and telegraphic services as its theme, was chosen from a variety of texts of differing styles, totalling some 35,000 words. The selected lexis was then subdivided into broad groups, indicating, for example, means of communication, types of services, and personnel. Each group contains two sections: basic, recurring lexical items, and accompanying vocabulary in the form of phrases exemplifying possible lexico-semantic combinations of the chosen items.

To facilitate lexical organization in the first section, the semantic categories of antonyms and synonyms are used and nouns are treated as concrete, abstract or collective; while in the accompanying vocabulary of the second section, verbs fall into three types, verbs of motion, of concrete activity and of sending. [A small plan denotes all the structural combinations possible in these sections.] After suggestions for the use of the material in schools, there follows the whole of the lexical micro-system of the given topic, offered as one section of the proposed

thematic dictionary. [Also appended are texts, lexical and grammatical exercises and conversations, all based on this microsystem.]

491.7 EPQ ALD

72-181 Vyatyutnev, M. N. Проблемы теории аудио-визуального учебника по русскому языку для зарубежных школ. [Theoretical problems in devising an audio-visual textbook in Russian for foreign schoolchildren.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1971), 36-42.

Present audio-visual courses may be said to lack a cohesive methodological theory of instruction; rather, they seem to be based on an amalgam of past practices associated with a variety of language teaching methods. Four components need attention in devising a coherent audio-visual method: the choice of linguistic and extralinguistic material; the sequencing of introductory material; means and aids for presentation; and ways of teaching skills and habits.

First, the choice of language items is often faulty (in that linguistic factors such as frequency, combinability and lexical quantity are ignored) in order to concentrate on language items easily 'demonstrable' visually. Thus not only may the language used be unnatural, but important items in the initial stages may be ignored. Both the linguistic and the extralinguistic should be combined so as to lay emphasis upon the characteristics of the chosen situation itself rather than upon the language items employed.

Secondly, there is a need to fuse the advantages of both linguistic sequencing (systematic grading of grammar) and functional sequencing (where a set of situations reflects aspects of a certain topic). A given number of topics, situations and words should present a set of rules permitting the learner to create types of sentences and to endow them with an intended meaning in a given situation. Situations could be far more numerous than the language items known.

Thirdly, presentation by pictures should avoid imparting false information about speech behaviour and culture. Semanticization of new

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language items presents a formidable problem but simplified schematic representations may be supplemented by cultural information in the learner's native language. [Meaning should be established by six stages.]

Fourthly, transference of acquired skills to a new situation is a great source of difficulty for learners. [Analogy, anticipation and flexibility of language items taught need more attention.] For the learner to perform well in a real speech situation there is need to devise a set of principles upon which systems of creative exercises may be based. Such exercises would help the transference of acquired skills to programmed situations designed for the learner to work alone, assist him in the correct choice and the suitable adaptation of known language items and thus help him meet the linguistic demands of a variety of changing situations. **491.7 EPQ ELP**