

# *Language learning and teaching*

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## RESEARCH

**68-291 Hawkins, E. W.** School and university co-operation in modern language studies. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 5, 2 (1967), 48-56.

School and university can co-operate over problems as diverse as the explosion of language-teaching in sixth-forms, motivation for the non-academic child in the middle school, teaching training for both tasks and refresher courses for practising teachers at all levels.

Research is needed to establish the best use of language laboratories, installed at considerable expense in many schools without adequate support. Partnership of schools and research workers is also required for controlled experiment on the vexed question of the place of prose translation. In spite of recent progress in teaching methods, syllabuses and examinations, much greater collaboration between schools, colleges of education, technical colleges and research centres is necessary. [Possible machinery for such co-operation and training and lines along which joint research teams might work are suggested.]

The results of research carried out on the methods by which a child acquires his mother tongue, and subsequently a foreign language, need to be disseminated to teachers and administrators. Problems of pupils' motivation could be better understood if the differences between first and second language learning were more widely understood. More investigation of second language learning is required to establish whether modern practice in language teaching is right from a psychological point of view. [Broadbent's and Carroll's doubts are noted and other questions suggested for investigation.] Research must be classroom-based. The question of parental encouragement and its absence needs pursuing and much more work is required on all kinds of testing techniques. In conclusion, an outline for possible university and

college-based language centres with teachers' workshops is given. A plea is made for research workers to have had practical teaching experience and to ask questions from first-hand knowledge.

### THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

**68-292 Hayes, Alfred S., Wallace E. Lambert and G. Richard Tucker.** Evaluation of foreign language teaching. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 1, 1 (1967), 22-44.

There have been both formal and informal evaluations of the old 'grammar-translation' and the new 'audio-lingual' teaching methods but little attention has been given to identifying and evaluating procedures, principles and policies underlying them. The standard technique for evaluating a language-teaching programme is to obtain objective measures of pre- to post-training changes in students. A potentially faster and more useful technique would be the evaluation, based on direct observation, of actual training in progress to ascertain whether the course design, programme administration and individual teaching performance conform to known principles and procedures of successful language learning. A research plan was devised for developing such a technique and its preliminary phase was an analysis of the ratings which 364 lecturers at NDEA institutes gave to 324 features believed to be important in second-language proficiency. An audio-lingual approach was strongly favoured. The next step will be to validate these features. [An appendix lists the 324 features.]

**68-293 Helbig, Gerhard.** Die Bedeutung syntaktischer Modelle für den Fremdsprachenunterricht: (1), (2). [The value of syntactic models in foreign language teaching: (1), (2).] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 4, 4 (1967), 195-203 and 4, 5 (1967), 259-65.

'Model' has the double meaning of 'pattern' and 'theory', the first meaning belonging chiefly to the field of practical teaching and the second to linguistics. The two articles cover both aspects.

It is important to know from what level 'patterns' are drawn—structure, context, meaning, or function, and which of the patterns are suitable for language teaching. Any pattern which represents a mixture of levels or which assumes that structure and context are parallel must be eliminated. This leaves the purely structural sentences (illustrated by Fries, Harris and others), those where context counts (Brinkmann) and the grammatical-logical types (Admoni). It is clear that sentences depending on content and context are much more complicated than the purely structural ones and this influences not so much mother-tongue as foreign-language teaching where the students can only perceive the meaning by means of structural-grammatical patterns.

Humboldt and Weisgerber saw language not as a means of communication but as an intellectual power to draw the outside world into the mind. Variety of language represents variety in views of the world. Gipper saw any translation as a linguistic and intellectual metamorphosis. Humboldt felt that it is not the means of expression but the unfamiliar cast of thought, the point of view of the world taken by the speaker of the foreign language, which is of more educative value to the student than the practical language skills. The functional grammar of western Europe and America is too utilitarian.

The 'pattern' method of teaching a language, which originated in Fries' structural grammar, is not based on explained grammatical rules but on constant repetition to establish automatic 'speech-habits'. The method is very suitable for children—adults may need more explanation if the method is to be effective, and it must be recognized as a means to the limited end of 'speaking' the language. Fries insisted that this method depended primarily on the scientific description of structure on which teaching material would then be based. Modern teaching methods cannot be divorced from linguistic research and the teacher concerned must not only know thoroughly the language he is teaching but must be aware of its phonetic system, its structure and its vocabulary, seen from the point of view of structural analysis. Someone who knows the language may still not be competent to carry out language drills. Pattern practice can make greater demands on the teacher than a traditional method.

The more recent generative grammar of Chomsky also has its impact on foreign language teaching, although this is less direct and at the moment less developed. It sees an intuitive grammar being built up in the learner through hearing sentences and constructions, repeating them and having them corrected. Gradually the learner recognizes the exceptions to this intuitive grammar and makes allowance in his own speech for them.

**68-294 Plastre, Guy.** Réflexions sur la méthodologie audio-visuelle structuro-globale en regard des principes généraux de la didactique des langues secondes (1). [Thoughts on the audio-visual structuro-global method with reference to the general principles of teaching a second language (1).] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 3 (1966), 51-67.

Linguistic didacticism is a new science which attempts to illuminate, through its principles, the processes of second-language teaching. According to these principles, the basic elements constituting any second-language teaching method are: (1) selection of the material, (2) grading of the elements selected, (3) presentation of the elements, (4) repetition. In this article the author makes a detailed examination and criticism of the first two principles, taking into consideration the method of Zagreb-St Cloud as well as recent linguistic theories.

Selection implies a limitation of vocabulary and grammar, in terms of the stage of language learning the course is designed for. This selection ought to be based on statistical criteria which are the only objective measures, and will take into account frequency, range, suitability to circumstances (including the possibility of passive knowledge), and the returns to be expected. No selection at the syntactic and morphological level can be made for a basic course. Structures can only be graded according to difficulty. Finally, all phonetic elements ought to be included and a good foundation laid in the first six months of learning a language. The best gradation of selected material is difficult to establish. It should be remembered that grading and presentation are separate concerns. Oral expression will take place within a strict framework at first and free expression, including an understanding and use

of paralinguistic phenomena in free speech, will come later. The only guide to good grading is linguistic analysis of the target language and comparison with the system of the students' mother tongue.

## TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

**68-295 Valette, Rebecca M.** Improving multiple-choice grammar tests in German. *German Quarterly* (Wisconsin), **40**, 1 (1967), 87-91.

A false picture of a student's knowledge may be gained from multiple-choice tests because of the possibility of guessing the right answers. This study was carried out to establish on what grounds the poorer student tended to select the response to an item he did not know. Selected examples are given from a comprehensive objective-type final examination administered to five classes of first-year, first-semester college German students.

In examining the responses it was noticed that the poorer students tended to fill blanks with items possessing an inflectional ending identical to the final consonant and/or vowel of the word preceding the blank. Such items could be eliminated from tests. The inflectional system of German lends itself to such modification, for words of another number or gender can always be found to replace the unwanted option. Suggestions are made for combinations of endings with prepositions to be avoided. By eliminating dubious multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank items, the teacher will take a definite step in improving the reliability of his tests.

## TEACHER TRAINING

**68-296 Celani, Maria Antonieta.** Phonology at teacher-training level. *English Teaching: a regular bulletin for teachers of English in Brazil* (Rio de Janeiro), **2** (1967), 10-14.

At the Fourth International Summer School in Rio de Janeiro it was unanimously agreed that phonology should be part of the general

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teaching-training syllabus which in Brazil is carried out at the university. Some general notions about language should precede the teaching of phonology proper which will begin in the first year. Language should be shown as a system in which substance (phonetics and phonology) and form (grammar and lexis) interact. Following upon some linguistic theory students should be introduced to phonetics, phonology and a description of both English and Portuguese with an early use of phonemic and allophonic transcription. Suggestions are given for practical work, mainly phonetics, for remedial speech work. Ear-training should come first. The use of contrast between English and Portuguese is helpful. Short sentences and practical dialogues will be needed to practise sounds in context.

The author recommends an integrated course in which the departments of English, Portuguese and Linguistics might co-operate. At her Institute it was planned to begin in 1967 a course leading to a *licenciatura* in one foreign language: twelve hours a week would be spent on English, four being devoted to phonology in the first year.

**68-297 Vogt, Heinrich L.** Die Zukunft der europäischen Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung. [The future of European modern language teacher training.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 67, 2 (1968), 84-91.

A seminar was held in Oslo, in 1967, under the auspices of the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, to consider modern language teacher training for those who would teach pupils from 10 to 16.

The aims and essential content of courses, together with a means of assessment of achievement, are summarized. Suggestions for the provision of supporting material and methods of subsequently keeping the teacher up to date are outlined. It was hoped that such further training might be undertaken through international co-operation. A future European centre for this purpose was envisaged.

**TEACHING METHODS**, including class methods, language laboratories, teaching immigrants, speech, pronunciation, reading, teaching literature.

**68-298 Apelt, Walter.** Zur Rolle von Muttersprache und Übersetzung im neusprachlichen Unterricht. [On the role of mother tongue and translation in the teaching of modern languages.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **12**, 2 (1968), 50-2 and 58.

How important is the use of the mother tongue in the teaching of foreign languages? Opinions on this point have varied.

Today the tendency is to rely on the mother tongue as little as possible, although there are certain circumstances under which its use may be desirable. According to recent research in language psychology and neurophysiology, learning any language, including one's mother tongue, results in active, productive memory traces being formed in the brain. Learning a foreign language leads to the formation of a new and totally separate system of traces upon which an existing system should not encroach.

Even before these findings were known progressive teachers had given instruction in the same language that they taught, and the principle was universally accepted at the Unesco conference on foreign-language teaching in Ceylon.

In the light of present knowledge translating, which is a special skill in itself, should no longer be the chief means nor the main goal of language instruction because it causes confusion between the different systems of memory traces thus preventing the student from thinking originally in the foreign language. Instead it is advisable to concentrate on listening to, speaking, reading, and writing the language being taught.

There are, however, instances, especially in advanced classes, when resorting to the mother tongue is unavoidable and even preferable to slavishly following the direct method of language teaching. Whenever general linguistic information has to be imparted or comparisons are drawn between the foreign language and the mother tongue, the latter should be employed.

**68-299 Sirevåg, Tønnes.** Modern language teaching in Scandinavia. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 3, 3 (1968), 8-16.

In an age of technical advance, language remains the key to mutual understanding. We therefore wish our pupils to be able to use a foreign language as a means of communication. It should also constitute the first widening of the horizon for young people, leading to a questioning of the traditional judgement on people outside their own linguistic group.

In Scandinavia, for historical reasons, German and French were the first foreign languages, taught at university level. Later English was found to be useful to those engaged in trade and shipping, and in Norwegian south-coast ports English was taught in primary schools in the early 1870s. After the second world war English became available to everybody in Scandinavia at 'primary' level, a term which applies to pupils up to fourteen years of age. At primary level modern languages are regarded as a means of communication—a skill rather than an academic study. They are being taught to children with a far wider span of aptitude and ability than before and syllabuses and textbooks are having to be changed. The adequate testing of oral skills awaits the development of techniques and apparatus for mass individual testing.

The required modern languages for 16- to 19-year olds are now English first with German and French as second languages.

In adult education modern languages are in great demand, and correspondence arrangements, sound broadcasting and television are playing an increasingly important part.

The provision for teacher education has increased since 1938 when a special two-year course was set up in teacher training colleges for those who wished to include English among their teaching subjects. Previously the university carried out the training with syllabuses cast in the mould of classical studies. [Details are given of recent arrangements for training teachers and some contemporary problems. The article was originally a lecture given at the Council of Europe conference on the training of modern language teachers held in Oslo in 1967.]



**68-300 Larndee, Faze.** Teaching short serial items in a target language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **1**, 2 (1967), 55-7.

A technique is expounded and illustrated for teaching serial items such as days, months and numbers, so that the students are able to recall each item of the series both independently and as a member of the series to which it belongs.

**68-301 Sutherland, Kenton K.** The place of dictation in the language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **1**, 1 (1967), 7-14.

Dictation can be abused by being used incorrectly and at the wrong time. One purpose of the device is to decode sequences of oral symbols into written ones and concurrently to test student progress. More important is that dictation can help students to realize that they are not hearing unstressed syllables and one-syllable function words. Dictation can only be effectively used after students have had plenty of practice with the spoken form of the language. It can be substituted for composition in the earlier stages of instruction. The principle of progress by reinforcement and encouragement which inspired programmed learning should also affect dictation; this should involve specific structures and vocabulary and should never be designed to catch the student in error. Individual speeds of writing should be watched. Correction of dictation should be carried out immediately by the student himself. The teacher needs to graduate the material so that it is consistent with the students' ability. These principles should ensure that dictation is a positive activity. The role of the teacher could be taken over by a tape-recorder, thus enabling good and poor students to work at their own speeds using as much repetition as is necessary for the individual.

- 68-302 Barrutia, Richard.** The past, present, and future of language laboratories. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **50**, 4 (1967), 888-99.

The author traces the development of forerunners of the language laboratory, mentioning significant points in the history of recording facilities and the use to which they have been put.

The present situation as regards equipment and methodology receives close attention: closed-loop continuous cartridges, the effectiveness of the playback facility and the ineffectiveness of certain 'instant playback' techniques, dial access and the electronic classroom, research into the efficacy of audio-lingual techniques, the Keating Report and misuse of equipment, programmes used in the laboratory, basic types of recording equipment (audio-active, audio-active-comparative, etc.), and remote-control laboratories.

In discussing the future of the language laboratory the author covers such topics as: a retrieval centre with facilities beyond the confines of the single classroom, portable battery-operated units, greater facilities for transference of information, computer-assisted instruction, linear and branch programming, the application of transformational theory to laboratory materials, telephoning devices and video-tape-recording, mass media communications, the miniaturization of recording devices.

- 68-303 Cole, Leo R.** Advantages and limitations of language laboratory learning. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **5**, 2 (1967/68), 59-69.

A greater appreciation is needed of the type of equipment that lies between the full-scale language laboratory and the class tape-recorder. The laboratory relieves the teacher of listening repeatedly to the same phrases but throws up a new kind of teacher-morale problem.

The virtue of the machine is its power to repeat and to free the teacher for more intelligent tasks. The machine should not determine the nature of the material but be made to serve teacher-student needs. Consideration should be given to the role of the laboratory in passive

and subconscious acquisition of language as well as in the development of active oral skills.

The length of pause in which the student has to repeat or answer a given piece of language is bound up with the use of pause and re-wind facilities, but it is better to err on the side of short rather than long pauses. More research on the psychoneurology of speech is necessary in this respect.

The choice of three-, four- or five-phase drills depends on the exercise. Self-review is not so advantageous as would at first appear since pupils' self-critical abilities need proper training. Bad habits can be learned if guidance is not given. Monitoring individual students has restrictions as well as advantages.

Students have to be trained to evaluate their own performance. As much time should be given to this as to oral production. To secure active participation, careful planning of the balance between listening and responding is necessary.

It should not be assumed that oral practice for every student is the principal advantage of the laboratory. The claim that *all* students are working *hard*, *all* the time, has been exaggerated. The library mode of operation indicates future developments. At present the advantage of the laboratory lies in offering auto-instruction adjusted to the age, aptitude and abilities of the individual student.

**68-304 Friedmann, D. M.** How much information: a plea for objective assessment. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 5, 2 (1968), 75-7.

Students have to be taught to hear foreign sounds. The level of auditory information may vary not only from person to person but from situation to situation. Incoming auditory stimuli are processed by the brain to give an abstraction or norm. For example, *gissit* can mean *would you please give me that book*, and both can be used by the same speaker as occasion demands.

Even in our mother tongue failure to receive sufficient information to process correctly or faulty processing is not uncommon. Proper nouns give rise to many mistakes of this type. [The author analyses examples.]

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The student in the language laboratory often has to rely on a low level of information through inadequate equipment or because he lacks previously stored-up experience to help him to interpret.

The causes of failure to hear certain aspects of speech are analysed, and remedies are suggested. Normal speaking speed on the tapes, pre-laboratory preparation, support of the printed word (with certain checks), and high-quality tapes and equipment, are recommended.

**68-305 Planchon, Félicien.** Le laboratoire de langues: essai d'analyse fonctionnelle. [The language laboratory—an examination of its technical performance.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 6 (1967), 27-41.

This article (the first of two) examines the way in which the limitations in the technical performance of language-laboratory equipment can affect the student's perception of the sounds and structures of a new and unknown foreign language. Difficulties of synchronization between sound recording and visual projection have largely limited laboratory work to audio-lingual (audio-oral) forms. The teacher's minimum requirements in control facilities are briefly enumerated.

**68-306 Theuma, Jean R.** Is dial-access a fad? *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington, DC), 12, 10 (1967), 1079.

Current technological trends towards automation and computerization have created pressures to install language laboratories with dial-access programme selection. Such systems cost up to three times as much as an orthodox audio-active comparative laboratory and, in addition, have certain inherent pedagogical limitations. They are *inflexible* in that only the student who dials in first can record the whole of the selected programme from the beginning once the transmission has started. Their random access capability is strictly limited to the number of programmes that can be played simultaneously. Furthermore, in the library mode of operation, the student has to work in lockstep with the remote programme source during the first phase when the programme is being dubbed on to his own tape.

Orthodox comparative laboratory equipment operating in the library mode is far more flexible and per position costs about one third of the price of a dial-access system. Even the cost of the extra tapes needed for multiple duplication of programmes for student library use will never be as high as the operating and maintenance costs of a dial-access system, for which, in any case, there seems to be no special pedagogical justification.

**68-307 Perren, G. E.** When immigrants cease being foreign. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **58**, 2764 (10 May 1968), 1574.

It is easier to teach English to immigrants who have no knowledge of English than to those who already speak as their mother tongue English which is incomprehensible or inadequate as an educational medium in this country. As the basis of progressive teaching today in all subjects is oral communication, development of language is central to the educational process.

Even when immigrants have learned English there will be language difficulties arising from home and social environment. If the pupils' out-of-school environment is defective the school may find itself teaching to cultural standards divorced from home and neighbourhood, which may be disastrous both for the less able native English and for the ex-immigrant.

Immediate first-aid by teaching English as a foreign language must lead on to permanent therapy in teaching English to the disadvantaged. Identifying immigrants as a transient foreign-language learning group is but the beginning of a much wider task in which American experience may help us.

**68-308 Kirsch, Harri.** Fremdsprachenunterricht und kontrastive Phonematik. [Foreign language teaching and contrastive phonematics.] *Glottodidactica* (Poznan), **2**, 1967, 21-31.

The article discusses the part contrastive phonematics can play in foreign-language teaching. New articulatory movements not found

in the native language have to be learnt so that they are produced as automatically as those of the native language. The author not only sees contrastive phonematics as presenting contrastive relationships, as is suggested by Lado, but feels that the learner must be taught to break up the sound continuum linearly. He suggests syntagmatic analysis, to be followed up by paradigmatic analysis. For language teaching the description and comparison of articulatory features will be relevant. The possible positions and groupings of phones as a source of perception and pronunciation difficulties needs more attention. Too often a learner organizes the new sounds to fit in with the matrix of sounds in his own language. Teachers can help by pointing out not only where difficulties occur, but also what kind of errors occur at each point. Foreign-language teaching can verify the results of contrastive phonematics. A new and more economical possibility may be multi-lingual comparison rather than comparison of only two languages at a time.

**68-309 Skalkin, W. L. and G. A. Rubinstein.** Sprechsituationen als Mittel zur Entwicklung der spontanen Sprachausübung. [Speech situations as a means of developing spontaneous language practice.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 10 (1967), 409-13.

Recent discussions in the literature on the subject of speech situations as a means of encouraging spontaneous language practice require some clarification.

After stating what is normally understood by a 'situation' the authors define two kinds of speech situation encountered in the classroom: natural situations, which are ideal stimuli for speech but too infrequent to provide sufficient practice, and imaginary situations.

For an invented speech situation to be successful it should be plausible, provide the student with sufficient background facts, and stimulate and invite him to speak. Although usually lacking the emotional involvement as well as the uniqueness of the natural situation, the imaginary situation should be widely used because it encourages students to talk spontaneously and think in the foreign

language without paying excessive attention to grammatical and lexical niceties.

[Examples of unsuitable speech situations from textbooks are given.]

The successfully stimulating situation will be related to the students' interests and stage of development with the teacher restricting himself to giving only essential facts and vocabulary.

[A diagram illustrates the structure of an invented speech situation.]

The students' reaction is influenced chiefly by the manner in which the speech stimulus is presented. There is a growing tendency to use audio-visual aids or even to remove the students from the classroom to a real-life situation.

Invented speech situations, although not the only means to this end, encourage the students to select and use previously acquired material independently and spontaneously.

The teacher has almost unlimited scope to make such situations varied and interesting. [Examples given.]

**68-310 Reichmann, Eberhard.** Some visual aspects of pronunciation. *German Quarterly* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **40**, 3 (1967), 398-403.

Pronunciation deficiencies may stem from too much reliance on the ear. The article attempts to focus the teacher's attention on the *visual* aspects of pronunciation to supplement acoustic criteria.

Lips and jaws are always visible and should be used with exaggeration to show how a sound is produced. The movement of the visible speech organs anticipates the production of sound when speech is slow and deliberate and the students can be made aware of this in an orientation hour preceding the first lesson.

Unsupervised phonological exercises in the laboratory will lead many students to produce vernacular sounds. The use of native speed for pronunciation practice in early lessons may be the cause of many failures. Slow, deliberate delivery with visual aids could help considerably. Minimal pair exercises with conscious vowel anticipation

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provide for concentration which automatically invites the energetic articulation essential for German pronunciation. The consonant *-r* needs visual explanation and drilling. A lip-reading exercise will strengthen the impressions gained and self-correction with a mirror usually is no problem from then on. These are only some of the visual aspects of pronunciation. Others await research.

**68-311 Löschmann, Martin.** Lautes und stilles Lesen. [Silent reading and reading aloud.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 4, 5 (1967), 285-91.

Silent reading is recognized as one of the goals of language learning but there are several views on how this can be achieved. In the mother tongue, pupils master the vital structures and acquire a limited oral vocabulary before beginning to read. Reading aloud should only be used to communicate information to a number of people; for one's own information silent reading is sufficient. Reading aloud demands special and complex skills of the reader. A beginner in a language will often use inner articulation, possibly accompanied by lip and tongue movements when reading silently. When a more direct understanding of the text ensues there will be great divergence between silent reading and reading aloud, silent reading being twice or even three times as rapid. It is doubtful whether reading should ever be taught by reading aloud. The author has experimented and found that his own students will have a better understanding of a text read silently to themselves than of one read aloud. [Six further points are listed on the comparative merits of the two forms of reading, followed by a definition of silent reading and an attempt to analyse the components of the reading process.] The goal of direct, silent reading without translation or inner articulation together with an ability to divine the meaning of previously unknown speech material represents an ideal of language learning. Special reading material is needed to develop such ability.



- 68-312 Cassirer, Sidonie and Werner Hollmann.** The teaching of literature and the language gap: tape programs for initial literature courses: (1). *German Quarterly* (Wisconsin), **40**, 2 (1967), 234-52.

Senior students in America pursuing their foreign-language studies through literature find that they lose their earlier command of the spoken language gained through audio-lingual training. The language laboratory can be used to avoid a gap of this kind. Taped programmes can enable the student to understand and respond to simple questions on the text for study. They can also help him to improve his written expression if provision is made for written answers. At this level, the taped programme can make the student aware of expressive and aesthetic values and of the close connexion between style and content. The author experimented with tapes for one-semester introductory literature courses and found the response encouraging, particularly with the weaker students. Laboratory sessions were scheduled to take place once a week to supplement three class periods. [A specimen taped programme is appended.]

**ENGLISH.** *See also abstract 68-296*

- 68-313 Carr, Elizabeth B.** Teaching the *th* sounds of English. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **1**, 1 (1967), 7-14.

The *th* sounds occur with high frequency in the English language and are rare in other languages. A clear presentation of the reasons for intensive drill of the sounds may help to break down a mental block which some learners have. It is futile to drill the isolated sound or even to rely too heavily upon single-word drill. Foreign students need initial information and methods by which they can make their own lessons vivid in their home countries. Existing descriptions of the articulation of the *th* sounds are evaluated. Specimen exercises for use on a tape-recorder are given, and the problems of learners in Japan and Korea, Thailand and Laos are indicated. Advice is given on

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the preparation of flash cards for the minimal-pair technique and the use of an 'object box'. Phrases are suggested for use in framing drills for listening and repeating in connected phrases.

**68-314 Cygan, Jan.** English question structures and the Polish learner. *Glottodidactica* (Poznan), 2, 1967, 85-93.

Mother-tongue interference is always a problem for the second-language learner. For Polish students the variety of word order of English questions presents considerable problems. Suggestions are made for the best presentation of these constructions. One method of presentation is by analogy with a chemical formula. An additional difficulty is that of intonation. Illustrations are given for various types of English question. The question tags have to be learnt mechanically with the correct intonation. Typical English answers to questions also have to be learnt. The negative interrogative is particularly complicated as the reply to such a question in Polish is 'yes' and in English 'no'. Question markers such as *any, much, ever*, etc., also need special treatment. Soviet textbooks are praised for their clarity in presentation and a plea is made for revision of practical Polish grammar textbooks in keeping with recent developments in linguistics.

**68-315 Hudson, Grover.** Adjective clauses in Amharic and English. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), 3 (1967), 2-11.

It seems that Ethiopian students are more wordy and obtuse in English composition than students of other countries. The interference of the Amharic native language may well offer an explanation and in particular the adjective or relative clause is a special problem. The article offers a brief comparison of Amharic and English adjective clauses showing the existence of only one relative element, thought of as a prefix, and having only two forms, the meanings of which appear to be equal. From this and other points arising in the study, conclusions are drawn on the method and timing of teaching adjective clauses to Ethiopians.

**68-316 Inglis, Iain J.** Objective testing of English. *Kenya Education Journal* (Nairobi), 2, 12 (1967), 15-19.

One of the attractions of objective tests is that they are easy to administer. Multiple-choice tests are simple and rapid to mark, and for a national examination they lighten the load where specialist markers are few. Composition, while testing many skills at once, also involves the personality of the writer and can evoke a subjective judgement from the examiner. Nevertheless some form of composition should have a place in a full-scale test of English.

Reading and comprehension can be tested objectively though comprehension should be separated from tests where speed is required as part of the candidate's performance.

Pronunciation can be tested to some extent in a written examination by matching rhyming words and choosing the correct stress for a word. [Examples.] Vocabulary and grammar can also be tested by multiple choice to find synonyms for words, and insert correct verb tenses into a connected paragraph.

An awareness of the correct register of vocabulary is necessary, and this too can be tested by a choice of words from several levels to fit a connected passage.

As cultural background affects the learning of a second language, a test to be used over a wide area needs to be so constructed as to avoid difficulties peculiar to learners from one particular background or area.

**68-317 Levenston, E.** A comparison of English and Hebrew. Differences in clause structure (continued). *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 9 (1967), 9-15.

Speakers of Hebrew tend to insert a preposition before the complement in English. English verbs should always be taught with complements and prepositions if any and not as simple items.

Infinitive and gerund usage in English seems bewilderingly varied to the Hebrew speaker. Hebrew does not distinguish general cases (e.g. *I like smoking*) from particular cases (e.g. *I like to smoke*) in

a grammatical way. Translation exercises bring home to Israelis the need for remembering which verbs permit which structure. There is over-use of patterns which are less frequently used in English than in Hebrew. There is rarely a one-to-one equivalence between structures.

Except for *want*, none of the common English verbs cause any trouble in the structure *I told him to go*, etc. Constructions with *make*, *let*, and *want* must be given special attention.

Disjunctive clauses are more frequent in Hebrew. Relative clause usage is different. Teaching of restrictive clauses should be based on written Hebrew. [Many examples are given from English and Hebrew.]

**68-318 Logan, J. L.** Coral Way: a bilingual school. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 1, 2 (1967), 50-4.

The bilingual programme organized at Coral Way Elementary School, Miami, during spring 1963 was part of a Ford Foundation project to develop materials to teach English to non-speakers of English. The need for these became acute after the large number of Spanish-speaking Cuban refugees came to Miami. [Details of the programme worked out for the school are given, and the way in which parents' doubts were taken into consideration.] Progress in all subjects was sufficiently marked for parents who had at first asked for their children to be taught in one language to request transfer to bilingual classes. At the end of the school years 1964/5/6 the Cooperative Inter-American tests were given to all students in the programme and a subsequent three-year evaluation of the programme is being carried out.

**68-319 Montgomery, M.** Stories as aids to composition and structure practice. *ELT Broadsheet* (Kaduna), 6 (1967), 5-7.

A novel way to use stories as aids to composition was observed while watching a Nigerian child tell a story in class, using his class-mates as a chorus. A structure can take the place of the ordinary chorus and be repeated by the class at a signal from the teacher. The advantages

of the method are the same as those of structurally guided composition with the additional advantage of choral repetition. [Two such stories are given with explanations for their use.]

**68-320 Otto, Dale.** The place of choral speech in teaching English. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), 3 (1967), 12-15.

Practical advice is given for the use of choral drill both with the whole class and with smaller groups, using dialogue, practising minimal pairs, involving substitution drill, teaching stress and intonation. Speed of speech, length of practice and relation of drills to the pupils' interests and surroundings are examined, and the use by the teacher of facial movements, gestures, objects, pictures, etc., is recommended. Careful lesson preparation for this kind of work is essential.

**68-321 Pattanayak, D. P.** English in India: a reassessment. *NIE Journal* (New Delhi), 1, 5 (1967), 5-9.

After a review of past and current attitudes to English in India, the author examines the present state of confusion in English teaching and makes a plea for emphasizing and reorganizing the teaching of the mother tongue in the Indian academic system; separating the teaching of English language from literature; the abolition of English as a medium of instruction in favour of the regional languages; the offering of modern Asian and European languages, optionally beginning from the schools and related to area studies at a higher stage; an insistence on a reading knowledge of one Indian language other than the mother tongue, and either English or another modern European language for those undertaking graduate work. It is felt that only such requirements will motivate the student to learn languages without the feeling of imposition, and thereby make language learning meaningful.

- 68-322 Polak, Hana.** The place of oral drills in the secondary school. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 9 (1967), 16-21.

There is a tendency either to underestimate or to over-estimate oral drills at the intermediate or advanced stage. The mimicry-memorization technique introduces new structures merely as sentences to be repeated; they should be introduced in meaningful situations, and drilling used for practice. Almost every lesson should begin with oral drill, but this should never be carried on beyond saturation point. The drills need careful preparation. They are effective and time-saving in remedial work. They must be speedy and varied. The value of choral drill must be explained. Changes of volume can help to hold the pupils' attention. Pictures are better than call-words as response cues. Objects and actions are to be recommended even in the teaching of adults, who are less inclined than their teachers to consider such techniques childish.

Drills must be made as meaningful as possible by contextualization in situations, and related to the pupils' interests and experience. [The author gives several examples of ways of bridging the gap between drilling and spontaneous speaking.] Suitable stimuli can provoke the desire to communicate simple facts or ideas. The transition from drills to independent speech can begin in the first year, e.g. in talking about the weather.

Large clear pictures and especially picture stories provide a basis for guided oral composition and contextualized language work generally.

[An appendix gives examples of drills based on call-words, and a list of posters and books.]

- 68-323 Povey, John F.** Literature in TESL programs: the language and culture. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 1, 2 (1967), 40-6.

Planning a literature course for non-native speakers of English makes us reconsider our justifications for teaching literature at all. The study

of literature should enhance language skills, extending linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage and complex and exact syntax. Literature is a link with that culture which sustains the expression of any language and should open up the culture of the country to the foreign student in a manner analogous to the native student's absorption of his own culture. Literature gives one awareness and human insight and may guide more gifted students towards their own creativity.

It must not be thought that reading requires the same total comprehension that comes with understanding speech by the aural/oral method. Language difficulties should not be allowed to become too great an obstacle to the choice of literature. The existence of a 'recognition' vocabulary is well known and there may also be a partial perception of syntax and style. Cultural comprehension is more likely to cause difficulty than language problems. [This is illustrated from an attempt to read *Rip Van Winkle* with a class of mixed nationalities, and later one of the Hyman Kaplan stories and Nathaniel Hawthorne's *Ethan Brand*.] We need to learn to establish the degree of cultural difficulty of a literary work and lead the students from the ideas most familiar and comprehensible to them into those elements of the foreign culture which are in great contrast to their own national and racial assumptions.

**68-324 Rumszewicz, Witold.** On contemporary dramatic and scientific English. *Glottodidactica* (Poznan), 2, 1967, 71-83.

The oral approach is examined for its suitability for teaching English to agricultural students in Poland who only have 120 hours to devote to their English studies. Four contemporary scientific texts connected with agriculture, and four passages from recent English plays served as material for the course. The texts were all approximately 1000 words long and the dramatic texts were chosen as being closely related to colloquial language and written by people with an acute sense of the spoken language. The texts were studied from the point of view of vocabulary content and verb-forms. A striking difference was found between the two kinds of text. This enables some pre-

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liminary conclusions to be drawn although their value is limited since the analysed passages are short. The scientific texts contain a high percentage of words not found in *A General Service List of English Words* (West), on which many Polish textbooks for English are based. The scientific texts are characterized by a lower ratio of verb-forms and by a considerable number of passive and non-finite forms, while dramatic texts have a higher percentage of verb forms, fewer non-finite forms and only very few passive forms. The scientific texts contain longer and more complex sentences but few questions or requests.

The oral approach is not the most economical way of teaching when the ability to understand English scientific literature is the main object of a short course. Although efforts should be made to master some structures actively, recognition level should be the requisite for the final examination. Only about 1200 words could be mastered on recognition level in the time available, and of these about 150 would be function and substitution words.

**68-325 Swales, John.** Teaching 'for', 'since' and 'ago'. *TEFL Bulletin* (Beirut), 2, 1 (1967), 1-2 and 7.

Arab students of English have difficulty with the words *for*, *since* and *ago* because Arabic uses one word for the three. An explanation is given of the ways in which the three words are used in English with a note of typical errors in use.

**FRENCH.** *See also abstract* 68-294.

**68-326 Vocolo, Joseph M.** The effect of foreign language study in the elementary school upon achievement in the same foreign language in the high school. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 51, 8 (1967), 463-9.

The study was concerned with achievement in French made by matched groups of pupils at the intermediate level of instruction and hoped to determine what effect the introduction of French in the ele-



mentary school had on later performance. Pupils selected were carefully checked for good hearing, sight and speech, and the groups were matched in terms of intelligence, achievement, instruction received and sex. The MLA Cooperative French test was the instrument used to measure achievement and facility in French. A three-way analysis of the data was made: (1) experimental and control groups, (2) sex, (3) various language skills. The results are tabulated. One of the most striking results was that the performance of the girls was higher than that of the boys though the difference was less noticeable among those who began French at the elementary school, from which it may be concluded that an early start was of most value to boys. Over-all results indicated superiority for the elementary school beginners group in listening, speaking and writing.

**GERMAN.** *See also abstracts 68-295, -310.*

**68-327 Schepping, Heinz.** Fachstudium und deutscher Sprachunterricht. Strukturen der Fachsprache. [Technical studies and German teaching. Structures of technical language.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **16**, 5/6 (1966), 118-21.

In 1965 the technical university in Aachen had nearly 2,000 foreign students, mainly from developing countries, who in addition to elementary problems with the language of the host-country had difficulties in adapting themselves to their specialist fields of study. Thirty assistants were appointed to conduct special classes for the foreign students in their own subject and give help with terminology and difficulties in understanding subject-matter. These seminars continued throughout the first year of study. The assistants, in co-operation with advanced foreign students, drew up glossaries of technical terms founded on lecture scripts and students' associated written work. A Munich publishing house asked for the scope of these glossaries to be enlarged and published in German-English-Turkish and German-Greek-Arabic covering branches of mathematics and science. It might seem pretentious for a language teacher to try to

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convey the concepts of, say, mathematical terminology, but vocabulary is not the only problem. It is hoped to introduce foreign students to the general structures of scientific German in which lecture material is normally conveyed. This will imply the use of concepts from Aristotelean and more recent philosophy, which are part of western European culture but are quite unfamiliar to non-European students.

## RUSSIAN

**68-328 Alford, M. H. T.** Learning to read scientific Russian by the experimental (3QX) method. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington, DC), **10**, 1 (1968), 1-2.

The questions of what, how and when to learn are interrelated. For the present research, answers were reached on the basis of computer analysis of target literature and on learning procedures derived from experimental psychology.

In the 3QX method vocabulary learning is taken as the major subject and pursued systematically. Russian theoretical physics is the subject under study at present, later courses for other disciplines will be provided. With the initial memorizing of 500 words at the rate of one hour a day five days a week, taking a total of about fifteen hours, together with a five-hour introduction to the alphabet, pronunciation, word formation and techniques of memorization, the reading of texts can begin. The 1,026 most frequently used words in Russian theoretical physics have been prepared on cards supported by mnemonic data. On completion the student's vocabulary will give him 90 per cent coverage of papers in his particular field.

A computer programme is now being prepared for ascertaining the high-frequency vocabularies in each important research area in contemporary Russian physics. Tape-punching began in 1967 and the first data are expected in 1968. Later it is hoped that the card system of learning will be supplemented or supplanted by a computer.

**SPANISH.** *See also abstract 68–318.*

**68–329 Brady, Agnes M. and Francisco H. Ruiz.** Spanish FLES and the AATSP. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **50**, 4 (1967), 872–4.

The American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese has for some years had a department devoted entirely to Spanish teaching in elementary schools. In the nineteenth century the growth of Spanish teaching in the United States was sporadic rather than continuous. Although it seems that Spanish in elementary schools was confined to the state of New Mexico, it is likely that private and parochial schools in the south-west also offered Spanish.

In the 1920s there was a reaction against grammar-translation methods, and the direct method came to the forefront. Then an eclectic method developed which took the best of both worlds.

A committee report on 'Spanish in the Grades and Junior High Schools' was presented at the twenty-fourth annual meeting of the AATSP (*Hispania* **24** (1941), 21–5) which found inadequate planning, overcrowded classes, unresourceful teachers, and insufficient textbooks. It also found public sentiment strongly in favour of Spanish in elementary schools. Both Texas and California have legal provision for a foreign language in elementary schools. Since 1952 great advances have been made. In 1960 the MLA sponsored the production of the first New Key book *Modern Spanish*. There is still a rift between the New Key and more traditional approaches. Present programmes need thorough evaluation and both students and methods need testing.

**68–330 Sacks, Norman P.** The art of the Spanish textbook, 1917–1967. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **50**, 4 (1967), 875–87.

There are many different viewpoints from which one can study a language, and there is no single basis for evaluating language teaching textbooks. The level for which the book is intended must be made clear.

Textbooks should meet at least three general criteria: (1) scholarly accuracy and up-to-dateness of material, (2) pedagogical soundness

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in relation to professed objectives, (3) relevance to users for whom they are intended. Expertise from many fields of research has to be applied by an author.

The knowledge, judgement, and skills needed in editing a literary text are formidable. In editing readers, the tasks of selection, modification, and excision are not easy. Abridging novels is difficult, and regionalisms and dialectalisms in Spanish-American novels are difficult to deal with. [The author lists various editions of classical and modern literary texts, short stories, plays, and poetry.]

Since 1931 many new authors have produced school texts including novels, plays, collections of essays and articles, speeches, autobiographies. [Four texts are selected as being exemplary in their thoroughness as edited classics, and four others with useful introductory comments are examined. The requirements and criteria for producing and evaluating a literary work and a good anthology are studied. Histories of literature and studies of language are listed and examined.]

Over the past fifty years a number of leading Hispanists (names given) have published student texts in addition to their usual learned articles and books. The improvement of Spanish textbooks is a commendable task and the desire for quality is increasingly evident.