Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

72–206 Lerea, Louis and Rosemary La Porta. Vocabulary among bilinguals and monolinguals. *Language and Speech* (Teddington), **14**, 3 (1971), 293–300.

A group of fifty-one pupils was divided into three sections according to their status as monolinguals, coordinate bilinguals or compound bilinguals (school second-language learners). There were seventeen in each group and they were asked to learn two lists of Hebrew words. One list was presented visually, the other aurally. It was observed that monolinguals learned the words more quickly when the lists were seen. The compound bilinguals learnt better from the lists presented aurally. The coordinate bilingual students occupied a position between these two groups though the average of the scores of both bilingual groups was markedly better than the monolinguals' performances in aural vocabulary learning. There was no significant difference in the mean visual scores of the two bilingual groups when compared to the monolingual subjects. As far as pronunciation was concerned, the two groups of bilinguals taken together produced the correct target phoneme more often than the monolinguals.

EPQ ED AFG EGD

72–207 Nickel, Gerhard. Problems of learners' difficulties in foreign language acquisition. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 3 (1971), 219–27.

An analysis is made of the factors which establish the degree of difficulty in learning certain linguistic units of a foreign language. First the learners' problems have to be recognized and defined and then a hierarchy of difficulties established. The logic of such a hierarchy is worked out on propriety, situational context and cultural viability. [Strekwell and Bowen's 1965 scale of difficulties, and the

linguistic and psychological factors which establish the degree of difficulty are discussed.] Cooperation between linguists, psychologists and teachers is essential in drawing up a scale of difficulty likely to be of use to the foreign-language teacher for methodology, error analysis and preparation of texts.   **EPQ ED AG EHM**

72-208   Cook, Vivian J. Which came first, the language or the concept? *Multiracial School* (London), 1, 2 (1972), 21–3.

Should language be taught before and in isolation from conceptual development? Or should both be taught together? Piaget's view is that language acquisition need not precede the acquisition of concepts, as the use of symbols is found before speech occurs. Chomsky is not convinced that language is just part of the growth of symbolic thought. It is not proven that language acquisition depends on more general learning processes; indeed, syntactic structure has its own peculiarities. These two approaches are alike in recognizing that language acquisition is not the same as the development of concepts. Children can discriminate spatial relations at an earlier age than they can understand the language describing these relations.

Research by Sinclair-de-Zwart at Geneva on the links between language and concept shows that teaching the syntactic structures appropriate to particular concepts rarely seems to help the child to move from one conceptual stage to another. It should not be supposed that language and concept can be developed simultaneously. We need to discover the language characteristics of different stages of conceptual development, then we might think of developing language and concept together.   **EPQ ED AGR**

72-209   Richards, Jack C. Coverage: what it is and what it isn't. *ITL* (Louvain), **13** (1971), 1–15.

Selection of vocabulary for second-language teaching has usually been made from lists statistically determined by word frequency. In the 1930's a new concern for the simplification of teaching and

learning English led to the study of words which can do the work of other words. This approach to selection is called 'coverage'.

The criteria for establishing the usefulness of words are definition value, word building elements (eg suffixes), inclusion and extension. Definition was taken to mean dictionary definition, which is usually by synonym, by listing sample denotata, or by analysis. During the early research into coverage, before tape recorders were available, it was assumed that this written register would be the basis of a speech register. However there is no evidence that lexicographic definitions, which have to be watertight, are relevant to the strategies of second language communication. It is also doubtful whether beginners can use combination, since the creation of compounds is governed by complex transformational rules. Inclusion covers the use of the general word to replace a number of specialized terms, thus preventing redundancy in basic vocabularies. However words in synonym dictionaries are not classified in terms of inclusion power and the analysis of these dictionaries has little relevance to the choice of vocabulary for teaching second languages. Words whose meanings can be easily multiplied metaphorically to replace others are examples of extension. Careful quantification of both inclusion and extension, however, would show to what extent these two factors are already included in frequency and range.

If coverage is regarded as measuring potentiality for enabling the largest number of ideas to be expressed in the smallest number of words, there has so far been no significant quantification of coverage.

EPQ ED ALD

72–210 Spolsky, Bernard. The limits of language education. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington, DC), 13, 3 (1971), 1–5.

The central aim of an educational system must be to make it possible for its products to take their place in society. This may involve teaching one standard language to those who speak other languages or dialects not generally acceptable. Dual-medium bilingual education has aimed at acculturation and at moving as soon as possible from the first language to the standard language. More recently,

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however, minority languages have been seen not just as a means to an end, but as an integral part of the school curriculum. It is still a matter for investigation whether the minority language should have equal status with the standard language or a different status, the first language being used as a limited culture-carrying medium, the standard language as the main language of instruction. [Reference is made to recent experiments in bilingual education in America and Canada.] In America there is need both for English as a second language and bilingual education. An effective language teaching policy will not solve social problems but it may make it more difficult for language to be offered as an excuse for prejudice and injustice.

EPQ ED EFG ENW

72–211 **Apelt, Walter.** Grundprobleme der Fremdsprachen-psychologie (2. Teil). [Basic problems of foreign language psychology (Part 2).] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **8,** 4 (1971), 209–15.

To reinforce foreign-language knowledge, the network of clues in the brain needs activating through oral communication and contextual activity, subdivided into linguistic, situational and social context. Under linguistic context are distinguished lexical-semantic and syntactic context. Under situational context communicative situations are important and are characterized by the partners (listener, speaker), speech activity, subjective extralingual activity (gesture, mime), and objective extralingual activity – surroundings, etc. Under social context are included cultural background and general educational aims. Activity must cover the whole spectrum of language learning and conscious activity must replace unconscious imitation and repetition, so that a student is aware not only of the form of a language utterance but also of its content. Foreign-language activity is essential for strengthening the network of clues and a limit of 10 per cent of available teaching time is suggested for the use of the mother tongue. Continuity and variety are vital for the building up of the chain of reactions which is the basis of language learning.

EPQ ED EG

72–212 Segermann, Krista. Perspektiven des erweiterten Fremd-sprachenunterrichts aus der Sicht des 'Strukturplans': Bedrohung oder Chance? [Perspectives of diversified language teaching in the light of the 'structural plan': threat or opportunity?] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **24**, 3 (1971), 152–9.

The structural plan of the *Deutscher Bildungsrat* (German Educational Council) outlining the reorganization of the whole educational system is the final phase of a fifteen-year development which has seen the gradual restricting of the modern language teacher's field of action. According to the plan a student at secondary school level need take only one modern language as a set subject, and then only for seven instead of nine years if he takes Latin. Modern language teachers felt that science was favoured at the expense of their subjects and that they did not have enough time or opportunity to teach well and successfully. There has been an inevitable decline in performance on the part of the students. What is needed in the face of possible further limitations is a diversification of study goals.

All students from their fifth year of school onwards will be required to study at least one modern language. Only a minority of students will be able and willing to tackle additional languages. These would be optional, but would have more weight than options have at present in the German school system, so that only highly motivated students would choose them.

Literature will cease to be regarded as the goal of language teaching. Flechsig has laid down study aims that could fit the new conditions envisaged by the structural plan. A flexible system of two-year courses would be a practical way of dealing with the new situation. Each course would have to be complete in itself for the benefit of those who do not take a continuation course. [Details discussed.] The order in which languages are started will have to be made more flexible. The first language need not necessarily remain the main one in which the student is most proficient. English will be the obvious choice for anyone taking only one language, but French, Spanish and Russian should be available to other students.

EPQ ED EPB 943

72-213 Larudee, Faze. 'Observation and evaluation of language teaching': a graduate course in language teaching. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 62–5.

The author describes a course designed to develop the ability to analyse the human and non-human resources used in language teaching. The course was divided into four parts: principles of classroom observation, analysis and evaluation of language teaching, analysis and evaluation of textbooks, and analysis and evaluation of classroom activities. [Short bibliography.]   **EPQ ED EKF**

72-214 Orwen, Gifford P. Blueprint for a methods course. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **55**, 7 (1971), 456–9.

A course on methods of teaching should develop the student's own potential within the context of accepted teaching principles. [The author describes an experiment in the team teaching of trainees, and deals with various aspects of the course, especially observation and teaching practice.]   **EPQ ED EKF**

ERROR ANALYSIS

72-215 Townson, Michael. Zur Fehleranalyse. [Towards an analysis of mistakes.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), **2**, 3 (1971), 235–8.

Mistakes can be identified as 'unacceptable' when an utterance does not express the intended information because of a grammatical or lexico-semantic error, or 'inappropriate' when the utterance is grammatically correct but still does not convey the intended meaning. Ideally degrees of comprehensibility should be included in an analysis of mistakes, but no neutral standard of measurement is available. Psycholinguistic causes of errors must be considered: interlingual, caused by the interference of other languages, and intralingual, caused by false analogies in the foreign language. Three main linguistic categories with subheadings are suggested for the

analysis: phonemic/orthographical, morphological/syntactic and lexical/semantic. [A full matrix is set out with an example.] Such a scheme of analysis lends itself to data processing.   **EPQ EHM**

TESTING

72–216 Blatchford, C. H. A theoretical contribution to ESL diagnostic test construction. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **5**, 3 (1971), 209–15.

A proficiency test is norm-referenced, involving comparison between one student's performance and that of others: a diagnostic test should be criterion-referenced, aimed at indicating whether content has been mastered. The degree to which a test is diagnostic depends less upon the purpose of the test than upon the way in which the scores are analysed. A total score may be interpreted as a measure of proficiency, but part scores serve a diagnostic purpose by indicating particular strengths/weaknesses. Indeed, a diagnostic test should have no 'total' score: it should consist of a series of miniature tests on specific problems.

It is believed that reliability depends upon the length of a test. Often, however, practical difficulties militate against the construction of a long test. To examine the reliability of miniature diagnostic tests an experiment was conducted based on a forty-item test of ten grammatical points, each point tested by four multiple-choice items [examples given]. Reliability figures were calculated on the basis of responses to all four items, to three items and to two items. The conclusion is that for diagnostic purposes a two-item test of a grammatical point is as reliable as a four-item test, provided that test makers follow the usual canons of carefully constructing and pre-testing items. Time may thus be saved in constructing tests, but more time should be devoted to analysing test results to establish the range of remedial instruction required.   **EPQ EHP**

TEACHING METHODS

72-217 D'Addio, Wanda. Metodi e scelta di un metodo. [Methods and choice of method.] *Lingua e nuova didattica* (Rome), **1**, 1 (1972), 7-9.

The concept of language as a means of communication is the common denominator of the various modern language teaching methods. Language proficiency is more than mastery of grammatical structures, and can only be acquired through communicative acts of individual, cultural and social import. More recent theory stresses cognitive, non-mechanical factors in language learning and replaces automatic pattern practice (which repeated the mistakes of traditional rule-teaching) by expressive and motivated communication. Pattern practice grading of structures from simple to complex does not allow for significant use of language from the most elementary stages, and a more global approach is required. Situational exercises, which have been developed in British texts (and may include pattern practice), offer the best solution. Written work can also consist of individual communication in meaningful context.   **EPQ EL**

72-218 Finocchiaro, Mary. Myth and reality: a plea for a broader view. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **10**, 2 (1972), 2-8.

An eclectic, integrated approach to language teaching is the most productive. Language-teaching methodology has leaned too heavily on linguistics and has not drawn enough from psychology, anthropology and sociology. Linguistics gives us only the content of language teaching. Factors such as the students' ages and reading background, the length of the course, and the use to which they will put their English should be considered in determining how long the introduction of reading should be deferred. A long aural-oral period is not advantageous.

If dialogues are to be memorized, it should be through frequent dramatization, role playing, questioning, and the study of alternative words and utterances appropriate in the particular dialogue. The

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meaning of the dialogue as a whole should be made clear before it is repeated or dramatized. Word and structure drills should be conducted after the dialogue has been dramatized. Before unrealistic restrictions are placed on vocabulary growth, the students' interests and motivation should be taken into account.

It is untrue that there is no one-to-one equivalent in any two languages for any word or expression. Occasional use of the students' native language is justifiable. Both the habit-formation and the cognitive-code theories should be applied. Pattern practice is more meaningful for students if they are aware of the items being drilled. Automatic responses and habit formation need not necessarily precede communication; both should be incorporated in the lessons.

Too early an insistence on 'mastery' may discourage students, since language learning is cumulative. The most important factor is the teacher. [The author gives examples of the kinds of knowledge, skill, and insight the teacher needs to develop.] Each of our students is an individual. Each has developed different learning strategies, but may have to learn new ones. Each has reached a different point of development and has different attitudes. People learn in different ways and at different rates.

We must plan for group-learning activities and individual instruction, and help the students to remain proud of their own way of life. Instrumental orientation is fostered by communicative activities, integrative orientation by meeting native speakers. [The author gives fairly detailed advice on the selection and presentation of material, and on teaching techniques.] It is important to give a constant feeling of success.   **EPQ EL**

72-219   Frey, Herschel J. Audio-lingual teaching and the pattern drill. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **9**, 4 (1971), 11–14 and 26.

Two main foreign-language learning theories at present co-exist: habit formation, and rule generalization, or 'cognitive code-learning'. No teacher consistently applies either of these theories. Psychologists and linguists are only beginning to understand the nature of language acquisition.

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The audio-lingual habit theory implies that language skills will be acquired through practice based on repetition and analogy function, and also that the learner will be able to transfer what is practised in pattern drills to a situation where communication is needed.

The rule-generalization theory is a reaffirmation or modification of the grammar-translation tradition. Foreign-language learning is viewed as a conscious process of internalizing the necessary information about the second-language structures through an analysis of the patterns. The theory implies that the student acquires the ability to recite the rules governing the structure of the second language. It suggests that pattern drills focus only on surface features, and that contrastive analysis is misleading.

The two theories need not be mutually exclusive in their application to teaching. There is heavy reliance on pattern drill as a means of teaching phonology. There are four types: the repetition drill, the substitution drill, the transformation or construction drill, and the translation drill. With the substitution drill, there seems to be substantial transference to situations where communication is required.

Few have suggested that one internalizes the structure of a target language by following the procedures of a generative grammar, and it is unlikely that one learns one's native language in this way. However, it is likely that transformational work on basic sentences in the target language helps to reveal inter-relationships between constructs.

Translation drills can be used to teach the target-language near-equivalent of the native language when the two languages do not reflect the same reality. It may well be that it does not matter whether grammatical discussion precedes or follows drill. Pattern drill tends to be boring, and pace and variety are needed. Pattern drills do not represent speech.

Lack of controlled guidance in the early stages will only lead to unproductive errors. Perhaps pattern drills are necessary to teach the phonological component and the easier grammar. They should be as natural as possible. So far it has proved impossible to eliminate the variables that invalidate comparative study of teaching methods.

EPQ EL

72-220 Lee, W. R. New trends in the teaching of English (parts 1-2). *Scuola e Lingue Moderne* (Modena), **9**, 5 (1971), 139-45; and **9**, 6 (1971), 180-7.

The merits of mere repetition are increasingly doubted, yet repetition is a necessary element in a language course. The problem of building a bridge from imitative to productive use should be faced early. Renewed attention is being paid to the differences and similarities between first-language and foreign-language learning. We do not know which features of the normal first-language-learning situation are helpful to the learner and which are unhelpful. Exposure in early childhood to the mother tongue is generous: in a basic foreign-language course step-by-step grading is necessary.

Motivation is of root importance, and is affected by the view taken of the language in the community. The shift of emphasis is now away from the language itself and towards the learner and the immediate use he can make of what he is given. Choice of language material should be based on the learner's experience and interests.

Language teaching should be situational from the beginning, but based on a careful linguistic plan. Transformational grammar is likely to affect the linguistic content of courses rather than the teaching methods, though these will be influenced by other aspects of Chomsky's work. Transformation techniques are not necessarily of value in teaching. Conversion exercises are not very meaningful or interesting.

Contrastive studies of native and target languages reveal the causes of certain learning difficulties, but languages cannot be compared fully: it is not sufficient to teach the differences between the two. There are several types of interference; in particular, that coming from the parts of the target language already encountered.

Language teaching should not be based on linguistics alone. Teachers should not regard their first-hand knowledge of teaching as less important than the insights of linguistics or psychology. Where English is not learned as a means of daily communication, literature is needed to help make the language live and presentation is of special importance in the early years of learning. **EPQ EL**

72–221 Marckwardt, Albert H. Changing winds and shifting sands. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **9**, 5 (1971), 2–5.

Views on foreign-language teaching change radically every twenty to twenty-five years, and a reappraisal is at present in progress. Those who regard reading ability as a primary aim seem to be echoing the 'thirties; but they forget the many who were taught only to read and found themselves unable to speak and comprehend speech, and the many students who came to the USA unable to communicate their daily needs. English as a second language demands oral ability; for English as a foreign language the principal aim may be reading.

We need more detailed descriptions of the differences between the spoken and written forms of the language. There is too little planning of the transition from an initial oral approach to the study of written English. Critics who say that the order listening, speaking, reading, and writing is not necessarily the best order for the learning of a foreign language forget that many people began with the reading objective and were then unable to acquire competence in speaking and listening, but that the reverse transition was found to be relatively easy.

The outcome of contrastive studies has not so far been impressive, and there is little agreement on the establishment of a hierarchy of difficulties. Classroom teachers have not clearly understood the principle and application of contrastive analysis. If deep structure and language universals play an important part in language learning, this limits the viability of contrastive analysis.

Pattern practice and drills have been attacked because the material is boring and there is little transfer to communication situations. Pattern drill was an attempt to broaden language learning beyond the contextual limits of mimicry-memorization dialogues. Transformationalist theory and pattern practice can be reconciled. Similar objections have been made to the language laboratory, which is also said to eliminate teacher-pupil contact. **EPQ EL**

72–222   Roulet, Eddy. Les modèles de grammaire et leurs appli-
cations à l'enseignement des langues vivantes. [Grammar
models and their application to the teaching of modern
languages.] *Le Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **85** (1971),
6–15.

Linguists have made such decisive advances in the theory and
description of grammar as to alter fundamentally the problems
connected with its teaching. [The principal shortcomings of traditional
and structural grammar are listed.] Transformational generative
grammar combines the most useful contributions of traditional and
structural grammar, but on the level of theory and description as
well as in its application to language-teaching it raises as many
problems as it solves. [Its advantages and disadvantages are set out
in relation to English, the only language for which the descriptions
are sufficiently extensive for use as a basis for teaching.]

The essential requirements for a reform of grammar teaching are:
(1) an elucidation of the relationships between language theory,
description and teaching; (2) greater precision as to what is to be
understood by 'the application of grammar models to teaching'
[the various concepts covered by this term are given]; (3) an accurate
definition of the objectives of mother-tongue and foreign-language
teaching to determine the function of grammar teaching. It is for
the teachers to say what they expect of the linguists and psychologists
so that inter-disciplinary research can be conducted to determine
the most appropriate linguistic theory and description, to outline
the field of study and select the most effective methods.

Teachers are urged to experiment with methods and materials
based on the results of such research. Training facilities in linguistics
and language-teaching psychology should be improved, and there
must be continuous cooperation between linguists, psycho-linguists
and teachers.   **(420) EPQ EL ADN AK**

72-223 Bull, William E. and Enrique E. Lamadrid. Our grammar rules are hurting us. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **55**, 7 (1971), 449–54.

Opposition to the learning of foreign languages at school has resulted from failure to achieve good results. Teaching and learning should be based on accurate and meaningful rules. The second-language learner learns better when he is conscious of the differences and identities between his own language and the one he is learning. It is essential to distinguish between the description of a linguistic fact and a rule that guarantees proper usage, and also between the surface features of the language and the referents of symbols. Levels of abstraction must not be mixed. Rules containing key words which are hard or impossible to define are particularly frustrating. Some rules have little logical meaning, some are too complicated, some are wrong. Linguistically unsatisfactory concepts continue to appear in texts. Speech and writing continue to be identified.

The teaching profession has tended to isolate itself from the mainstream of modern linguistic research. As a reaction to the failure of the new methods, it is instinctively seeking security in a return to traditional grammar. [The authors give many examples of inadequate rules.] **EPQ EL AK**

72-224 Helbig, Gerhard. Zum Verhältnis von Grammatik und Fremdsprachenunterricht. [On the relationship of grammar and foreign language teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **9**, 1 (1972), 10–17.

The two extremes 'a foreign language can be learnt only through grammar' and 'there should be no grammar in foreign-language teaching' are unreal alternatives; the direct-methodists were mistaken in identifying the learning of a foreign language with that of the mother tongue.

There are three kinds of grammar: (A) a system of rules inherent in the language; (B) a scientific description of A; (C) a system of rules which has been integrated in both speaker and learner enabling them to form and understand proper sentences. A exists all the time;

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C is needed to use the language effectively; B is necessary to turn A into C in the learner's mind. In the case of foreign-language teaching the B grammar exists in order to build up competence but it must not be used as direct teaching material; the teaching material covers the transition from B to C.

Foreign-language learning can be regarded in three ways: (1) the creation of a copy of a system of grammatical and lexical tables in the learner's mind – the grammar/translation method, which leads to an exaggeration of the importance of grammar; (2) the acquisition of mechanical skills by imitative drills, which leads to an unjustified elimination of grammar; (3) the formation of a grammar C by creative activity. The problem is not whether grammar B is necessary, but at what stage its various components should be introduced and how it should be adapted to become actual teaching material. In the process of deciding there will be several factors, including the elimination of mother-tongue interference, the use of frequency based on statistics and psycho-linguistic work on the understanding and re-formation of complex sentences in the learner's mind. Language is a social and communicative activity and grammar must be subordinated to the aim of promoting this activity.

EPQ EL AK

72-225 **Hellmich, Harald and Wolfgang Seltmann.** Der Behaviorismus und seine Überwindung im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Behaviourism and its defeat in foreign language teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **8**, 4 (1971), 198-208.

The tendency to concentrate on oral practice in foreign-language teaching has led to drill practice and an exclusion of the mother tongue, but confrontation of languages is a fundamental principle in their teaching. Methods need to incorporate results from research into linguistics and the theory of learning. Behaviourism with its emphasis on mechanical reactions to stimuli takes no account of the relationship between speech and thought and experience and the acquisition of new material. It makes no contribution to the character-

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building function of foreign-language learning. Comparisons with the mother tongue can bring out similarities and differences in deep structures and lead to generative rules for the formation of new phrases and sentences, which the student then assimilates. Teachers need an accurate forecast of faults at all stages and corrective material, based on a study of interference.

Complete exclusion of the mother tongue will not in itself cut out interference, while consideration of it and of resulting transfers can form part of a teaching method which takes account of intellectual processes. Such intellectual activity aids faster acquisition and better retention of skills. Units of language can be taught as a whole or in parts, depending on the students' level, their memory and ability to analyse and synthesize, and on the form of the unit and its counterpart in the mother tongue. Language items should be situationally integrated and students motivated through dialogues and monologues to produce a higher level of understanding and speech than is permitted by behaviourism. [Suggestions follow for the development of aural skills and speech practice.]   **EPQ EL AKT**

72-226   Wardhaugh, Ronald. Theories of language acquisition in relation to beginning reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Delaware), **7**, 1 (1971), 168–91.

Three theories of language acquisition are discussed: behaviourist, nativist and cognitive. These theories have their principal origin either in linguistics or in learning theory, whose fields of concern are very restricted, and not wholly relevant to this problem. Four controversial issues in language learning are reviewed: frequency of stimuli, imitation, expansion and meaning. The conclusion is that all these theories, in their present shape, are essentially inadequate to explain language acquisition. There are important differences, some of which are discussed, between the acquisition of language and the acquisition of beginning reading skills. The theories of language acquisition available at present are of little use in understanding the process of learning to read, or in devising methods of instruction during the critical initial phase.   **EPQ EL ASP**

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CLASS METHODS

72–227   Paulston, Christina Bratt. The sequencing of structural pattern drills. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **5**, 3 (1971), 197–208.

During the last two decades the literature relating to structural pattern drills has reflected a view of language learning as a mechanical system of habit formation – a view reinforced by the fortuitous correspondence between descriptive structural linguistics and behaviourist learning theory. The purpose of drills has been to establish correct habitual responses. More recently it has been accepted that drills should provide for progression from manipulation to communication – indeed, that meaningful communicative activity should be the central point of pattern drills.

A theoretical classification is offered for the grading and sequencing of drills. This classification distinguishes between mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills – the characteristics of each category being definable in terms of expected terminal behaviour, degree of response control, the type of learning process involved, and the criteria for selection of utterance response. [Examples given.]
EPQ ELD

72–228   Massey, D. Individual instruction: its potential for learning and teaching modern languages. *Modern Language Review* (Ontario), **28**, 2 (1972), 21–8.

The principles of individualized instruction are discussed in terms of the 'shared accountability' of student and teacher. Suggestions are made for adapting a foreign language programme to meet each student's individual requirements. The need is stressed for an abundant supply of suitable materials, and for constant evaluation of the progress of the programme.
EPQ ELD

72–229 Steiner, Florence. Individualized instruction. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **55**, 6 (1971), 361–74.

The paper offers a rationale for a change in the direction of individualized instruction in all areas of teaching. Joyless and irresponsible schooling could be transformed by a measure of accountability in the educators, and by a more flexible approach to learning. Individualized language instruction is based upon a clear definition of learning and course objectives and of the deadline for accomplishing each task. Pre-entry tests establish the point of entry, and self-assessment marks the end of each stage of the course before the student proceeds to the next level of mastery. Groups usually emerge within the class as each student paces himself according to the work assigned for the quarter.

The teacher's role in individualized instruction shifts from that of bullying dispenser of information to counsellor and organizer. Administrative and paraprofessional support, an initial investment in new materials, and modification of the facilities of the school building may all be required. In-service training for the staff in the structuring of materials and in new record-keeping techniques, and careful consideration of the feedback from the programme are also important.

Individualization of programmes is at present patchy, as there has not been time for pioneer curricula to reflect the full results of research in educational psychology showing the different methods by which each student learns – eg visually, aurally or by analysis. [Examples are given of schools that have successfully adopted individualized instruction.]

The author lists the disadvantages of individualized instruction, which she sees chiefly in terms of difficulties of implementation – eg cost and faintheartedness. In an open-ended situation questioning techniques become especially important, and the newer system fosters independence and creativity. **EPQ ELD**

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72–230 Jarvis, Gilbert A. Individualized learning – where can we risk compromise? *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **55**, 6 (1971), 375–8.

The paper is a reaction to Florence Steiner's 'Individualized Instruction', supporting her case but formulating the acute problems of reconciling the ideal and the feasible in this relatively new field, and discussing the compromises imposed on teachers by the pressures of limited time, energy and cost. Teachers must 'facilitate' the independent process of learning, abandon the rigidity of pass/fail concepts and cease to dominate the classroom. The techniques of 'learning how to learn', in particular in the sphere of second-language learning, may yield new and unexpected results. To regard individualized instruction as merely a fad is inaccurate and professionally damaging, for it is part of a trend of society as a whole towards specificity and accountability. Individualization is essentially undemocratic, and eclectic in its methodology, though its foundation is the psychology of learning, especially of second-language learning. Criterion-referenced testing is an integral part of any individualized programme, and provides valuable information not merely about the learner but also about the instructional design.   **EPQ ELD**

GRAMMAR

72–231 Cosgrave, Desmond P. From pattern practice to communication. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington DC), **9**, 6 (1971), 5–13.

Pattern practice drills should be so presented that the student's attention is gradually drawn away from the structure itself. But students who master the patterns in the classroom do not always perform well in real-life situations.

Transformational theory has not given the teacher materials which can be used to produce a better result. The fact that certain theories about language patterning may have to be revised is no justification for the abandonment of pattern practice, the value of

which has been proved. The proper aim of pattern practice is habit formation.

What someone says in a real situation is determined by that situation. Parallel with the habits formed by pattern drills and dialogue memorization, habits in communication must also be developed. Communication practice aims at enabling the students to use in less controlled situations the patterns learned at the habituation stage. The most effective communication practice is based on people, places, and things familiar and interesting to the students. The teacher must get to know the students personally. Humour should be encouraged. Situations should be as concrete as possible: persons, places, and things should be named.

[The author presents various types of communication drill under the headings: questions eliciting specific patterns, student questions based on habituation drills, the surprise question technique, questions forcing a choice of set expressions, question-answer exchanges, and pattern dialogues.]

The teacher must prepare a set of communication exercises for each lesson. They must be integrated with the habituation exercises in the textbook. Prompting may be necessary, but students will improve with experience. It is doubtful whether communication practice can be carried on in large classes.   **EPQ ELD AK**

72-232 Palmer, Adrian. Communication practice versus pattern practice, or a live teacher is absolutely necessary. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **9**, 4 (1971), 15–19 and 30.

Classroom presentation should be directed towards the development of communication skills. [The author considers the nature and form of communicative-practice drills, giving examples.] In communication practice the student must judge the social acceptability of his utterance and decide whether it is an appropriate response to the situation. Communication-practice drill cannot be conducted by a machine, since it calls for flexibility and human responses. The student's creative abilities should be brought into play from an early point in the course. [The author explains how this can be done.

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He then deals with the psychological preparation for communication.] The student must be trained to evaluate his own speech. He should realize that meeting the challenge of new sentences in class is essential to the development of conversational agility outside it. An open-mindedness towards possible responses is necessary.

New vocabulary and grammar should be introduced as needed, in context, and 'mastery' deferred until later. New material should be tied in with old wherever possible. A new pattern should not be introduced by contrasting it with an old one with which it might be confused.

The student should be able to use his textbook as a reference book. It should be a guide for home study. It should provide material that introduces the language in a natural way. For the teacher, a cumulative account of the vocabulary and grammar should be included. Priority for the introduction of grammatical patterns should be based on their usefulness in establishing quick communication. The teacher and the student need different books. Students should be enabled to realize that pronunciation affects intelligibility. Several skills should be practised together. Pattern practice drill helps the student to speak quickly and smoothly.   **EPQ ELD AK**

SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE

72–233 Bishop, J. M. A systems approach to language training. *Royal Air Force Education Bulletin* (London), **8** (1971), 39–46.

An accurate job analysis was made of the various requirements in the Royal Air Force for personnel trained in languages. [A table given.] The standard which each category of learner needs to achieve must be precisely defined. Descriptive linguistics segments this task, analysing three universal levels of language – phonology, syntax and semantics – besides others which are language specific. [Examples given.] Phoneme differentiation and knowledge of syntactic components can be tested objectively by multiple-choice questions. Vocabulary can be tested by asking for synonyms, opposites, a definition or

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a suitable context. Tests for cooccurrence, or selectional restrictions, should also be given.

If specific skills in language can be tested objectively, it is possible to write properly formulated training objectives. [Examples given.] Entry requirements can also be specified and aptitude for language learning tested by measurement of the student's general ability, motivation, command of mother-tongue vocabulary, ability to associate sound with symbol and to generalize about the structure of a given nonsense-language. The tests are chiefly diagnostic (less concerned with the acceptance or not of the student, than with determining his entry point to the course, and the emphases appropriate to his individual requirements).

The second-language teachers' task is to structure the learning environment, ensuring high motivation by using interesting materials, employing a variety of approaches and planning the course so that the student may measure his own progress. The language laboratory should be used not so much to imprint patterns in the student's mind as to demonstrate the logical build-up of language structures. The learner should also be allowed to go through the stages of interim grammars characteristic of the infant learning his mother tongue. Both mother tongue and target language should be used during instruction, though with the minimum of interference. Post-tests of achievement should be given.   **EPQ ELD EH ANX**

TRANSLATION

72–234   Taylor, C. V. Why throw out translation? *English in New Guinea* (Goroka), **7** (1971), 18–21.

Translation is reconsidered as a legitimate way of facilitating the language-learning process. The author accepts that the process includes habit formation. However, situation and gesture are frequently ambiguous, and enlightenment from the teacher is better than guesswork and confusion over abstract concepts on the part of the pupil. But translation should be at utterance level, and not by the 'word for word' method. Prejudice against all translation

may have been reinforced by the inability of the first teachers of English overseas to handle the vernaculars they encountered. A gloss in the learner's language will usually save time and avoid misconceptions.   (420) **EPQ ELD ARG (995)**

READING

72–235 Seward, Bernard. Developing reading speed in EFL. *TEFL* (Beirut), **5**, 4 (1971), 6–7.

The metronome is a useful pacing device for helping to increase reading speed. With the aid of flash cards pupils should first practise reading word clusters at a glance. They can then progress to reading passages of continuous prose marked by dots to indicate where the eye should focus. The eye should move from dot to dot in time with the metronome. When the pupils have grown accustomed to coordinating eye movements with the tick of the metronome, the speed of the metronome can be gradually increased. Care must be taken to ensure that reading speed does not increase at the expense of comprehension.

EPQ ELD ASP ELN

72–236 Steiner, Rollin, Morton Wiener and Ward Cromer. Comprehension training and identification for poor and good readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **62**, 6 (1971), 506–13.

Reading can be considered as an identification activity and as a comprehension activity. The distinction is important if, for example, we wish to separate reading problems from language problems. Identification is a process involving the scanning of the cues offered by the graphic shapes on the printed page. The better the reader the fewer the graphic cues necessary for correct identification, and the more such identification will be aided by comprehension of the meaning or contextual cues also provided. If the problem of poor readers is primarily a failure to extract cues then comprehension training (the giving of supplementary contextual information) should

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lower their identification error rates, but should not significantly affect good readers, who already utilize contextual cues.

An experiment to test this hypothesis [details given] showed, however, that after such comprehension training good readers made significantly more identification errors, whereas there was no significant effect upon poor readers. The inference is drawn that poor readers not only fail to extract contextual cues essential for identification, but also fail to utilize such cues even when presented with them. The errors made by good readers were 'good' errors – anticipation errors – which made syntactical and contextual sense, and were often spontaneously corrected by the readers.

A central question concerning reading problems is this: why should a native speaker who has mastered the signalling system of the spoken language have trouble with reading? The problem may not be resolved until there is recognition of the missing structure signals in graphic language.   **EPQ ELD ASP ATL**

ORACY

72–237 Diller, Karl C. 'Resonance' and language learning. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **70** (1971), 16–24.

Lenneberg's theory of 'resonance', the idea that children learn language merely through exposure to the language, is unsound. Language learning is a long process, and requires a conscious effort. Teaching, in conjunction with a meaningful situation (which is itself a form of teaching) is essential, and parents of able children in particular assume a didactic role and provide a model. Second-language acquisition does not become more difficult after the mid-teens, except where pronunciation is concerned.

Language is not 'behaviour'. The resonance theory cannot for instance apply to the deaf or dumb who learn languages. Lenneberg confuses the ability to formulate rules with the functional knowledge of the rules, and makes no distinction between the rules of grammar and the laws of nature. Children can understand and create new grammatical sentences, and they object to errors, which is evidence

that they know the rules of grammar and can use them consciously. Rules of grammar belong to individual languages and are not innate. Children do not 'resonate' automatically to any language which they happen to hear. The concept of resonance is inconsistent with the view that rules of grammar are psychologically real. Resonance is not necessary to Lenneberg's case that the capacity for language learning is species specific. Children are, however, better than adults in acquiring a good pronunciation of foreign languages.

EPQ ELD ATD

72-238   **Cooper, Robert L.** What do we do when we learn a language? *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **10**, 1 (1972), 10–14.

The audiolingual approach is based on the assumptions that speech is primary, that what is learned can be specified, that descriptions of what the student learns can account for what the student does, and that language learning is a process of habit formation. The primacy of speech is best justified as an assumption when the main goal is spoken skill. Certain items can be introduced systematically, but there is far more that cannot be introduced systematically at present. Transformational generative grammar has increased our ability to specify the knowledge a speaker must have if he is to produce and understand the sentences of a language; but there is no agreement on semantic competence. Communicative competence is needed as well as linguistic competence, and the former is even more difficult to describe than the latter.

Linguistic descriptions are not models of performance. Even if explicit linguistic and sociolinguistic descriptions of the target language were available, we should still be unable to account entirely for the speaker's performance.

The habit-formation view of language does not account for the learning of structures that are not manifest, nor for the ability to identify the inter-relationships between separated items in a sentence. It fails also to account for the speaker's ability to produce and understand new utterances.

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The teacher needs to determine the situations in which his students will need English, and to create analogues in the classroom. He must enable the student to produce and understand novel utterances in those situations.

There seems little reason to think that a second language is learned in a very different way from a first. On the assumption that both the first- and the second-language learners' deviations are systematic, learners can be encouraged to produce ungrammatical sentences. Imitation and practice have relatively minor roles. Spontaneous speech should be encouraged in order to ensure that the student is allowed to test his hypotheses about the nature of English. The student must be placed in realistic situations that demand the use of the target language. The teacher must correct or expand the utterances produced.　　**EPQ ELD ATD EGV**

TEACHING LITERATURE

72–239　Fowler, W. S. Literature for adult students of English as a foreign language: (1) prescribed books in the Lower examination. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 84–90.

'Literature' means anything which is well written in the language. Candidates for the Cambridge Lower examination need English for their work or because they wish to know about a foreign people or culture. They are not necessarily interested in literature as such. What is being tested is the candidate's writing ability and memory. The set book is a means to an end. Reading and writing, and also reading and speaking, complement each other in language teaching.

Whether or not any books are prescribed, the books chosen for study in a Cambridge Lower examination class should belong to an advanced series. The vocabulary should be within the reader's compass and useful to him in his own writing and speaking. Modern authors rather than abridged versions of the classics should be chosen, there should be a clear narrative thread and well-defined characterization, and the story should not be too specialized. The

teacher cannot take time defining words and idioms, but must bring out the main strands of the story and the relationships between the main characters by discussing the text.   **EPQ ELD EMV <u>AVL</u>**

MIXED ABILITY

72–240 Johnstone, Richard. Demanding the possible: some points on teaching a foreign language to mixed ability classes. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **2962** (25 February 1972), 47.

Modern language courses are mostly equally impossible for the less able pupils. Craigmount School, Edinburgh, has found that one promising approach has been to provide for each lesson of the course a supplementary pupils' worksheet. The exercises on it are carefully graded so that each child finds his own cut-off point. Correct answers are supplied to spare the teacher time and give the learner immediate feedback. Drawing and games are encouraged to use the linguistic structures taught at that point in the course and to illustrate the worksheets with the child's whole creative ability. Worksheets help to smooth the transition between reliance on the pictorial and auditory cues of the filmstrip and understanding of the written cues of the course book.

Secondly, the school has experimented with team-teaching, which provides variety and stimulus. Classes of twenty-five with one teacher are varied by classes of 100 with four teachers, using gesture to convey meaning and speaking to one another as well as to their students, and groups of four or five children working together with the teacher in the background.   **EPQ ELD EFN**

72–241 Perren, G. E. Teaching across the ability range. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **2962** (25 February 1972), 43–4.

Schools in Britain, expected to provide for the maximum variety of personal development consistent with the claims of the community

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as a whole, find the practical problems peculiarly difficult in the case of foreign-language teaching across the ability range. Where mathematics for the majority needs no arguing, teaching a foreign language to all pupils still challenges discussion – perhaps because of the lingering tinge of cultural exclusiveness, or the form in which languages have until recently been presented. The argument for the wider teaching of a foreign language is persuasive. It is claimed that it will foster mutual understanding in Europe, give increased confidence to those who need it, and diminish social and cultural privilege. Its vocational value is harder to justify if few pupils attain any useful degree of fluency. Examinations, which perpetuate the notions of success or failure, have not yet proved capable of discriminating performance in this sphere by *multiple* criteria.

Though the decision appears to have been taken to offer a modern language to all, it seems scarcely to have been deliberate policy. If the new techniques developed during the 'sixties made the subject more exciting they did not materially change the objectives. The ends which the techniques serve need questioning. Effective teaching of a modern language to a mixed-ability group, without very expensive equipment for individualized self-instruction, is difficult to envisage. The methods of the élitist teaching of the past will not do, but a satisfactory definition of different yet appropriate levels of achievement for those of varying ability has yet to be made. Experiment and research are required on the problems of the slow learner and the experience of successful teachers. A 'European studies' syllabus may be a useful preliminary to intensive language learning but will not in itself ensure fluency. Educational rather than socio-political decisions, realistic goals, time-table provision and proper equipment, and training and opportunity for teachers to work with smaller groups within a flexible syllabus are all needed. There is evidence that in addition to energy and enthusiasm, a suitably literate home environment is necessary at present for success.

(440) EPQ ELD EFN 942

MOTIVATION

72–242 Smith, Alfred N. The importance of attitude in foreign-language learning. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **10**, 1 (1972), 15–20.

A liking for a foreign language can be inculcated. Attitudes are situational and a pupil may generalize dislike of school to individual subjects. [The author analyses the teacher's and the student's attitudes in terms of cognitive, affective, evaluative, and behavioural components, and stresses the influence exerted by the teacher, counsellor, parent, and community on the learner. He analyses the student's unfavourable attitudes.] There is a special aptitude for foreign-language learning, the components of which are phonetic decoding, grammatical sensitivity, rote-memorization ability, and inductive language-learning ability.

High motivation and positive attitudes are fostered by success. Courses should be diverse, in order to cater for students' diverse needs. [The author refers to experiments in non-graded courses and in multilevel grouping.] Cultural empathy can be developed by various means. The classroom atmosphere must be friendly and accepting. Interpretative and creative thinking should be encouraged, even about first-year language material. [Examples are given of how this can be done in the French lesson.] The teaching must be based on the pupils' interests and desires.   **EPQ ELD EGK EGV**

TEXTBOOKS

72–243 Hill, Leslie A. Reconciling grading and contextualization. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **10**, 1 (1972), 6–9.

Many teachers find carefully graded material boring, but we should look at language-learning from the students' point of view. We must teach one thing at a time, and the manner of presentation is very important. Each new meaning or function of an item is a new learning effort. Long before Chomsky we itemized, and taught separately,

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similar patterns which require different learning efforts. We learn a language in order to communicate. Any mechanical type of exercise in which the learner does not have to think about the situation is unrealistic. Memorization of dialogues containing lexical and structural items outside the graded course is not real contextualization.

Each item should be presented in situations that show how it is used, then drilled in situations, tested in situations, incorporated into contrastive work, and then built into reading and writing materials. Formal and situational drills can be combined. Reading and writing should be introduced early. Situation is extralinguistic, context intralinguistic. We must ensure that the amount of language the pupils know at a particular point in the course is sufficient to absorb the next item. Simple, concrete, easily grasped things need to be presented first. [The author explains, using *do/does* as an example, how the introduction of a complex situation can be approached. He also explains how he teaches the passive, and the order in which he teaches the tenses, and why.] If grading dominates, there may be dull and unrealistic material. If contextualization dominates, the progression may become too steep. The two must be reconciled.   **EPQ ELD ELP**

72–244 Nicholson, D. Assessing the difficulty of readers. *Onwards* (York), 2 (1971), 48–52.

Evaluation of language-teaching materials is hardly a practical proposition since it involves a judgement based on pre-conceived ideas of what is valuable; but the description of materials on a consistent set of criteria makes comparison possible. The factors making for difficulty in modern language reading material include the percentage of vocabulary recognized by the reader, the sentence length and sentence complexity. Fifty-six French readers in general use were examined and a table compiled giving indices for sentence length and complexity. In investigating sentence length attention was paid to apparent inconsistencies among authors in punctuation conventions. Sentence dividers were not limited to fullstops, exclamation and question marks. The assumption was that a reader with

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a greater number of longer sentences is more difficult than one with a small number of such sentences. For measurement of sentence complexity the number of verbs in the reader was counted and divided by the total number of sentences, the assumption being that greater syntactic complexity makes for more difficulty. Vocabulary range was not examined but it is intended to calculate an index for assessing this. (440) **EPQ ELD ELQ**

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

72-245 Hinz, Klaus. Möglichkeiten und Grenzen graphischer Programme im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Possibilities and limitations of a graphic programmed course in foreign language learning.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **19**, 1 (1972), 47–57.

It is possible to develop a graphic foreign language programme for grammatical structures and still follow the essential principles of modern language teaching methods. [Examples.] Its most suitable application is for individual drill programmes to accompany ordinary teaching, but teaching programmes can also be integrated within certain restrictions and under certain conditions. Where no personal contact between teacher and pupil is possible, programmed learning is likely to be more effective than conventional materials. The same is true for the introduction of drill programmes for homework or remedial work. Programmed instruction finds its limitations at the point where the acquisition of grammatical structures ends and free communication begins. **EPQ ELD ELW**

72-246 Kaniščeva, E. Zu Problemen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts im Ingenieurfernstudium der UdSSR. [Problems of foreign-language instruction as part of correspondence courses in engineering in the USSR.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **8**, 5 (1971), 300–2.

The main aim of language instruction for students taking a six-year correspondence course from a Soviet college of engineering is to

enable them to understand foreign texts dealing with their field of study. A student must take the equivalent of 210 hours of direct instruction in German, English or French starting in his second or third year. There are two distinct stages [details given] and a final examination. Additional optional foreign-language instruction starts later in the course. The work to be done is the equivalent of 150 hours of direct instruction and is spread over two years. [Details of aims and methods supplied.]

Depending on how accessible the college or one of its branches is for him, the student either has regular tutorials or does unsupervised work most of the time and has tutorials and uses the language laboratory while he is in residence to do his examinations or write his thesis. Language teaching under these circumstances could be organized more efficiently through the use of programmed or partly programmed material, giving the student a chance to check his progress. With reference to the work of I. D. Salistra suggestions are made as to what areas of study would be particularly suitable for programming and what areas could best be taught through work in the language laboratory, self-instruction at home, or group instruction.   **EPQ ELD ELW EMX ANG**

72-247 Lenochová, Alena. K některým otázkám programování ve výuce cizích jazyků. [Some problems of programming in foreign language teaching.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **15**, 1 (1971/2), 19–24.

The principles of programmed instruction when applied to foreign-language teaching are not correlated to any specific method of teaching and do not determine any particular method. On the other hand, the operations foreseen by modern methods in foreign-language teaching which focus on the systematic acquisition of new language habits and skills should form the basis for programming foreign-language learning. Programmed instruction presents a possible way of forestalling errors in foreign-language learning or of correcting them immediately. Programmed materials in foreign-language learning prove useful when the student is expected to proceed on

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his own and at his own pace, in particular when he is expected to reinforce the newly acquired habits and skills. Programmed individual work (especially when compared with 'unorganized' ways of home-work) compels the learner to work through the set material in an obligatory sequence of operations and provides him with the maximum number of reinforcements. Such programmes are important in any kind of remedial work set to learners who cannot otherwise keep pace with the other members in their course.

Self-instructional remedial programmes were devised for under-graduate students of English who had passed through a one-year intensive intermediate course and had not fully mastered some structures. Their main difficulties appeared to occur in holding apart 'similar' structures, eg you must have cleaned the carpet: you must have the carpet cleaned. The construction and principles of the remedial programmes are described and some more general problems relevant to self-teaching programmes in foreign-language learning are raised in the light of experiments made by the staff of the Department of Applied Linguistics at Olomouc University.

(420) EPQ ELD ELM ELW (943.7)

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

72–248 **Frank, Michal and Július Zimmermann.** Manipulace se zvukovým materiálem při přípravě programu pro jazykovou laboratoř. [How to handle sound recordings when preparing programmes for the language laboratory.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **15**, 2 (1971/2), 51–5.

The significance of the place of the language laboratory in the over-all foreign-language course should not be exaggerated. Technical devices will only serve the purpose of better language instruction if they are employed within the course at the proper time, for the proper reason and with adequate teaching materials or programmes, and thus form an organic part of the whole learning process. Accordingly all the materials that are usually supplied for use in the language laboratory must also be adaptable to the requirements of the course

as a whole and to the individual needs of its students. Members of the Language Centre at the Faculty of Philosophy of the Šafarik University in Slovakia have devised the construction of a special console for recording and mixing programmes in the language laboratory. It should enable teachers to amend the sound of recorded programmes, to alter the length of pauses or add phases and to mix various taped exercises in accordance with the day-to-day require-ments of a particular language course.　　　　　**EPQ ELD ELY**

72-249 Meiden, Walter and Joseph A. Murphy. The language laboratory and the reading lesson. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **9**, 5 (1971), 23–5.

The ideal laboratory drill for a reading lesson should be concerned partly with the lesson itself and partly with the long-term aims of the course. It should test the student's knowledge of what he has read, give him an opportunity to hear the language, offer him a means of improving his ability to speak, and make him more familiar with certain words and idioms. [The author deals with the use of yes-no, either-or, and information questions.] Inability to answer information questions is due to insufficient practice with yes-no and either-or questions. Classroom follow-up should involve directed dialogue, which gives the student experience in asking questions. It may be advantageous to personalize the learning by removing it from the context in which it was learned. Visual aids may be used to cue responses. The students must work through the tapes, hearing the three types of question, over and over again.

EPQ ELD ELY ATL

PRIMARY PUPILS

72-250 Kemp, Valerie I. Teaching with i.t.a. in a multilingual class. *Language and Reading: the i.t.a. journal* (London), **20** (1971), 19–22.

In the United Nations International School the Initial Teaching Alphabet was introduced to a kindergarten class, where the children

were between four and six years old, and for whom English was a second, third or fourth language. Picture cards, games using sounds and a large variety of supplementary apparatus helped the children towards decoding, reading, enlarging their vocabulary and finally writing creatively. Incorrect sound symbols, and mistakes of accent revealed in their writing were corrected in speech lessons. When most of the children could read i.t.a. and speak English with fluency, and in any case within one academic year of the start of the programme, the transfer to traditional orthography was accomplished without difficulty.   **EPQ ELD EMP ASM (973)**

IMMIGRANTS

72–251 Wight, J. Dialect in school. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **24**, 1 (1971), 47–57.

The dialect-speaking child in Britain is rarely restricted to a single dialect, but operates along a dialect continuum. Differences in the child's speech are brought about by different social contexts. Some of the 'rules' fluctuate in strength. The Creole-speaking child at school in Britain soon speaks at least two dialects. The formal school dialect is intelligible to non-Creole speakers, but Creole is the child's first language. Tolerance of dialect in school is growing. We do not know how it affects the young child to hear his parents' language described as 'wrong'.

Dialect interference affects the spelling and syntax of the child's written English. In the infant school the Creole-speaking child is sometimes orally unintelligible, and we do not know how much he understands. The development of a more standard dialect for school use probably indicates the child's ability to understand dialects closer still to the standard. Creole interference is not the chief cause of West Indian children's difficulty with oral comprehension. Dialect will continue to have a marked influence on the child's language production, but he develops skills of language reception to cope with the contrasts between Creole and Standard English.

The view that dialect is a cause of linguistic deficit is sometimes

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the result of a circular argument which first defines linguistic competence in Standard English terms. It is also difficult to maintain that a non-standard dialect is a restricted language which limits certain types of communication and retards the development of certain conceptual skills. Many studies which attempt to measure the development of children's language skills by examining factors like complexity encounter the difficulty of creating a familiar context for the subjects.

The most important factor for the Creole-speaking child is probably the teacher's and the school's attitude. Many West Indian children have a range of language problems shared with English children. A quarter of the Birmingham Project materials focuses on dialect. Standard English structures are presented in the context of the conventions of the spoken language. The best way of avoiding the appearance of attacking the child's dialect is to place a positive value on it in class. **EPQ ENT AGR AMK**

72-252 Quigley, Helen. NFER pre-school project. *Multiracial School* (London), 1, 2 (1972), 7-9.

The aims and methodology of the NFER five-year pre-school project, begun in 1968 and based on four nurseries in Slough, are briefly set out. The experimental programme with immigrant and disadvantaged children has three facets: language development, perceptual development, parental involvement.

The many different activities in this project are being evaluated in three stages: (1) short-term effects are being measured by tests of language, perceptual and general intellectual ability; (2) nursery and non-nursery children are being tested for schooling readiness and emotional adjustment on entering the infant school; (3) at the end of the sixth term in the infant school children will be tested in reading and mathematics. So far – at the end of the nursery period – the experimental group is performing better than the other groups. **EPQ ENT AGR EMN**

ENGLISH   *See also abstracts 72–222, –234, –247, –271*

72–253   Banjo, Ayo. Standards of correctness in Nigerian English. *West African Journal of Education* (Ibadan), **15**, 2 (1971), 123–7.

By 'Nigerian English' is meant all the varieties of English used in Nigeria. There is a tendency to equate it with standard Nigerian English. Comparisons should not be made between use in a formal context and use in an informal context, or between substandard Nigerian English and standard British English. The British standards are not the only valid ones. There is a world standard written English. Standard varieties should not be cultivated to the exclusion of other varieties.

In Nigeria, pupils are trained to apply to every situation the usage appropriate to public utterances. The language teacher needs a knowledge both of the language and of descriptive linguistics. The linguist's task is to describe what Nigerians consider to be standard, and the teacher's task is to reflect the distinction between standard and substandard in his teaching. What should be taught is the standard usage of every functional variety of Nigerian English. Colloquial, formal, and literary varieties may be distinguished.

The four competing standards in the area of formal prose in schools are British standard literary English, British standard formal prose, Nigerian standard literary English, and Nigerian standard formal prose, the last of which is to be recommended. The problem of a Nigerian standard colloquial English should be looked at in the same way. Regard should be had to the pronunciation of influential people, and there should also be international intelligibility. The teacher of English is the arbiter of usage; he must be sensitive to language use, have an objective attitude, and be well grounded in the linguistic approach to language problems.   **420 EPQ 966.9**

72–254 **Binyon, Michael.** English language research at Gothenburg. *Times Higher Educational Supplement* (London), **20** (25 February 1972), 11.

Swedish research, undertaken over a period of three years at Gothenburg University into the teaching of English as a foreign language to undergraduates, suggests that by far the most important factor is the individual's ability when entering university. The programme attempted to establish reliable experiments to measure students' spoken and written proficiency, and to investigate the capacities required for a university course. It was found that individuals varied widely in their ability in English according to their experience in England, their reading and their mother-tongue vocabulary, and that some were better at the language when they first went up than those who had read it for a year. Describing experiments which proved this Terence Marton said in an article in a new journal, *Higher Education*, that average improvement over the one-year course was unimportant compared with individual differences both at entrance and after a year. The experiments at Gothenburg included increased tuition, personal supervision and the setting of defined goals, which gave fairly good results with the weakest students. However, the effect was wholly specific. Other skills, which normally show a high correlation with those aspects of proficiency on which the intensive tuition concentrated, in this case showed no parallel improvement. **420 EPQ ELD EMT 948.5**

72–255 **Butzkamm, Wolfgang.** Über Lernzielbestimmung und Leistungsbeurteilung im Englischunterricht an der Gesamtschule. [Determining goals of learning and judging achievement in English lessons in the comprehensive school.] *Englisch* (Berlin), **7**, 1 (1972), 8–15.

Comprehensive schools are still feeling their way, and the movement for change in long-established styles of education is affecting all aspects of work including the teaching of English. The general goals of learning are as yet ill defined, but communication and social behaviour are of prime importance. The treatment of culture, social

questions and social relationships in textbooks for foreign-language teaching needs re-examining. Social interaction plays a vital part in the learning process, reinforcing aural-oral skills. The next step is to establish a hierarchy of learning goals which are objective and attainable. Special attainment tests are necessary, and this presupposes strict planning and control of the teaching material. [An example of one school's attainment report is considered in detail.]

The concept of achievement is much discussed in the comprehensive school. Competitiveness is rejected as antisocial, and the idea of cooperative achievement is considered but this requires an 'absolute' standard of measurement. It has been tried in one area in one school. In silent reading, for example, levels of ability are laid down and progressive learning developed. In the first phase it is closely bound to oral work. Then additional passive vocabulary is introduced in self-explanatory contexts. Later, literary structures are added. There is constant self-testing, so students can work independently. [Detailed sample given.]

420 EPQ ELD EMS 943

72-256 **Cassimy, Ali M. and Michael Dobbyn.** Teaching the indirect question to speakers of Arabic. *TEFL* (Beirut), **5**, 4 (1971), 4–5 and 8.

The indirect question in English causes difficulty to native Arabic speakers because neither classical Arabic nor its colloquial dialects differentiate between a direct and an indirect question. Arabic speakers tend to use the direct form when the indirect form is needed in English. The direct question should be mastered first; and Reported Speech should be taught before the indirect question is presented. The indirect question should be taught by drills. [Examples are given of repetition drills, substitution drills, addition drills and chain drills.] Since indirect questions frequently occur when one speaker is asking for information which another may or may not be able to provide, drills can be enlivened by basing them upon an exchange of information about the culture of the learners and an English-speaking culture. **420 EPQ ELD 492.7**

72–257 **Cripwell, Kenneth R.** English as a communication skill: implications for teacher training. *Teacher Education in New Countries* (London), **12**, 3 (1972), 282–90.

The need for more efficient teaching of English in countries where it is a medium of education is recognized. The two main causes of failure are that too little attention is paid first to the demands made on the school system, and secondly to the political, social, and economic setting of the educational system. In developing countries there are conservative forces. The emphasis in language teaching has always been on reading and writing, with special attention to vocabulary acquisition and literature. Speech has been neglected. The result is often poor reading ability and an obsolete style of writing.

The introduction of English as a medium differs from country to country. If it is introduced in the primary school, particular attention needs to be paid to the teacher in the classroom and to the material he will use. Primary school language teachers tend to be the least qualified educationally and professionally. Progress has been made in the development of teaching materials, but changes come about slowly.

Where English becomes the medium at the beginning of the secondary school, there are different problems. The level of English a pupil has reached will affect his progress in all subjects. The range of English among the staff may vary considerably. Secondary school students see things in terms of the examinations, which are written. However, proficiency in reading and writing demands proficiency in listening and speaking.

The confidence of new primary teachers in the methods they have learned in training colleges needs to be built up. Initial training courses should stress that the method in which students receive training may not be the general method in the schools where they go to teach. Head teachers should be aware of the new methods and techniques. At secondary level an analysis of language requirements for all the subjects is needed, and on this a better end-of-primary-school examination could be based. Specialists in teaching communication skills are required. There should be an oral element in the

final examination. Schools need tape recorders, and there must be a good system of in-service training.   **420 EPQ ELD AFL EKF**

72–258 Ewer, J. R. and G. Hughes-Davies. Further notes on developing an English programme for students of science and technology (1). *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 1 (1971), 65–70.

Progress has been made at the University of Chile in the collection of data on the importance of English in the training of scientists and technologists, in the acquisition of additional information on divergences between the English of science and that of the general or school course, in the provision of additional exercises and other material, in the investigation of 'instructional' English and the development of didactic material, and in the specialized training of teachers.

A survey of foreign-language teaching in the Faculty of Natural Sciences and School of Engineering showed that textbooks in English predominated in required-reading assignments, that the number of foreign teachers and visiting specialists using English was rising, and that an increasing number of fellowships was being awarded for study in countries where English is a medium. Other foreign languages played a minor role. Both scientific and language-teaching staff had underestimated the part played by English and professional training.

Comparisons between the English of science and that of the school English course revealed considerable discrepancies not only in texts but also in grammar. Remedial exercises and drills, listening exercises and extension material were developed to deal with specific needs.   **420 EPQ ELD ANG EKF 983**

72–259 Hipple, T. W. and Thomas R. Giblin. The professional reading of English teachers in Florida. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Illinois), **5**, 2 (1971), 153–64.

A random sample survey was undertaken to test the knowledge English teachers have of educational journals and books. Included

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was an equal number of actual and fictitious titles. Either dishonestly or in genuine error, some respondents claimed familiarity with fictitious titles; but the failure of these titles to attain wide mention attests to the validity of the results received. These results indicate that teachers of secondary school English do not read widely in professional literature. [Some of the more widely-read American journals are referred to.] This short-coming may be attributable to the nature of the teacher's job. Professional reading is given low priority, not because it is considered unnecessary, but because other professional activities are considered to merit first attention. Many English teachers, however, are unaware of what exists in professional literature: there is an obvious need both to encourage wider reading and to inform teachers about what is available to them.

420 EPP EKF 973

72–260 Kissack, I. J. Language inadequacy and intellectual potential; an educational priority in Ghana. *Comparative Education* (Oxford), **7**, 2 (1971), 69–71.

In many developing countries, English is used as the medium of education, whilst indigenous languages are preferred at a personal level. Because English is used relatively rarely, competence tends to be poor. English becomes the instructional medium in Ghana during primary school, but the vernaculars are most commonly used outside the classroom. At secondary level, note-taking and rote learning compensate for lack of facility in English. Such study methods jeopardize the aims of higher education. The problem is to analyse the consequences of restricted ability in the use of formal English by Ghanaians. Piaget suggests that the actual operations of thought are not language-dependent. Problems arise rather through lack of intellectual initiative. Vigotsky, on the other hand, believes that language is the basis and vehicle of thought. Language handicaps would seriously disable thought processes. In experiments with Ghanaian pre-college students, limitations on language did not seem to be related to reasoning ability. However, the listener can only decode communication if he has sufficient linguistic skill. The

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solution of this important educational problem would appear to be
to increase opportunities for using English in social interaction
settings. Lack of ability suggested by restricted language facility
does not indicate real or permanent limitation of reasoning ability.

420 EPQ EMS AGR 966.7

72–261 Kruizinga, Kathleen. An ESL project in Malaysia. *English
in New Guinea* (Goroka), **7** (1971), 25–32.

To ease the transition between vernacular-medium primary schools
and English-medium secondary schools special 'Remove' classes
were set up. The experiment began in 1960, and took the form of
a crash course of aural/oral structural work based on the syllabus
recommended for Australian migrants by the then Commonwealth
Office of Education, Canberra, supplemented by a study of local
error-frequency. Drills and careful limitation of the English structures
used in teaching throughout the school to keep them within the
framework of patterns of already familiar English produced good
results with Chinese, Malay and Tamil pupils.

The author wrote her own structurally-controlled texts as there
were no materials suitable for children aged eleven and twelve, and
none with a Malaysian background. When they had been tested in
the classroom the materials were published. By 1964 the entire
English course was plotted. [Details of the four-year course given.]
The policy of a deliberately slow pace at the beginning, sticking to
the aims of clarity and simplicity and avoiding eg 'composition' in
the first two or three years was justified by the results of the Cambridge
Lower Certificate: over-sophisticated vocabulary and half-right
idioms [examples given] were commoner in the best papers from
the fully English-medium schools. The lessons learned from this
experiment in teaching English as a second language may be of
particular value from 1975 onwards when all primary education in
Malaysia will be through Malay.   **420 EPQ ELD 959.5**

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72–262   Lowe, J. Edgar. Are you fair in your grading? *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **10**, 2 (1972), 9–14.

Testing and evaluation procedures in the teaching of English as a foreign language need to be improved. Grades should not be given to encourage or stimulate students. Tests should provide the teacher with information he cannot get otherwise. Improper weighting of scores is a source of unfairness, and there should be coordination among English teachers in the same school. [The author considers the advantages and disadvantages of oral/aural, essay, and objective tests and examines in detail two different ways of testing vocabulary.]

In deciding which language skills to test, three things should be kept in mind: the material taught in class, the record of progress made and problems experienced and the record of recurring errors. [He describes the construction of a test under the headings: Step 1 Planning the test; Step 2 Writing the items; Step 3 Integration.]

Effective testing is a stimulus to study. It encourages self-examination and better preparation, and tends to build up the student's confidence in the teacher. It reveals what the students have learned, tells the teacher about the effectiveness of his methods, gives a measure of individual differences, and enables the teacher to evaluate a student better. [The author concludes by listing the requirements for a good test, and by enumerating good testing procedures.]   **420 EPQ EHP**

72–263   Masica, Colin and P. B. Dave. The sound system of Indian English. *Monograph of the Central Institute of English* (Hyderabad), **7** (1972), 1–16.

There are in English three categories of accent – the acceptable or standard accents, the undesirable or substandard, and the recognizably foreign accents. Distinguishing between the first two categories is always subjective, and the position of General Indian English is not easy to determine. [The authors tabulate the differences they found between the sound systems of Indian English and Southern British.] Since General Indian is widely intelligible, it is

advocated as a prescriptive standard pronunciation, only a few points requiring reform. **420 AMR AJT 954**

72–264 Morris, Ronald. What children learn in learning to read. *English in Education* (Oxford), **5**, 3 (1971), 8–19.

The concept of developmental reading, whether it means the arrangement of the teaching programme in a sequence which recognizes a hierarchy of skills, or whether it refers to the development of the learner as a person, brings English specialists and reading experts together. Some ways of learning not only help the learner to acquire a particular skill or piece of knowledge but also to learn how to learn. By all we learn we are shaped to take a particular view of ourselves as learners. [The author cites Harlow's experiments with monkeys.] It is reasonable to say that we can learn: (1) how to learn by adopting a certain mental attitude towards a certain class of problems, (2) that rules do not operate invariably, and (3) that even what seemed a major principle must be abandoned when it ceases to work.

It is hard to accept the view that, because the alphabet is not completely regular, the process of learning to read English is not educative. Learning to cope with exceptions is not necessarily less educative than learning by fixed rules rigidly applied. [The author mentions J. Kagan's investigation of the ways in which children answer questions.] Devices which reward the quick answer may be teaching some children how not to learn.

The main significance of reading is that it can help the individual to organize and understand at a deeper level some of the ideas that reach him first through other channels. It is important to encourage reflective ('responsive') reading. Words have differing associations for different readers, and children who read well bring consciously or unconsciously to their reading many personal associations. A child's first encounter with the learning of a particular skill can have far-reaching effects on the use of what has been learned. All teachers of English should take an interest in the early teaching of reading.

Responsive reading should be stressed from the start. There is

a big difference between context-supported methods of reading instruction and a recognition approach. It is a basic principle that we should begin with very full support from the context but seek gradually to diminish it. Context-supported methods contain those supports to meaning which are presented in face-to-face communication but are lacking on the printed page.　　**420 EPP AGR ASP**

72–265　Nilsen, Don L. F. The use of case grammar in teaching English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **5**, 4 (1971), 293–9.

It has been suggested that the universal base component in linguistics is semantic cases (rather than semantic features, phonological units or syntactic structures) and that the verbs of any particular language select the particular semantic cases with which they are compatible. Typically, verbs of motion have a case frame incorporating agent, path, source, goal and (if transitive) object. [Examples are given of semantic cases compatible with verbs of transfer, exchange, creation or destruction, attachment, sound, ownership, perception, etc.] These cases and case frames are also present in the native language of all students of English as a foreign language. They provide, therefore, a common ground from which the teacher can proceed to the study of how these cases are signalled in English. Case grammar, moreover, having a semantic rather than a syntactic basis, enables teaching materials to be both structured and situationally orientated.
　　420 EPQ ADF ADN

72–266　Pitman, Sir James. Oracy and literacy: the part played by the learning medium in the acquisition of both language skills in a second language. *The Incorporated Linguist* (London), **11**, 1 (1972), 1–6.

The initial teaching alphabet, though efficient in teaching literacy to those who already have English speech as their mother tongue, requires modifications if it is to teach spoken as well as written English. A medium intended for the initial teaching of speech in an

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72-268 Šalková, Marie. Částečné výsledky komparativní studie lexika v dopisech britských žáků. [Preliminary results of a comparative study of the vocabulary in letters by British pupils.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **15**, 1 (1971/2), 25–30.

125 letters written by British teenage schoolchildren in the years 1962–65 to their pen-friends in Czechoslovakia contained 32,610 running words, most of which were tabulated according to their word classes and frequency of occurrence (minimum five), and with their Czech meanings. The list contained 591 different words which forty-four British pupils had used to describe to their Czech friends what they found interesting and worth communicating. This list of words was thought appropriate to the needs of Czech pupils of the same age group learning English. The words with a minimum frequency of twenty were compared with the vocabulary used in the three volumes of the English textbook prescribed for Czech comprehensive schools for the seventh to ninth grade. A few expressions could not be matched, which was due to the choice of topics by the adult authors, whose interests did not coincide with those of the young English letter writers. Then both the word list and the vocabulary were compared with the appropriate column in the Thorndike-Lorge Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 words. The marginal differences were indicative of the changes of usage in the course of time (the Thorndike count originated in the early 'forties). The vocabulary of the textbook seems to have been chosen adequately.

420 EPQ ELP EMS ALD 491.86

72-269 Sörensen, Edith. Zur Zeitungslektüre im Englisch-unterricht. [On the reading of newspapers in English lessons.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 12 (1971), 633–43.

Originally conceived in the 'twenties, the idea of using newspapers in language teaching was taken up again eagerly after the war but with little thought on methods, aims or practical problems. The welcome interest of the pupils in topical subjects is offset by the danger of their accepting all 'news' as fact. It should be possible to impart

the skill of discriminating reading, some knowledge of English society and its inter-related groups, an appreciation of the journalistic style of the newspaper, quality or popular press, and its power to influence public opinion. This can be done by examining newspapers in general and some articles in depth. The articles chosen should be relevant to youth and its problems. [Treatment of an article from *The New Statesman* on a pop festival is given in detail, followed by a comparison of three newspapers reporting on the findings of a commission into public schools.]   **420 EPQ ELN AWJ 943**

FRENCH   *See also abstracts* 72–241, –244, –266

72–270   Blanc, Michel and Patricia Biggs. L'enquête socio-linguistique sur le français parlé à Orléans. [Socio-linguistic study of spoken French in Orléans.] *Le Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **85** (1971), 16–25.

In 1969 tape recordings of a corpus of spoken French were made in Orléans for teaching purposes and socio-linguistic research. The basis of the socio-economic sampling and the interviewing methods (using three different types of carefully structured questionnaires) are described, as well as the problems encountered. Recordings were also made of more spontaneous speech in various types of situation. The total corpus amounts to 300 hours of recording and some 4,500,000 words. A complete transcription is beyond present re-sources but over a tenth has been transcribed and forms a representa-tive micro-corpus. Additional sample transcriptions cover different situations and specific themes, some of which (work, education and politics) are being used as a basis for teaching materials. [The educational applications of this sound archive and methods of utilizing the material with intermediate and advanced students of French are described in the second part of this study.]

440 EPQ ELD ATD

72–271 Boswell, Richard E. Teaching the French past tenses. *The French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **45**, 1 (1971), 72–81.

A step by step presentation of the teaching of the French *passé composé* and *imparfait*, based on an analysis of pedagogical problems and original linguistic insight which shows them in relation to each other and to past tenses in English. Intended for able college students, the grammar is taught inductively, the *passé composé* first, then the *imparfait*, followed by tense switching and comparisons with English. [A detailed breakdown of the twenty-two steps is given, with examples.] **440 EPQ ELD EK (420)**

72–272 Raasch, Albert. Das VHS-Zertifikat Französisch: Objektivierte Leistungsmessung im Französischunterricht für Erwachsene. [The 'Folk High School' certificate in French: objective measurement of performance in French teaching to adults.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), 4/1971, 222–37.

The VHS certificate in French testifies to the achievement of practical basic skills in ordinary language and is a standardized supplementary professional qualification acceptable for leaders taking parties to France. [Descriptions of the tests for 1969 to 1971 are set out with the marking schemes for both oral and written work; the topics for the sub-tests for written work are given. There are examples of the comprehension tests, both written and oral, and the analysis of the results of the 1970 tests is dealt with in some detail. There are comments on possible further developments in examining techniques.] **440 EHP EKF EMV 943**

72–273   Riddy, D. C. Where are the teachers to come from? [Some hurdles facing French in the primary school.] *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **2962** (25 February 1972), 46.

Pupils who began French in junior schools under the pilot scheme started in 1964 are now in their fifth year of secondary education. Information from the twelve pilot areas should soon be available on which to base a decision to introduce French into all primary schools – a commitment which will have important implications for teacher training and supply. It is proposed that pupils should begin French at eight or nine years old, providing that three conditions can be fulfilled: (1) that the teaching can be competently given, (2) that it can be offered unselectively, (3) that it can be undertaken by the children's normal class teacher. Harmonizing the first and third conditions may prove tricky.

It is estimated that at least 50,000 more classes will require teaching in French than were receiving it in 1970. Between 1963 and 1970 colleges of education tripled their provision for French studies. In 1970 1,500 students (mainly women) completed their certificates in French, though not all will take up posts in junior schools. If the 1970 output is maintained and wastage remains constant, by 1980 there will be still serving in the schools barely one-tenth of the requirement of class teachers qualified in French. Some expansion is possible in the numbers of students following main, and subsidiary, courses in French. However the output of subsidiary courses is unlikely to exercise any direct effect on the situation. Unless the expansion is to occupy decades, in-service training will be needed on a formidable scale – probably for 4,000 teachers a year. It may be necessary to accept that for some time French in junior schools will have to be taught by semi-specialist teachers.   **440 EPQ EMR EKF**

72-274 Seigneuret, Jean-Charles. Teaching French in the 70's. *The French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **45**, 1 (1971), 104–13.

Enrolment in French courses at American colleges and universities has declined since foreign language requirements were dropped. Not revolution but freedom to experiment and a clearer definition of aims and selective innovations are needed in the 'seventies. All college courses should be taught by professionals rather than by teaching assistants. Fundamentals of the language should be learned in the first two years, followed by review, reinforcement and practice in fluency in the fourth year.

A better use of language laboratories is essential to stimulate students, and more individual instruction to cater for the wide range of academic backgrounds. Summer saturation courses could bridge the junior and senior years, while upper division courses could offer balanced language, culture and literature courses, including material from other French-speaking territories. Education Majors should take French methodology and more attention should be paid to student feedback. At graduate level hope lies with the new Doctor of Arts degree and its potential to train better university teachers than present PhD courses do.   **440 EPQ ELD EMT 973**

72-275 Stern, H. H. The discontent in the middle years of French. *The Canadian Modern Language Review* (Ontario), **28**, 2 (1972), 29–38.

There is no simple solution to the widely recognized problem of the resistance and depression which commonly affect a class after its successful audio-visual introduction to a foreign language. Intermediate programmes, usually for adolescent classes, demand interesting and relevant teaching materials, an optimistic approach by the teacher, and positive social attitudes by the teacher and the class towards the target language and its speakers.

It is acknowledged that progress in acquiring complex skills is in any case not linear. The plateau of learning is discouraging, especially as the student becomes more critical of his own performance.

However, this inevitable stage in any prolonged task may be seen from a later standpoint as a constructive period of latency.

Two useful approaches are offered. First the provision of opportunities for a more functional use of the language – for instance, a visit to Quebec City, or to a dual-language camp where the role of 'teacher' and 'student' alternates, or a one-year immersion experience where all subjects are taught through French. Secondly the author quotes Wilga Rivers's suggestion for a two-stage approach to a language course. The first stage stresses culture and communication and is complete in itself. A second stage is offered to students who show potential for tackling the language intensively. The general design of language programmes is often poor and monotonous, and the stages of learning ill-defined. [Examples are given of exceptions to this – structured programmes with characteristic profiles for each stage.]   **440 EPQ ELD EMS**

72–276   Watson, R. K. Group teaching for French. *Babel* (Melbourne), **7**, 3 (1971), 12–16.

Pupils entering a country high school in Australia are of very mixed ability. As the students of one particular school were reacting unfavourably to their French studies, a change of method to group teaching was tried with a fourth-year class. [A description of the group organization is given.] There was some resistance to the method because of social friction within the groups and attempts were made to eliminate this. It was found to be more successful to introduce the method in the third year where the atmosphere proved to be more relaxed and more time was available for activities which the students enjoyed. This did not seem to improve their liking for the language itself but they learnt more quickly and effectively by the group method.   **440 EPQ ELD**

GERMAN

72–277   Thompson, Miles C. Report on the ATG questionnaire on the position of German in schools. *Treffpunkt* (Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire), **4**, 1 (1971), 23–5.

The report on the position of German in English schools at present is based on the questionnaire that was sent out one year ago. The survey involved 400 teachers of German in different types of schools, and covered the length of the courses offered, the methods and materials used and the amount of equipment available in each department. The questionnaire also dealt with wastage and systems of options, visits and exchanges, the qualifications of teachers of German and the situation in comparison with the teaching of French. In general there seem to be prospects for the expansion of the teaching of German. However, there is some contraction, notably because: (1) comprehensive schools of moderate size do not always produce large enough sixth-form language groups, (2) where German was formerly offered as a second language in a selective school, which becomes a comprehensive school of *moderate size*, the number of pupils able to cope with two modern languages must decline. Suggestions are made for widening the choice of the primary foreign language taught in English schools.   **430 EPQ ELD EMS 942**

JAPANESE   *See also p. 226*

72–278   Binyon, Michael. Britain behind Germany in teaching of Japanese. *Times Higher Education Supplement* (London), **23** (17 March 1972), 8.

Japanese, though in great demand by industry for translation, is neglected in England by comparison with Germany. However, Sheffield University now offers a course in scientific and technical Japanese, devised in 1969 by Dr George Jelinek, which aims to give the student competence within eight weeks. Technical Japanese, written, formal and impersonal, is isolated, and the teaching pattern rigidly structured. [The programme is described.] The pilot scheme

in 1970 was successful, though a less intensive twenty-week semi-supervised course has proved expensive and demanding. The full Sheffield degree is dual honours, combining Japanese with politics, economics or sociology, and will not answer the problems of industry. The intensive and the twenty-week courses are now being explored. **495.6 EPQ ELD ANG EMT 942**