

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

74-24 **Barrie, William B.** Semantics and the teaching of vocabulary. *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **16** (1972), 28-48.

Although much of modern linguistics is useless to the teaching profession at present, it could eventually form a sound basis for language teaching. The aim should be to form a pattern of rules based on accurate descriptive data, in this case semantic data. Three kinds of 'word' are considered, the orthographical, grammatical and lexical, the last being discussed in detail. The meaning of a 'lexical item' is determined not only by its reference to extra-linguistic reality, but also by its collocability with other items in the utterance: the study of semantics is thus linked to that of syntax. The study of semantic fields shows that the limits of an item's meaning are defined by contrast with its near-synonyms.

In the first vocabulary-learning stage words should be apprehended globally and distinguished both from other items in the same field and from corresponding items in the mother tongue. If confusion between items persists, contrastive (or 'componential') analysis may be useful. Various parts of speech are broken down into sub-classes according to their semantic and syntagmatic properties, then five groups of semantically related English words are analysed according to the sub-classes to which they belong or with which they are compatible. From the resulting tables it is possible to forecast the collocability of the items analysed with the other lexical items of the language. [Numerous diagrams and examples.]

- 74-25 Becker, Norbert.** Zur Gewinnung eines 'grammatischen Minimums' für das Leseverständnis von fachsprachlichen Texten. [The acquisition of a grammatical minimum necessary for reading comprehension of technical texts.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 2 (1973), 47-53.

Examination of two chemical texts in German, each of about 100 words, shows the following structural plans relevant to comprehension: main clauses, subordinate clauses, participial constructions, expanded noun constructions, prepositional word groups, parenthetical constructions, infinitives with *zu* and the conditional expressed without a conjunction [tables]. Examination for grammatical forms shows that, as far as comprehension is concerned, redundant morphemes belong to these categories: declension of article, adjective, participle, or noun, conjugated verb endings, prepositions and pronouns. For comprehension purposes a teaching course should concentrate on structures, then on analytical verb forms and finally on a limited study of grammatical forms. Statistical analysis should pay less regard to frequency and more to redundancy in relation to the desired skill.

- 74-26 Benigni, Laura and Parisi, Domenico.** Capacità linguistiche, classe sociale, frequenza all'asilo e apprendimento in prima elementare. [Linguistic ability, social class, attendance at nursery school and learning in first-year primary school.] *Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata* (Rome), 5, 1 (1973), 73-82.

The relationships between socio-economic class, pre-school experience and reading ability in the early primary classes are examined in an extension of research on handicaps in education previously reported. The population in this case consisted of 124 children in a Rome primary school. Two levels of the father's socio-economic status were distinguished. Linguistic ability was classified as understanding of syntax, as well as understanding single words, and reading skill was measured in terms of accuracy, speed and comprehension

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(silent reading). Socio-economic status correlates with all the separate variables; the length of attendance at nursery school appears to affect only comprehension, making a particular improvement in children from less well-off homes both in their ability to recognise vocabulary items and to handle syntactic structures. While children from both socio-economic groups show linguistic benefits from attending nursery school, the effect can be crucial to the child's future education in the case of poorer families. The Italian first-year primary school does not at the moment teach syntactic comprehension skills. [Statistical tables of results, bibliography of tests used and of earlier reports.]

74-27 **Hornsey, Alan W.** A foreign language for all: the questions to be answered. *Modern languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), 1 (1973), 32-41.

Language teaching policy must bear in mind that foreign-language learning is difficult. Modern aims are practical: to communicate more widely, read texts otherwise inaccessible and experience a different culture. It is doubtful if all courses should aim at all three objectives simultaneously. If a foreign language is taught as a tool for communication, those who fail to reach communication performance have gained nothing from the course. These are often general under-achievers, with native-language problems anyway; written work is a further burden for sub-literates; oral work intimidates those with speech handicaps. Further, language learning is cumulative: failure to 'keep up' progresses geometrically. Motivation is an additional problem. English-speaking children already have a world language, and foreign languages are rated low among school subjects [table]. Content is a barrier. Adolescents are uninterested in 'baby-talk', but are debarred from serious discussion by lack of foreign-language competence.

It is recommended that all children should start a foreign language, in mixed ability groups, at a slow pace and with a variety of approaches. After a year, they can be sorted into three groups: (1) those who show aptitude and can continue with a normal course; (2) those who show

less aptitude, but wish to continue – these can follow a more generalised course, aimed at receptive skills; (3) those without aptitude or motivation – their course is primarily cultural, with a language orientation. Such a scheme gives an opportunity for late developers to advance, and for all pupils to have their interest kept alive.

74-28 Ísaksson, Andri. Innovation in foreign-language teaching in Iceland. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 288–92.

[The structure of the Icelandic school system and the provision for teacher training are described.] Plans have been made to teach Danish from ten years of age and English from eleven. In the upper secondary school the minimum number of foreign languages required for each student is reduced to three: compulsory Danish and English; and a third language, usually German or French. [A timetable framework for this reform at primary school level is given. The reform will be completed by 1975.] In-service training courses have been held, and new teaching materials provided. Some primary schools have begun to teach English on their own initiative. Interim syllabuses have been devised for pupils beginning English at twelve or thirteen. The main obstacles are the education and training of the teachers, and conservatism in time-tabling and school administration.

74-29 Kaschube, Dorothea V. Dyslexia: a language disorder. *Anthropological Linguistics* (Bloomington, Ind), **14**, 9 (1972), 339–56.

The dyslexic child is seen as one in whom verbal symbolisation is unstable but not completely lacking. Dyslexia is a congenital reading disability, being difficult to diagnose, but handwriting is the single most useful trait for diagnosis. It has been found that this kind of reading disability is rare among Japanese children, whose writing is based on syllable structure, as opposed to the Western phoneme/alphabetic unit writing system. In arithmetic dyslexic children perform much better with simple vertical processes than in new mathe-

matics where the concept of linearity presents difficulties as in orthography. Spatial and temporal confusion is also very common. The most successful therapy programmes have included a combination of visual, auditory, kinaesthetic and tactile stimuli, although there is no actual impairment in hearing or vision. The verbal performance of a dyslexic seems to lack cohesion on two levels: the phonetic–phonemic level or dysphonemia, and the semantic–syntactic level or dyssymbolia and anomia. Dyslexia is generally believed to be inherited and is more common in boys than girls. Almost all investigators support maturational lag or immaturity as an aetiological factor. It is suggested that anthropological linguists should add dyslexia to their research data. [Bibliography.]

74–30 Kirkwood, J. M. The influence of linguistics on language teaching with reference to Russian. *Journal of Russian Studies* (Bradford), 5 (1973), 39–54.

The principles and limitations of the structural–behaviourist view of language, as exemplified by the first edition of the American course ‘Modern Russian’ (1964), are discussed and contrasted with the functionalist approach to language, on which the Soviet course ‘Russkiy yazyk dlya vsekh’ (1972) is based. [Examples and summaries of the theoretical aspects of each approach are given, as well as a list of what are considered to be the fundamental points about language according to our present knowledge of it.]

Historic reasons are advanced to show why authors of audio-lingual and audio-visual courses do not yet show convincing signs of relinquishing the constraints of behaviourist-structuralism. In conclusion, a new set of tenets is offered on which language courses might be based. [Extensive bibliography.]

- 74-31 Lees, John C.** A re-examination of practical objectives in language teaching. *Treffpunkt* (Hemel Hempstead), **5**, 2 (1973), 2-6.

The purpose and exact nature of European studies need to be defined clearly, particularly now that it is challenging foreign-language teaching for a place in the curriculum. The aims and methods of foreign-language teaching itself need re-stating, as many educationists doubt the value of learning a skill rather than 'knowledge leading to concepts'. What is language and how is it best learned? [Criticism of current aims and methods.] An important basic point often overlooked is that active and receptive knowledge are not the same. The advantages of situational teaching are outlined: it offers language experience to learners, from which they can draw later for their own language production. Receptive skills must be learned before productive skills are demanded. Perception is itself not passive but 'an act of construction'.

The recommended approach is concentrated and demanding; probably only half the lesson should be devoted to it. The other half might be devoted to European studies, but only when their purpose and content has been systematically examined. [Bibliography.]

- 74-32 Murrell, Martin.** The planning stage: preliminaries to selection. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 257-61.

At each stage the learner's task should be facilitated by reducing to a minimum the number of formal and conceptual contrasts an item carries. One problem is that the speaker-teacher is not usually aware of the total intricacy of the conceptual contrasts of a given item. Every linguistic category presupposes the existence of a complex of interrelating features. [The present continuous and the definite article are given as examples.] One use of a linguistic item may presuppose not only one or more concepts but also numerous formal factors. Continual selection is 'grading' in one sense, and the better

the very complex material can be graded the more successful the teaching should be.

74-33 **Stevens, Peter.** Technical and scientific English (TTSE). *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 223-34.

Technical, technological, and scientific English (TTSE) make use of the same phonology, orthography, and grammar as do other kinds of English. The vocabulary is partly special to TTSE, which has its own range of written symbols. Some of the concepts expressed and intellectual processes conducted by TTSE are confined to science or to particular sciences.

There are recurrent grammatical patterns which are characteristic of TTSE. The choice of the passive voice is determined by the theme. Certain concepts, stating the logic or argument of the text, are common to all advanced thought. The logico-grammatical items involved may be grouped according to the ideas they convey. [The author classifies them under seven headings.] There are also concepts, reflecting the philosophy and methodology of science, which are not typical of non-scientific English. The philosophy of science involves concepts of discrimination and description, classification, interrelation, and explanation. [The author explains the implications of each of these.] Quantification gives particular difficulty to the non-scientist.

Scientific English uses the whole range of general and scientific concepts, international terminology based on Greek and Latin roots, the terms of particular sciences, and other coinings. Technological English makes less use of general conceptual language but full use of special vocabulary; it is strong in its use of numerical quantification and mathematical symbols and there is more reference to the concrete and practical. Quantification is mainly a matter of stating measurements. Technical texts contain a good deal of non-scientific English.

TTSE may either be taught in a special course after the learner has learned 'common-core' English, or in an integrated course in which the science or technology syllabus may be taught with and

through the language syllabus. Before deciding on a special-purpose course, the learners' average level of achievement must be assessed. Reading-only courses have been successful. The integrated course is the most economical and satisfactory, but is difficult to design. Close collaboration between the English teacher and the science teacher is necessary.

74-34 Raffestin, André. L'apprentissage de la lecture. [The learning of reading.] *Education* (Paris), **170** (1973), 14-17.

Experimental psychology has developed a theory of perception based on probability. [Laboratory experiments are described concerning word-recognition, frequency and congruousness.] The child's early experiences are vital because the perception called into play in reading demands interpretation on his part, and categorisation, which in turn depends on his seeing the relationship between objects. If letters are missing we deduce from the context the appropriate word. A child learning by the global method recognises words from a few clues or landmarks: the aim is to decipher the pattern as rapidly and easily as possible. The difficulty for the learner is that the signs are unfamiliar, so he needs more help and more signs to discover the pattern. [The three levels of categorisation are described.] Understanding of the text or language compensates for perceptual difficulties; errors arise from lack of ability to interpret correctly, and are not made by chance [dyslexia is seen as an extreme form of interpretation weakness]. Reading familiar material gives the child confidence in his interpretation, but he needs new material so that he can make guesses and learn how to control them. [The advantages of the global as opposed to the synthetic method are outlined, and some difficulties for the teacher are pinpointed.] It is hoped that the probability model of perception can account for various reading theories and help to avert classroom practice which is not based on theory. [References.]

TESTING

74-35 **Bachman, Lyle F.** Testing oral production. *Bulletin of the English Language Center (Bangkok)*, 3, 1 (1973), 41-58.

An individual's proficiency in oral production is affected by his linguistic competence, by psychological and environmental factors, and by the social and semantic construct of the situation. Since we cannot directly test linguistic competence, any measure of the individual's oral production is a measure not only of his competence but of the non-linguistic factors affecting his performance. It is necessary to re-define the criteria for measuring oral production in functional or situational terms.

The 'discrete point' approach to the testing of oral production assumes that a number of discrete elements can be identified. The assumption that the sum of the discrete elements equals the individual's overall proficiency is questionable. The best type of oral production test is one in which proficiency levels are defined in functional terms, and which attempts to test complete oral proficiency and overall oral communication. The semi-structured oral interview is still the most valid test in ideal circumstances, but interviewers have to be trained and uniform grading standards are hard to maintain. Another approach involves the elicitation of highly structured speech samples [various objections to this technique are raised]. The use of structured dialogues to which the student must respond in specific ways is a comparatively reliable method. Techniques involving the use of pencil and paper are marginally valid.

Recent research has focussed on global techniques [some recent experiments are described]. Discrete-point tests help with diagnosis of specific learning problems and are more reliable than global methods, which are more in keeping with research in linguistics and psychology, and capable of testing factors not measured by discrete-point methods. The ideal test will probably contain both these techniques.

- 74-36** Page, B. W. Another look at examinations. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Manchester), **11**, 2 (1973), 127-30.

A serious drawback of the present examination system (particularly O and A level language examinations) is that boards are vague in their requirements and teachers must infer these from past papers. Examiners are criticised for having unfair expectations and ill-defined criteria for their criticisms. Present examination methods are not professional enough and the system favours those who have an inside knowledge of it.

How might an official syllabus for language examinations be set up? It is important to define the requirements for a minimum pass. A possible alternative would be a system of graded examinations at several levels which would enable even learners with a relatively low level of proficiency to obtain some recognition for what they had learned [further advantages are outlined].

TEACHER TRAINING

- 74-37** Cammish, Nadine K. Videotapes and teaching techniques. *Modern Languages* (London), **54**, 1 (1973), 8-14.

Videotape recording has been used since 1968 at Hull University, not only for recording modern-language programmes from source for later analysis but also as a means of recording the teaching of foreign languages by established teachers and by students of the Department of Educational Studies. A video-recording reduces the number of interruptions a good methods teacher suffers, allows all students to receive the same information, concentrates the attention and allows for repetition of points which may otherwise be overlooked. It is therefore useful for demonstrating techniques and helping student teachers in the preparation of their lessons. Videotapes highlight various learning problems as well as showing teachers how well material is received by their classes.

Student-teachers are video-recorded in a micro-teaching situation under simulated conditions, thus enabling them to assess and modify

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their techniques as a result of self-observation. Although video-recording introduces a degree of artificiality into the teaching process, its potential value in micro-teaching is enormous.

74-38 Wallworth, J. Language teaching for children from immigrant groups. *Education for Teaching* (London), **90** (1973), 24-9.

The teacher's assessment of the child's linguistic background is important for identifying his existing skills and weaknesses, both in his mother tongue and English. [Examples indicate the complexity of assessing a child's mother tongue within a wide group such as African or Asian languages.] Mistakes in class may indicate lack of linguistic understanding, or lack of knowledge, intelligence or interest. [A brief discussion of the problems of children from the Caribbean.] Furzedown College runs a half term course for all first-year students to increase their awareness of language and different cultural backgrounds in the classroom. [Brief details of the topics covered are given.] A further course offers training in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

TEACHING METHODS

74-39 Teaching language. *Education* (London), **142**, 3 (1973), i-iv.

One of a series of pull-out digests intended for headteachers and administrators, giving brief summaries of the present state of knowledge of the following topics: linguistics (new awareness of language, language development in children, social background and language codes); speech (oracy and literacy, accent and dialect, the multiracial school); in class (language in the classroom, reading); core subject (language for its own sake). [Suggestions for further reading are given.]

74-40 Champagnol, Raymond. Conditions d'apprentissage du vocabulaire. [Conditions of vocabulary learning.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **66**, 4 (1972), 413-26.

The meaning of a word may be defined either operationally (the context in which it is used) or referentially (the object denoted). Operational definition corresponds to the grammar-translation teaching method: meaning given by a native-language equivalent, together with its function in the context. Referential definition corresponds to the direct method: the item identified directly with an object or situation. Do these two methods give different results? There appear to have been no experiments with direct bearing except for Scherer and Wertheimer (1964), and this suffers from a confusion between method (relating to the skills aimed at) and technique (teaching process and materials). [Résumé of experiments to date on vocabulary learning.]

Three experiments were conducted at the Psychological Laboratory, Poitiers: (1) sets of words were presented, in context or in isolation, with or without visual illustrations [details]; the results were indicative only (small numbers and many variables uncontrolled), but visual illustration (referential meaning) markedly improved recall; (2) words in English were presented with an illustration (the French equivalents, previously unknown to the subjects, were given as translations of the English) [details] – the English words were consistently better recalled than the French; (3) English words were presented in isolation with a picture; with picture and French equivalent; and with French equivalent only. Two populations were tested: one with oral knowledge of English, the other without. Results showed that previous knowledge of the target language gave better recall, increasing with re-tests, and items illustrated and without translation gave markedly and consistently better recall. [Bibliography.]

- 74-41 Denig, Friedrich.** Fremdsprachenintensivkurse in lernpsychologischer Sicht. [Foreign-language intensive courses in the context of learning psychology.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **26**, 2 (1973), 103-6.

The effects of concentrated practice in comparison with the more traditional methods of teaching are considered in relation to the speed of learning, and the effect on memory and motivation. Also taken into account are characteristics of the learner, the nature of the material, and the possibility of improving learning in areas of weakness. The conclusion is drawn that by and large the conventional pattern of learning is more satisfactory. Except for specially gifted and highly motivated students, intensive courses require more learning time, mean that the student will soon forget what he has learnt, and dis-incline him to pursue the language further. [Bibliography.]

- 74-42 Donskov, Andrew.** An intensive method of language teaching. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **29**, 4 (1973), 36-40.

An intensive Russian language workshop was set up by the Department of Germanic and Slavic Languages and Literatures at the University of Waterloo in the summers of 1971 and 1972. The aim was to provide students with at least one year of Russian with a Russian language environment, and 'submerge' them in the language so that they felt at home with it [course description]. Apart from the daily programme of grammar and oral practice, extra-curricula activities (films, seminars, singing, picnics and visits) were important because the students relaxed and enjoyed themselves while learning. The long hours (six to seven hours a day for six weeks) meant that only the more serious students applied. [Daily timetable and detailed analysis of the various parts of the course.] The workshops were felt to have been a success; students worked longer hours than they were asked to because of their interest in the various projects (such as an evening of Russian poetry, songs and a one-act Chekhov play).

- 74-43 Holley, Freda M.** A study of vocabulary learning in context: the effect of new-word density in Germany reading materials. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **6**, 3 (1973), 339-47.

Much recent research on the acquisition of foreign-language vocabulary has tended to treat the subject as a list-learning situation. Hardly any work has been done on vocabulary learning in context or in classroom situations, although there are many unsupported assumptions about the rate at which new words should be introduced. The attitude has been that new-word densities should be kept low but this study investigates the hypothesis that a maximum rate of new-word density in reading materials could be identified, and possibly increased.

In a range of experiments with students of German seven new-word densities were tried, ranging from one new word per fifteen known words to one new word per 150 known words. In the ensuing tests on students, results did not support the original contention. Vocabulary acquisition took place in all seven new-word densities used and, probably because of the numerous variables among the students' methods of acquiring information, no consistently significant effects on comprehension, reading time, or student ratings of the difficulty of the material or its enjoyment value, were found.

- 74-44 Piepho, Hans-Eberhard.** Linguistische, soziolinguistische und didaktische Anmerkungen zum Begriff 'Situation' im modernen Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Linguistic, sociolinguistic and didactic observations on the concept of 'situation' in modern foreign-language teaching.] *Zielsprache Französisch* (Munich), **1** (1973), 12-20.

The logical and pragmatic determinants of a situationally based language course include communicative competence. In discussing the concept of situation in various kinds of teaching it becomes clear that grammatical teaching does not conflict with situational teaching. A precise definition of teaching aims should lead to circumstances where grammatical forms are embedded in situational lessons. Com-

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municative functions in situational teaching are described and set out in tables which could serve as a basis for developing curricula in European languages at secondary level and in adult courses.

- 74-45 Veidt, Frederick P.** The dialogue: an aid to oral production in beginning language study. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **57**, 1/2 (1973), 3-8.

Memorising a dialogue is not an end in itself but an initiatory device enabling the student to form new oral sequences from the given patterns. The intermediate step of dialogue adaptation is frequently neglected. An experiment was conducted to compare the effect of two ways of handling dialogues. Members of the experimental group recited ten dialogues in Russian from memory. Members of the control group were tested on their knowledge of cognitive aspects, such as the spelling and morphological patterns of the exchanges. [Details of the procedure and of the analysis are given.] Results showed that the subjects who combined memorisation of the dialogues with practice in selecting variants of the materials memorised were superior in providing generalisations and in fluency to those who concentrated solely on variation. Dialogue memorisation and presentation, in combination with oral drills, should be an integral part of a foreign-language course for beginners. The results of the study do not, however, justify mechanical memorisation.

CLASS METHODS

- 74-46 Fisher, Mary-Margaret.** The nuts and bolts of individualisation: classroom management. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **57**, 4 (1973), 179-85.

Most teachers recognise that they must individualise teaching to some extent. The ultimate aim is responsibility on the student's part. The author refers to a Spanish-teaching programme, divided into ten phases, which may be worked into a curriculum at almost any point. Each learner begins at the point where he cannot pass the final test of

a phase with 85 per cent accuracy in the four basic skills. The programme was discussed with the students beforehand, and detailed records of the students' progress were kept. Materials have to be ready when students need them and must as far as possible be self-explanatory. Senior students can help to devise and oversee more elementary courses. Language activities which have to be judged subjectively should be graded by the teacher, who is needed to guide learning. An in-class appointment schedule helps the teacher to meet as many students as possible. An individualised programme is demanding, and the first experiment should not run for more than a week. [Suggestions are made for handling the transition between the special programme and regular classroom work.] A general evaluation of each student is important, and criticisms from the group should be used to improve the course. [The author gives a number of rules for the special programme which deal with matters of detail.]

74-47 McNair, John M. Putting the question. *Modern Languages* (London), **54**, 1 (1973), 27-31.

It is important for language teachers to acquire questioning techniques which encourage pupils to make replies, particularly during the early years, so that freer work can be developed later on. Teachers of languages need more help with these techniques than is usually offered. They should question not to test knowledge but to stimulate pupils to practise a particular language form. The form of the question and repeated practice should guide the pupils to the correct answer. Encouragement from the teacher is essential, and so is a brisk pace. Different ways of putting questions, the length and form of the question and the situations used, are discussed. [Examples in French are given.] The problem of the unanswered question is analysed and remedies suggested. It is recommended that the teacher makes a card index of possible question forms and a sample card is shown; this enables him to deal quickly with classroom difficulties.

- 74-48 Raz, Hana.** Ask your pupils! *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), **27** (1973), 13-22.

Student motivation and interest is an important factor in determining success. Previous experience of success or failure influences the pupil's self-evaluation. Ethnocentric attitudes affect language learning adversely. Integrative motivation is stronger than instrumental, but in Israel motivation is more likely to be instrumental. A teacher aware of his students' goals can make his teaching more flexible. Communication in the classroom plays a vital role as a motivating factor. The trend towards individualised instruction could have a salutary effect. [The author proposes the use of a questionnaire, the purpose of which is to help the teacher find out what his pupils feel about the curriculum and teaching methods.] The data obtained can be analysed to give a class profile, to relate answers to outside factors, and to interrelate answers to each other. [The questionnaire itself is printed, in Hebrew.]

PRONUNCIATION

- 74-49 Deyes, A. F.** The use of regionalisms in the teaching of pronunciation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 270-1.

Advanced students' control of phonemes can be improved through practice of contrasted allophones. The environmental type does not offer direct contrasts. Recordings of regional and RP speakers provided sentences which were identical except for the different allophones of one phoneme. The aim of the exercises was to enable students to control RP phonemes better and to understand the main regional varieties of English. Students practised individual words first, and then listened to passages read in different accents. Phonetic transcription was an aid to discussion. The speech continuum demonstrated prosodic differences. [The recordings consisted of a single passage read in Scottish, Irish, Welsh and London accents and in RP, and more spontaneous speech was recorded from the radio and television.]

- 74-50 Hammerly, Hector.** The correction of pronunciation errors. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **57**, 3 (1973), 106-10.

Pronunciation errors have many causes. Choral responses tend to hide such errors, and should be alternated with individual speaking. Correction should be immediate and polite but should not interrupt the learner's flow of speech. The first step is to isolate the error, though it may also be necessary to include the conditioning phonetic environment. The second step is to differentiate the error from the correct segment: the teacher should say aloud the mispronounced segment and the same segment correctly pronounced. [Examples in Spanish, French, German and English.] An articulatory pointer may have to be given, and it may be necessary to lead the pupil from the native-language sound to the foreign one by a series of steps. Gestures can help to indicate intonation and rhythm. When there are several pronunciation errors in a sentence, a hierarchy of correction may be needed. It may be based either on the misunderstanding that various errors might cause or on the degree of offensiveness of an error to native speakers' ears; or the two approaches may be combined. The teacher should consistently maintain a high standard, and correct errors immediately and insistently, especially in the early stages of the course.

REMEDIAL TEACHING

- 74-51 King, Arthur H.** Notes on remedial English at higher-educational level. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 245-50.

Remedial work should begin very early, since the effect of poor instruction is cumulative. Remedial English is particularly important where English is a means of teaching and learning other subjects. The problem is not due merely to an increase in the number of students. Standards are declining. Remedial English at tertiary level needs to be organised for foreign- or second-language speakers by

teachers specially trained and using material designed for the purpose. Fluency in writing is encouraged by the prolonged and frequent swift reading of many texts at an early age. Facility in the use of structures is of major importance to foreign learners. Remedial English at university has to start from an elementary level and continue throughout the university years. Heads of departments intensify the problem by their reluctance to admit that remedial work is required. The overseas student who is short of money, or who does not realise that his English is not good enough, resents compulsory remedial instruction. University authorities are responsible for the situation that arises from the inadequate definition of entrance requirements.

The three tasks of improving the skill of reading and writing in normal social contexts, the skill of using the language in a subject, and the student's cultural knowledge of the country are apt to get confused. Cultural propaganda is resented. Most students, if their language skills are good enough, can be left to deal with their own acculturation problems. Remedial work must be maintained alongside the student's work on his own subject, and should be organised within the same department. The centre of the writing problem remains the ability to construct sentences. Every teacher needs to be a teacher of English. 'Being good at languages' is a matter chiefly of motivation.

74-52 Rogers, Sinclair. An oral approach to remedial English. *Remedial Education* (London), 7, 3 (1972), 33-5.

Teachers doing remedial work in mother-tongue instruction usually concentrate on a child's written work, but as errors originate in speech it is preferable to attack the problems at source. What we write expresses our thoughts, or 'inner-speech', so increased fluency in speech should lead to greater ease in writing. The teacher should concentrate on the individual difficulties of each child as revealed in his written work, and decide with the child what the main problems are. These will form the basis of an individually prepared programme, in which the exercises should merely provide a framework, allowing the child maximum freedom of choice in manipulating vocabulary. [Examples for correcting past tenses and subject/verb agreement are

given.] Initial work is best done individually, but later on groups can usefully work together. While the oral approach cannot account for all the skills used in writing, it is effective in solving errors of grammar and morphology. [References.]

VISUAL AIDS

74-53 Barrera-Vidal, Albert. La bande dessinée au service de l'enseignement des langues. [The strip cartoon in the service of language teaching.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **20**, 3 (1973), 288-303.

Although strip cartoons are regular reading for school pupils, their exploitation for school use is inadequately developed – is indeed often strongly resisted. The reasons for this attitude are understandable but inadequate in view of the recognition of the value of other mass media in education.

In native-language learning, strip cartoons can be used for linguistic and literary discrimination. In foreign-language learning (especially of French) they give access to the French view of France and of certain foreign countries, and to different language registers (narrative, conversational), which are clearly distinguished typographically. They also promise increased pupil involvement.

The teacher using strip cartoons requires a knowledge of their history, the various genres, the principal protagonists and their characteristics, and a basic terminology, both linguistic and iconographic. It is best to obtain a set of one of the strip cartoon periodicals to have a variety of examples of genres [critical list]. At the elementary stages, 'silent' strips can be used for description and commentary, those with 'balloons' for narration. The 'Schtroumpfs' series is recommended for vocabulary work. At advanced stages, 'Astérix' is excellent for its word-play and situation jokes. Reference between the French originals and the translated versions gives a good grounding in linguistic and cultural comparisons. [Appendix – set of strip cartoons exemplifying references in the text.]

- 74–54** **Tionová, Alena.** Využití flanelové tabule při výuce cizího jazyka. [The use of a flannelgraph board in foreign language teaching.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **16**, 8 (1972/3), 348–54.

The flannelgraph board is a simple but effective teaching device which the foreign-language teacher can easily produce himself. It enables him to pinpoint changing situations in daily life which may illustrate points made in the basic texts of the textbook lesson, or which may stimulate variations (thus encouraging dialogue), or be an aid in the drilling of grammar and vocabulary, or even serve as a starting point for repetition work and games. Young children and adults enjoy working with the flannelgraph but adolescents seem to reject it. The work with the flannelgraph may either be an integrated aid in a language course (as it is in a number of recent French language courses) or serve as an additional teaching device which is suitable for any type of course.

Specific application of the use of the flannelgraph board to the French language course for the fifth grade with a special language bias of the Czech Basic Nine-Year School is demonstrated.

The adherence to definite conventions in work with the flannelgraph is highly advisable. They include the regular use of certain signs and symbols (arrows and dots are given as examples), and the regular placement of items on the board for special purposes. In this way the teacher can stimulate identical responses on the part of the pupils (types of questions or statements, negations). [Drawings illustrate the various points.]

RADIO AND PERIODICALS

- 74–55** **Therrien, Melvin G.** Learning French via short-wave radio and popular periodicals. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **46**, 6 (1973), 1178–83.

A new and experimental course in French communications media was offered at a Senior High School in Minnesota, USA, in 1971. The equipment consisted of a short-wave radio and six magazine

subscriptions. [The initial proceedings – discovery of transmission channels, scanning of programmes and familiarisation with the equipment – are described.] The students found comprehension difficult at first, so began by concentrating on more basic broadcasts – news, sports, weather. As basic idioms became familiar, the students gained confidence. [The method of taping broadcasts and the provision of scripts to familiarise students with the material is described.] A four-minute broadcast provided material for an hour's class; later this was cut to half an hour. [The teacher's responsibilities and jobs are listed.] French presented in this way came alive and gave the students an insight into a different culture. Similar advantages were gained from studying two French newspapers and five magazines [class activities are described]. [Appendix lists manuals of radio programme sources relevant to Minnesota.]

74-56 Sager, J. C. and McDonald, P. F. The stylistic comparative analysis of journalistic texts as an instrument of cognitive language teaching. *Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik* (Leipzig), 21, 2 (1973), 180-200.

Journalistic texts are considered particularly useful as a cognitive approach to advanced language work. Texts relating to the same news-feature, a sea-rescue, are reproduced from seven newspapers, and a comparative analysis is undertaken in order to show the extent to which style is conditioned by content, and the extent to which it shapes communication.

The news-item begins with a summary of its most significant elements, and the material is usually structured in decreasing order of importance, so that it may be shortened by cutting from the end; the news-story, however, begins with an eye-catching punch-line and cannot be cut down without significant alteration. A news-item may be converted into a story in order to give it more prominence. The popular press has a preference for stories and the 'qualities' for news-items, readership appeal playing a considerable part. [Suggestions are made for further study of journalistic texts, particularly of leaders and columns which are not dealt with here.]

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PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

- 74-57 Fletcher, J. D. and Atkinson, R. C.** Evaluation of the Stanford CAI programme in initial reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington DC), **63**, 6 (1972), 597-602.

In the period 1968-71 Stanford University tried out and evaluated a programme of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) in initial reading (kindergarten to third grade). [Description of equipment and areas of instruction.] The system is designed to permit students to work at their own pace and make maximum progress. In this experiment, the progress of two sets of twenty-two matched pairs of boys and girls was compared: one set received CAI for eight- to ten-minute daily sessions for a period of five and a half months and the other set did not. Three post-tests were then carried out. [Detailed analysis of the tests and results given.] Significant improvements were measured, not only in the area (phonics) towards which the CAI curriculum was oriented but in more general reading skills. Boys benefited relatively more than girls: on one test 32 per cent compared to 13 per cent. This suggests that CAI treatment over several years might well have dramatic results.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 74-58 Turek, Josef.** Jazykové laboratoře na odborných školách (Language laboratories in Czech secondary technical and vocational schools). *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **16**, 9 (1972/3), 393-403.

This is the second instalment of a report on a research project enquiring into the use and exploitation of language laboratories in Czech secondary technical and vocational schools (they include engineering, agricultural and economic colleges, and also adult schools for foreign languages). Altogether eighty-eight laboratories had been installed in these schools. The aim of the research was to express by means of numerical data the intensity of the use of these laboratories and a

measure of this intensity. The basic values for establishing the intensity of use were (1) the rhythm of use (regular or irregular), (2) the frequency of use (the fraction of the entire teaching time during which the laboratory was used). [Tables of results on intensity of use and rhythm of use.] The research also investigated the range of intensity of use in the various types of schools according to the same parameters, and, as expected, the language schools scored highest, economic colleges were second, and agricultural schools scored lowest. Conclusions are drawn for amore economical use of language laboratories in these types of school.

ADULTS

74-59 Levy, J. Les adultes et les langues vivantes. [Adults and living languages.] *Education* (Paris), **169** (March 1973), 12-13.

Although audio-visual methods may be successful with children, the difficulties and limitations are more apparent with adult beginners. [The reactions of adults to film, strip cartoons and drawings are contrasted with those of children – in general adults respond less well to these stimuli.] Whereas children can learn a second language under conditions simulating first-language learning (the global method), adults (particularly scientists) who have studied other languages analytically do not respond well to global methods. They dislike repetition and mechanical forms of practice unless they feel they fully understand what they are saying. While a return to traditional grammar is not advocated, it is felt that a feeling for language structure and linguistic mechanisms would help the adult to acquire the automatic linguistic gestures. Material should be better suited to adults' needs (more sophistication, more humour).

SLOW LEARNERS

74-60 Slow learners. *LTIC Newsletter* (Leeds), 3 (1973), 7-11.

[Extracts from a report 'Teaching of foreign language to slow learners' by a working party of teachers of French to slow learners set up by the ILEA Modern Language Centre.] The difficulties of slow learners arise from a combination of handicaps which are summarised as physical, mental or emotional, and cultural [details of the main classroom symptoms are given].

The slow learner is at a disadvantage in an unstreamed class, particularly for language work. He needs more oral practice, and visual material is particularly important for him. [The importance of communication is stressed, and classroom methods are suggested.] Correction of errors should be careful but not inhibiting [suggestions for progress in mixed ability classes are made]. Teachers of slow learners need to be able to adapt teaching materials, be sympathetic and patient, and accept realistic objectives.

74-61 **Bebermeier, Hans.** Die Arbeit mit der Ganzschrift in lernschwachen Gruppen. [Working on whole texts with slow learners.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), 20, 3 (1973), 249-59.

Slow learners need special training if they are to tackle whole texts in a foreign language. Compiling the texts requires didactic skills and technical devices such as the right type founts, spacing, paragraphing and selected illustrations to stimulate and hold interest.

Before tackling whole texts pupils must have a minimum of vocabulary and some understanding of structures; they can then begin reading aloud softly with the teacher and learn that quick reading is not necessarily good reading. The reading of whole texts offers a good incentive for oral work, alleviates boredom in classes in the thirteen-to-fifteen age groups, varies the monotony of course book studies, and is a good way of putting over Landeskunde. The text should suit the pupils' age and ability level and they should be able to read it in two to three weeks. Its vocabulary should be linked with that of the course book and new words should be introduced slowly; but the

whole text should have a format and binding different from the course book's. Any word list should have its explanations in the language being taught and should be detachable. [E. Orton's *The Red Mini* is analysed.]

The ultimate aim should be silent reading and the ability to 'skim'. Any dramatisation of a whole text should be tackled only when the sense has been absorbed and not just by rote learning of printed dialogue. The old concept of the reading lesson does not suit the slow learner.

74-62 Levin, Maida. Teaching 'B' and 'C' levels in the upper classes. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), **27** (1973), 23-8.

For a course of study to be successful, the pupils must be motivated by an immediate and constant feeling of progress. The slow learner can master material passively, and hence can be given a sense of achievement. Books used in previous years and books intended for younger children are unsuitable for backward sixteen- to eighteen-year-old learners. [The author describes materials and methods she employed with success, including television programmes, books of stories, ballads, songs, and group work. An overhead projector, an opaque projector, and a tape-recorder were used.] The most important factor is the teacher-pupil relationship.

DRAMA

74-63 Druce, Robert. The place of drama in foreign-language teaching. *Levende talen* (The Hague), **298** (1973), 289-96.

Drama in a language-teaching situation is not sensitivity-training nor improvisation nor theatre proper – it is totally different from drama in the mother-tongue situation. Drama in the foreign-language or immigrant class is not an end in itself, but a device to make meaning manifest and to exercise language skills. Drama implies spoken language and it exploits situations and role-playing. Situation demon-

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strates the aptness of a pattern of language and determines the boundaries which circumscribe an idiom. [Examples from various languages. Brief dialogues are given to show the different uses of the simple and the progressive present in English.] Role-playing encourages learners to use the language in appropriate situations. In combination the two techniques give better results than statements of rules. [Examples are given of simple, complex and advanced dialogues in English.] Dialogues which relate the task of learning a structure with playing a defined role in an unambiguous situation must be fundamentally simple in character. As the pupils' fluency improves, realism can be added by getting the role-players to imitate states of mental preoccupation and emotional stress. Subsequently real plays can be explored more effectively if this kind of technique is developed. The dramatic awareness of the pupils prepares them for creating dialogues themselves. [Examples.] By comparing their own efforts with the playwright's version on an identical theme the students come to appreciate the quality of his craft.

[The rest of the issue is concerned with drama, and is in Dutch.]

74-64 Lindsay, Paul. Use of drama in TEFL. *ARELS Journal* (London), 1, 4 (1973), 50-1.

Role-playing helps students to use language for communication. The teacher's role is that of producer, not actor. Various stages are outlined, from simple communication games (gestures, mime, 'auditions') to practice in expressing feelings and emotions (interpreting facial expressions in words); at the next stage comes role-playing which involves wearing a 'mask' and makes students less self-conscious. Roles should be clearly defined and contrasted [examples].

Improvisation should not be tackled below intermediate level (although simple, well-prepared situations can be used with beginners); it is best to begin with familiar situations, and humorous ones will get the students going [examples]. The teacher must allow mistakes to be made so as to avoid inhibiting students: psychological gains will compensate for linguistic errors. The most worthwhile aspect is that students find they need language to express themselves

in a situation, and language becomes a means to an end – communication.

- 74-65 Thomas, Emma Lewis.** Das Märchen als Hörspiel [The fairytale as radio play]: an exercise in conversation, recitation and writing. *Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, Pa), **6**, 1 (1973), 29-32.

The production of radio plays by third-year German students at the University of California is described. In daily sessions of forty-five minutes during one week, three groups of four students evolved scripts as for radio, based on some of Grimm's *Märchen*. Advantages of radio plays are that the emphasis is on the spoken word rather than the theatrical performance, and students are less self-conscious. [Detailed descriptions of each day's work are given, from the planning stages to the final readings.] The students were enthusiastic and produced lively modern versions of the tales. [A comparison of part of Grimm's *Rumpelstilzchen* and the students' dialogue version is given.] An additional advantage was that the students were sufficiently motivated to produce written and taped versions afterwards.

ENGLISH See also abstracts 74-38, -48/9, -51/2, -61/2, -64

- 74-66 Ewen, Elizabeth and Gipps, Caroline.** Tests of English for immigrant children. *Multiracial School* (Bath), **2**, 2 (1973), 22-4.

The National Foundation for Educational Research constructed diagnostic and proficiency tests of English, for use with immigrant children in primary schools. It was felt that content-referenced tests were most suitable (measuring what the pupil can do in terms of the skills being tested, rather than in comparison with his peers). The tests are divided into the four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – and are arranged in three levels of complexity. [Description of the type of material used at each level.] It is hoped that teachers will be able to use the tests to diagnose a child's proficiency in various

skills and on separate grammatical or lexical points. [Receptive skills (listening and reading) are scored objectively while a global approach to scoring productive skills (speaking and writing) is felt to be more appropriate.] The tests are being used as the basis of a nation-wide survey sponsored by the Department of Education and Science.

74-67 Kollmannová, Ludmila. Test slovní zásoby. [Vocabulary test.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), 16, 9 (1972/3), 385-93.

In the design of English vocabulary tests a prime factor is congruence of objectives and content. Lexical items should be selected according to fixed criteria of frequency, difficulty and degree of interference from the native language in a given context. The choice of context is dictated by the student's knowledge of grammar, and the lexical content should be drawn from real situations. The choice of test item depends on the target student, the aims, and the criteria of objective testing.

74-68 Macmillan, Matthew. In defence of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), 27, 3 (1973), 215-23.

The role of English as a world language cannot be challenged, but there are three dangers: misguided chauvinism on the part of those who speak it as a mother tongue, resentment on the part of those forced to acquire it, and deviations which arise from its use. Those who deplore the 'corruption' of English are defending an untenable position. The United States and Australia are now the dominant sources of linguistic influence on British English. Regional variations from British English which have developed as standard forms in other areas where English is a mother tongue seldom present teaching or communication problems.

The use of English as a means of influencing other nations in a neo-colonialist way will cause resentment or fear. Another cause of resentment is the ease with which English words infiltrate other languages. Deviations in countries where English is a lingua franca may give rise to unintelligibility. More and more children are being taught English

badly. The best teachers should work with beginners. A linguistic test to decide who should learn English is undesirable and impractical. A school-leaving examination not geared to university selection should be established. The teaching of those foreign languages for which there is most demand must be intensified.

74-69 Olsson, Margareta. Learning grammar: an experiment. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 266-9.

An experiment was conducted at Gothenburg to assess the effectiveness of three methods of teaching English as a foreign language. The subjects were pupils of about fourteen, in eighteen grade seven classes, and the experimental instruction covered six thirty-minute periods. The classes were randomly assigned to the three groups, each taught by a different method: an implicit method based on systematised drills without grammatical explanations, an explicit method with explanations in English, and an explicit method with explanations in Swedish, and comparison with the corresponding Swedish structures. The grammatical structure taught was the passive voice. No method was proved superior to any other. The experiment was repeated a year later with different classes, and with similar results. The explicit method using Swedish proved better for weaker pupils. Research concerned with the relations between pupil aptitude, the instructional technique, and the pupil-teacher relationship could be more rewarding.

FRENCH *See also abstracts* 74-44, -47, -53/55

74-70 Margerie, C. de, Moirand, S. and Porquier, R. Les constructions verbales avec faire, laisser, voir, etc. [Verbal constructions with faire, laisser, voir, etc.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **98** (1973), 33-41.

Teaching materials and descriptive grammars alike fail to elaborate the full range of these extended verbal constructions. Distributional analysis was used first and an inventory of verbs – designated V1–

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was drawn up [list]. These verbs occur in the sequence: V₁ V₂ inf. The verbs were sub-categorised according to the preposition used and according to the occurrence of object pronouns and the resultant word-order. Using this classification, exercises can be designed which use transformational patterns to drill the syntactic structures [examples]. Distributional analysis by itself does not provide an adequate guide for teaching purposes; a pedagogic approach can use functional criteria [examples and a style of notation].

In a second phase descriptions were created which borrow the procedures of transformational generative grammar. Diagrams [examples] show the interrelationships of constituent and matrix sentences. The limitations within which the verbs operate, with or without prepositions, are then explored through attempted transformations. With this type of theory to underpin his lesson-design the teacher can exploit illustrated stories, role-playing, the overhead projector and similar devices in order to provide rich practice in the accurate use of the verbal constructions [examples].

GERMAN *See also abstracts 74-25, -65*

74-71 Bauer, Eric W. Guided learning with tape. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **11**, 1 (1973), 1-12.

The author discusses how English-speaking students can be taught word-order in German sentences containing modal auxiliaries, and outlines the advantages and limitations of a multi-media approach to self-study activities. An instructional cycle consisting of classroom activities, a self-study phase, and follow-up activities is described. The self-study phase is illustrated with exercises and pictures taken from an elementary course in German, and it is claimed that affective as well as cognitive and psycho-motor factors are taken account of, and that the student gains a firmer control of himself and his output.

- 74-72 Richardson, Horst F.** The teaching of college German under a modular system. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **57**, 4 (1973), 189-94.

At Colorado College the academic year is divided into nine. Most students enrol for one course at a time. Each course has a course room. Credits are awarded according to the duration and kind of course. [The author discusses the advantages and disadvantages of this intensive system for students and instructors.] In teaching German on this system the number of daily contact hours has been greatly increased, and the instructor gets to know the students quickly. The classroom, available at all times, has been adapted to stimulate the learning of German. Variety being the first priority, the teaching method has become eclectic. [Detail is given of the rapidity with which the grammar is introduced.] Skill-maintenance courses have also been established. The modular system allows for great diversification at the intermediate level. It includes a visit to Munich. Total immersion in one subject allows students to explore topics which particularly interest them. [The option of two half-courses is also discussed, especially for courses on literature.] The relative freedom of the modular system stimulated enthusiasm and experiment.

SPANISH *See abstract 74-46*

RUSSIAN *See also abstracts 74-42, -45*

- 74-73 Ptachek, I.** Роль и место перевода при обучении русского языка. [The role and place of translation in teaching Russian.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **1** (1973), 98-9.

It is necessary to distinguish between translation as a professional skill and translation as a methodological device; the former lies outside the concern of secondary schools. In schools translation may be used with other forms of exercise to acquire, develop and test lan-

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guage skills. There are three types of translation exercise: from Russian, into Russian and two-way translation. Translation from Russian aids comprehension, particularly in the early stages, but will increasingly give way to the sole use of the target language. Translation into Russian grows in significance with the increasing linguistic ability of the pupil. The following forms are suggested: translation of expressions and separate sentences (when pupils are familiar with the component elements); translation of a connected text (for advanced work); dictation-translation (for advanced work); free translation of sentences or text (for advanced work). Translation from and back into Russian aids memorisation of the material and gives a useful warning of language difficulties; it can be used at all stages. Translation has the merit of keeping alive the comparison of native and target language; it is an effective device against language interference and aids the development of language sensitivity. Teachers should bear in mind that translation is only one of the possible types of exercise.