Language learning and teaching

THEORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

71–29   Bosco, F. J. and R. J. Di Pietro. Instructional strategies: their psychological and linguistic bases. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **8**, 1 (1970), 1–19.

There are considered to be three strategies for language teaching: the grammatical method with translation, the direct method and the audio-lingual method. In investigating these methods only the psychological and linguistic bases have been considered.

Resulting from the investigation it seems that future courses should be synthetic rather than analytic. By this is envisaged not a combination of teaching methods nor the joining of selected fragments of existing instructional strategies, but the bringing together of abstract psychological and linguistic features into new arrangements. **EPQ ED**

71–30   Gorosch, Max. Goal-oriented modern language teaching. *Publication 1* (Copenhagen School of Economics and Business Administration, Language Department), 1 (1970), 67–83.

An analysis of language needs must precede a goal-oriented modern language system. If curricula and techniques are not governed by objectives they will be governed by examinations. It is known that some employers set a low level of requirements because their own standards prevent them from appreciating higher levels. Enquiries into existing post-school foreign-language teaching may only help to preserve existing routines. Such analyses should be supplemented by a systematic study of trends of development with a view to innovation. [The Federation of British Industries' 1964 survey of language needs is quoted and its findings listed.] A Swedish survey

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was carried out in 1968 on the need for French by law students. One result of such surveys is that the demand for oral skills in the 'fifties and 'sixties is now seen to be turning to a greater demand for written skills. Innovation cannot be introduced into commercial language programmes unless it is certain that this will be acceptable to employers. If no remuneration is offered for greater proficiency this will mean that fewer candidates will apply for longer courses.

Means by which innovations required by users can be projected on to the field of research and training are: (1) the setting up of some sort of committee on research and development in modern languages such as was set up in Britain, (2) provision of further-training courses in an institutionalized form, students returning from their work at regular periods to their former place of training, (3) provision of examinations in modern languages with further-training centres providing the examinations and diplomas. Such diplomas need international recognition. [Bibliography.]　　　　**EPQ ED**

71–31　Leeson, R. The exploitation of pauses and hesitation phenomena in second language teaching: some possible lines of exploration. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **8**, 1 (1970), 19–22.

There is a growing body of experimental evidence on the importance of pausing in speech. The points of agreement and difference in the nature, distribution and duration of pauses between a native speaker and a language student might serve to diagnose individual weaknesses so that concentrated remedial teaching can be focused on those points.

Three types of pause are noted: (1) controlled, (2) involuntary because of semantic or syntactic complexity, (3) involuntary because of psychological factors such as tension or shyness. Only the first two types are of interest for language teaching. Structure pauses of the first type will produce clear speech and ease of listening and help students to organize their flow of ideas with readily comprehensible segments. Such pauses should help them to overcome anxiety when asked to fill a blank section of tape in a language laboratory with

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their own spontaneous speech. The second type of pause will be noticeable for its unnecessary and unnatural occurrence and should indicate a weakness of lexis or syntax that needs attention.

Analysis and measurement of pausal phenomena might be used in the evaluation of student performance under test conditions and might form the subject of part of a battery of fluency tests and scores. Such measurement could furnish a less subjective opinion of the oral fluency of advanced students than is the case with many of the methods employed at present.   EPQ ED

71–32   Wackwitz, Gustav. Texte im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Texts in foreign language teaching.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 1, 1 (1970), 21–35.

It is easy to speak of using texts in language teaching but this may mean using artificially prepared sentences contrived to fit the grammar and lexis being taught or authentic excerpts of the foreign language. Authentic passages are ideal but it is difficult to find something simple and free from the jargon of one field or another. The economical style of modern German literature is very suitable for this kind of textual excerpt.

Once selected, the function of such texts is to extend lexical and syntactic knowledge. They should not only be carefully examined but also be used for reading and aural comprehension so that the student may learn to acquire information from foreign print. Another function of texts is to serve as a basis for creative speech and writing. One cannot learn to speak and write in a vacuum. Contextual methods are essential. A beginner has no memory in the foreign language and the text is therefore all that he has on which to base his utterances. He must know exactly what it is about, hence the need for visual aids to be seen not once but constantly in teaching with audiovisual methods. As the learner progresses and amasses more structures there comes a point where his knowledge must be 'contextualized' in grammar and a minimum of terminology must be inculcated. Reading and writing serve to fix the knowledge which has been acquired orally. Work with the printed text is a great help

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to memory. Specific work can be: (*a*) *explication de texte*, (*b*) working over the contextually presented utterances, (*c*) phonetic practice by reading out loud, (*d*) practice in deriving information from the texts, to be tested by questions which immediately follow the reading.

Students of German are frequently adults who will require technical and professional information from texts. At an advanced stage students need to be grouped according to their aims.

(430) EPQ ED

TESTING

71–33   Bonheim, Helmut. Objective testing in English studies. *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **19**, 4 (1970), 191–200.

No single test can cover all the different capacities needed for mastery of a foreign language. In a conventional examination it is very hard to test the pupil's grasp of small units of knowledge. An objective test can include many more questions and will give a more complete picture of what the pupil knows. [Example of tests covering literary history, language skills—synonyms, critical terminology, figures of speech, multiple choice comprehension questions on a text.] Marking standards vary considerably with the conventional, translation type of foreign-language examination. Objective tests make possible rapid and uniform marking and more time is left for marking essay papers. Wherever a small sample can fairly be expected to mirror accurately a large area of knowledge, objective testing can be fairly used.   (420) EPQ EHP

71–34   Hill, I. L. Multiple choice testing of the recognition skills in French. *Babel* (Melbourne), **6**, 1 (1970), 12–16.

Reading and writing are still the most frequently tested foreign-language skills. The testing of recognition skills of reading and listening are illustrated here by objective multiple-choice methods. [Examples given.] Questions on reading passages are in English so that ability to express oneself in the foreign language is not tested

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at the same time as ability to understand. An analysis is provided of the correct answers and distractors chosen by the students, to show the thought that has to be given to providing suitable distractors. It is concluded that preparing and analysing such tests individually is too heavy a burden for any teacher and that a testing centre is needed from which items of guaranteed reliability could be obtained as needed.

For too long dictation has been the only means of testing listening ability and it tests knowledge of spelling and grammar as well. Listening comprehension lends itself to the multiple choice technique of testing. Pictures can be used, the student selecting a sentence which accurately describes the picture. The aural comprehension passage still has a place for the more advanced students when foreign language retention is also being tested.   (440) **EPQ EHP**

71-35   Robinson, Peter. Towards a basic procedure in the composition of second language tests. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **8**, 1 (1970), 49-58.

The article is concerned with tests to evaluate aptitude to learn another language, categorize what has been learnt and diagnose error and difficulty, classify students into homogeneous groups, and predict and reveal progress. A brief analysis shows what points each type of test is intended to cover. Selection of material for the tests will be directly related to the level of the student. An objective or non-objective form for students' answers has to be chosen. The name 'objective' is considered a misnomer as an objective test may not be more reliable than a non-objective type. The most pertinent criticism of multiple-choice objective tests is that the resulting evaluation is entirely passive. The grading of difficulty of the questions and the ordering of them are also determined by the make-up of the group and by the situation in which the language will be used. Correction and standardization procedures are noted and also the possible application of the test results.   **EPQ EHP**

71–36   Rowe, H. M. Language testing at universities. *Babel* (Melbourne), **5**, 2 (1969), 14–17.

Foreign-language teaching at university level should aim at complete communication with the native speaker, and testing should reveal the extent to which the examinee has acquired a set of habits that corresponds to the competence of a native speaker. The familiar testing devices of prose composition, essays, and prepared lecturettes should be examined to see exactly what they test. There should be consistency between teaching and testing methods. If the aim is comprehensive use of the foreign language, the examination should be comprehensive which will usually mean an increase in the time given to the testing of audio-lingual skills. Tests should be as objective as possible. Specific aspects to be tested should be assessed as separate items. Though ability in isolated items does not indicate overall ability to handle the language there must come a stage when the student can handle all aspects such as phonology, morphology, syntax, stress and pitch patterns at once and a certain proportion of marks may go to overall impression as well as to specially selected language points. Too much in university language teaching is still tradition-bound and haphazard.   **EPQ EHP EMT**

TEACHER TRAINING

71–37   Gibb, George. CCTV: some guide lines for the future use of videotapes in professional training. *Education for Teaching* (London), 81 (1970), 51–6.

Since 1968 when the Department of Education and Science circulated its views on the development of closed-circuit television in colleges of education, consortia have been forming so that videotapes can be interchanged between colleges. An experimental commentary, designed to draw the attention of students to lesson structure, teaching techniques and supplementary visual aids, was superimposed on a videotaped recording of classroom teaching using unit 16 of the Nuffield German course *Vorwärts*, and was found to be effective. Comprehension of general principles may be made

easier if such tapes can be presented in series. Tutors have welcomed this and subsequent videotapes on teaching with the same course. They afford an opportunity to present an audiovisual course in action which can lead to discussion on different language-teaching systems, comparison of audiovisual and other courses, and comparison between the Nuffield and other audiovisual courses. Students gain confidence by seeing an experienced teacher in action with an audiovisual course. A common experience is provided and tutors can focus on the basic problems. It may be that exercises of analysis should be kept to the third year of a course and that videotapes should be used in the first two years only to give vicarious experience of a classroom situation. Series of videotapes can help to break down the idea that there is one perfect way of teaching a subject.

EPQ EKF

TEACHING METHODS

71–38   Chastain, Kenneth D. A methodological study comparing the audio-lingual habit theory and the cognitive code-learning theory – a continuation. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 4 (1970), 257–266.

After the first year of a comparative study of students learning Spanish, some by the audio-lingual and some by the cognitive code-learning method, it was found that those who had studied by the cognitive method had higher reading scores while doing as well if not better than the audio-lingual students in other areas. The progress of these students was followed as they continued in second-year Spanish. Many of them, for a variety of reasons, dropped out before the end of the second year. From the results obtained [details given] it was concluded that neither method is uniformly better for all students in all language skills. The implication is that the best of both methods be combined into a synthesis for all students or that the student be guided into a method which best suits his particular abilities.   **EPQ EL**

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71–39   Cook, V. J. The creative use of language. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **8**, 1 (1970), 5–8.

Audio-lingual teaching methods have been criticized in part for neglecting the creative aspect of language use. Techniques that make use of habit formation and stimulus–response association, expressed in dialogues and structure drills, appear incompatible with creative use. The strict language control of drills can be gradually relaxed yet both the psychological justification and the classroom techniques for achieving this remain unclear and hardly discussed. Possible development phases are games, and semidrills where one aspect of the sentence is controlled while another is left free. It remains to be seen whether such activities can be developed to a pitch where they can overcome the apparent contradiction between the creative use of language and most present-day second-language teaching techniques.   **EPQ EL**

71–40   Shepherd, W. Everitt. An experiment in individualized advanced French. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **3**, 3 (1970), 394–9.

An Arizona high school has shown that advanced French can be taught on an individual basis within the standard class period. In place of the traditionally lecture-oriented class, material to be learned was divided into units and grammatical rules and skills were itemized within each unit. Students kept a personal file of their own progress. Considerable flexibility was permitted in the selection of reading material and in the amount of time required to complete a unit. An examination could be taken on the unit when the student felt he was ready. Although the programme was student centred the burden for its success was heavily on the teacher. He had to be capable of a healthy relationship with his students. The preparation of the units and supervision of progress was very demanding. Given a willing and able teacher and sufficiently mature students such a system could be made to work well.   **(440) EPQ EL 973**

71–41   Valdman, Albert. Toward a better implementation of the audio-lingual approach. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 5 (1970), 309–19.

There has been much criticism of the audio-lingual approach but these criticisms are unlikely to lead to corrective measures because they do not indicate fundamental flaws. It has been assumed that formal language learning does not differ substantially from the child's learning of his mother tongue, but it is doubtful whether there is any direct relationship. A study of models constructed for natural second-language learning – the type of learning that immigrants go through – would be valuable. Generative-transformationalists claim that audio-lingual materials are based on the superficial aspects of language, and they reject the view that grammar rules are derived inductively from linguistic data. The audio-lingual approach is also criticized for viewing language as a closed system. 'Mim–mem' sets of drills are pseudo-language activities. The successful audio-lingual courses introduced in the armed forces during the second world war were directed at highly motivated students in classes of no more than ten, with up to thirty hours of instruction per week, using native speakers and a variety of teaching aids. Students were frequently streamed into homogeneous groups. None of these criteria held when the methods were transferred to the normal classroom setting. Audio-lingual instruction in the classroom today should be organized around two central components: the display session (conducted by the teacher and/or a native speaker) and the presentation device which would be a modified version of the present language laboratory and would make use of programmed materials. [Both of these are described in detail.] A foreign-language classroom is envisaged as a comfortable room, provided with books, magazines and easy chairs suitable for reading and dialogue practice – a place in which to 'behave' the foreign language.

The teacher should not be expected to produce his own materials as this requires more time than he can afford. This should be done by a team of authors comprising practising teachers and others with experience with learners. The teacher himself needs a high degree of sophistication in disciplines such as psychology, sociology

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and educational technology so that he can participate continuously in the improvement of the various components of the teaching context.   **EPQ EL**

71–42   Van Abbé, Derek. Motor-skills in language. *Visual Education* (London), May (1970), 36–43.

As a basis to the teaching of languages, the subject of language as a means of communication is viewed historically, noting some of the theories on the origins of human speech. The degree of motor-activity in the twin processes of speaking and listening is then examined and illustrated with reference to contemporary psychological study of the subject. Finally, language is considered as clichés (covering a selection of available sounds and structures) designed for automatic acquisition and use. Language, considered as a collection of clichés, can lead to the marginally useful tourist phrase-book which provides one-way communication and leaves no room for emergencies. It can also lead to such helpful devices as fundamental vocabularies and carefully structured courses. These devices alone are unhelpful, however, unless the motor-skills of phraseology have been taken into account, hence the development of drills to instil automatic reaction to standard linguistic situations. In the final stage of language learning the pupil has to move from parrot-like repetition to the creative use of words and structures.   **EPQ EL**

CLASS METHODS

71–43   Read-Collins, Nicholas. Introducing situational learning. *TEFL* (Beirut), **4**, 1 (1970), 4–6.

A teacher who is accustomed to providing his classes with situational language experience may wonder how to begin. The article shows how situations may be created by such activities as jobs performed regularly by monitors and a chart recording the rotation of jobs. This can help to practise compound nouns, dates, use of *who*, use of the future and past forms, use of *any*, *can* and *can't*, *could* and

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couldn't, enough, while and *when* (using simultaneous activities), tag questions and many other expressions. Accidents can provoke the use of an expression such as *has just*. [A verbal description and picture of how to prepare a chart recording activities is provided.]

EPQ ELD

READING

71–44   Kaye, Gene. Individual work cards for the beginning of reading. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 18 (1970), 16–22.

Reading cards, such as those used for six-year-olds learning to read their mother tongue, can be successfully adapted for teaching reading in a foreign language. Every child is active and can work at his own pace. If there are different levels of attainment in the class, cards can be adapted to suit individual needs. Some cards are intended for use before a textbook is introduced; others can be used alongside a textbook. Cards are particularly useful for pupils learning a language with a script different from their own. [Nine pictures show the different types of card and the points which can be practised with them.]   **EPQ ELD ASP**

SPEECH

71–45   Damoiseau, Robert. La correction des fautes dans la classe de conversation. [Correcting errors in the conversation class.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 70 (1970), 15–17.

Too much correction by the teacher can inhibit lively conversation in class. Those who tend to talk too much can be freely corrected but the timid should experience as little interference as possible. The stage which the pupils have reached will also affect correction technique. At an elementary level 'conversation' will be little more than the repetition of dialogues. With intermediate pupils who are capable of speaking for themselves, even if incorrectly, it is possible to use the trick of pretending to be deaf and repeat the student's

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remark in a correct interrogative form. The student will confirm, usually repeating the correct construction in so doing. At advanced level the same trick can be used, or the teacher may note one or two particular categories of error without interruption, and present a classified study of the errors at the end of the lesson. Another possibility is to tape-record the conversation and to play back the recording to individual students or to the group afterwards. After twenty minutes of conversation some ten minutes may be spent in this way. The teacher may later prepare some structural exercises for practice in the language laboratory based on a dozen or so errors made in conversation and at a suitable level for the students concerned.   EPQ ELD ATD

71-46 Debyser, Francis. Applications de la dynamique des groupes à la classe de conversation. [The application of group dynamics to the conversation class.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 70 (1970), 11-15.

An understanding of certain basic principles of group dynamics can help to solve difficulties encountered in conversation classes. Such principles are: (1) the establishment of a communications network, (2) the functioning of this network, (3) the removal of psychological obstacles to easy communication.

For a conversation group the ideal size is calculated to be six or seven students and one teacher. Students will be hampered in talking spontaneously and to each other by habits acquired in formal classes. The teacher, without dominating the group, will have to play a considerable role as leader. A variety of psychological attitudes is discussed, any one of which may inhibit pupils from speaking in the group.   EPQ ELD ATD (EGV)

71-47 Wheeler, J. A. Developing oral fluency. *Babel* (Melbourne), 6, 1 (1970), 7-11.

Haphazard methods will not enable a pupil to become fluent. Grammatical patterns and lexical items have to be practised. Even

the pattern drills and sentence variations of audio-lingual materials do not lead automatically to free expression. It seems that insufficient consideration has been given to fundamental relationships between language and thought. There are two levels of speaking activity: one of language manipulation and another of selection of language to express personal meaning. Drills are therefore insufficient; pupils need practice in conversational responses and also in the vocal production of longer sequences of thought. Dialogues are the best means of introducing oral activity to juniors. The more able pupils will become capable of constructing their own conversations. Question and answer work can be removed from the textbook context and based on the pupils' own lives. Language games and retelling stories widen oral activity. At a more advanced stage a pupil must be given a topic he wants to talk about, appropriate to his level of maturity. Situations must be structured in which the pupil may not only answer questions but also ask them and agree or disagree with what the previous speaker has said. Mistakes must sometimes go uncorrected in the interests of fluency. A series of provocative conversation topics is suggested which will make the pupils want to speak. For many topical subjects, they will, however, lack the relevant vocabulary, idioms and structures and these have to be taught first at a simpler, more controlled level. This can be done by questioning on a closely related subject or by studying a newspaper or magazine article.   **EPQ ELD ATD**

71–48   Raz, Hana. The teaching of structures as a step towards correct and fluent speech. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 17 (1970), 10–13, and 18 (1970), 11–15.

Even at advanced stages, speech is vital as a means, whatever the ultimate aim of a course. Correct and fluent speech depends on the speaker's command of the structures, lexis, and phonology of the language. Teaching of lexis must be subordinate to the teaching of structures, which require more systematic and intensive practice. Choice of structures and of situations to present, practise and apply them must go hand in hand. Automatic drilling

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is of little value unless the student can adapt the patterns to his own purposes.

Each structure must be taught in several steps: presentation, initial practice, generalization, thorough drilling with gradual relaxation of control, and application. A test is required to show whether the structure has been acquired. Presentation must be memorable, and should include an element of drama. [Examples are given.]

Repetitive choral drill, well contextualized, is beneficial at every age and stage, and should immediately follow the presentation. Generalization or explanation should be postponed until the pupils are ready for it, and should be clear and simple. Interest is the main thing. A meaningful framework should be built up by using visual aids or a situation. Visual cues include objects, picture flashcards, pictures, sketches, and charts. Pupils should be gradually allowed to choose their own items, for example in pictures, and certain pictures may be interpreted in various ways. Drilling may also be made meaningful by adding a personal element. Dialogues can be artificial and uncontextualized unless pupils are given various possibilities of choice when responding. If exercises are too easy, they may be done without attention to the meaning. The form and use of the structure can be summarized diagrammatically.

EPQ ELD ATD

COMPOSITION

71–49   Arapoff, Nancy. Writing: a thinking process. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington), **8**, 3 (1970), 4–8.

Instruction in writing should emphasize what is unique to writing. Writing involves the selection and organization of experience according to a certain purpose. Active thought is required. Reading is a passive process. The student must learn that writing is to some extent structurally different from speech, in that it has longer sentences. The student should be discouraged from using facts from his own experience which may cause him to think in his mother tongue and translate. Second-hand facts gained through reading will provide him with material in the target language.

It is necessary to control the purpose of the writing. Expository prose lends itself to analysis. It is the only kind of writing the student will need in school work, and teaches a great deal about all kinds of writing. Three types of expository prose are used in school: note-taking (reporting), answering examination questions (explanation), and composition writing (evaluation). Teaching these is a long process through several stages of writing, beginning with a form close to speech.

[The author shows in detail how a short dialogue can be exploited at all stages of writing, and gives two sample lessons to illustrate how learning to write can be an active, thinking, step-by-step process.]

EPQ ELD ATG

COMPREHENSION

71–50   Weyburn, Harry. Teaching a comprehension passage. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 17 (1970), 26–48.

The 'unseen' can be used to teach almost every area of the language. Comprehension means reading and understanding.

Introductory questions which will supply a background and bring in some of the language of the text are first asked, then the questions following the passage are read out to the class, the teacher reads the passage aloud, the students state the main ideas and ask one another questions. A title is chosen, structures are reviewed by means of exercises, words are explained in English. Eventually the class may write a précis, or a short composition on an associated topic.

EPQ ELD ATL

LITERATURE

71–51   Arthur, Bradford. On the art of choosing literature for language learners. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language* (University of California, Los Angeles), 4 (1970), 6–10.

In selecting literary texts the teacher must know his students, the functions literature can serve in the classroom, and the difficulties

inherent in literature. Literature differs from other practice material in three ways: active production is not required; all aspects of the language must be dealt with simultaneously; attention is focused on the story rather than on the language. Literature can help learners to adjust to the culture associated with the new language. Its lexical difficulty does not depend simply on the number of different words but also on their familiarity. Its grammatical difficulty depends on sentence complexity as well as sentence length. Its cultural difficulty depends on the assumptions the author has made as to the readers' ability to grasp the cultural implications of the actions. The individual teacher is the best judge of what stories will suit his class. **EPQ ELD AVL**

TEXTBOOKS

71–52 **Crisari, Maurizio.** Psychological motives in the selection of language teaching material. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata* (Rome), **1**, 2 (1969), 109–16.

One of the most difficult problems in teaching a second language is the selection, based on valid motives, of linguistic material from a wide field. Where the motive for the choice of a certain word is recognizable, this is most often based only on the frequency of use of the word, and fundamental psychological facts implied in linguistic activity, which include syntactic correlation, sentence structure and meaning, are overlooked.

The purpose of linguistic activity is communication. It is clear then that the material used to illustrate grammatical points and to increase vocabulary should also convey correct and plausible information; neglect of this causes uneasiness in the student's mind and leads to an incredulity which can inhibit further useful learning. The motives for the selection of material should, for the attainment of linguistic competence, rest on the combination of meaningful phrases, rather than on the selection of isolated words noted for their frequent occurrence.

On an abstract, psychological level, the construction of sentences operates in a similar manner in different languages, indicating the possibility of an analogous deep structure of languages. Moreover,

certain fixed combinations of linguistic elements are an integral part of the language and leave the student little or no possibility of choice of word: these combinations include idiomatic phrases, the juxtaposition of correlatives, prepositions and substantives. Because the student already possesses an innate understanding of these structures from knowing his own language, it might be reasonable to base the selection of material for second language learning on those elements which, being peculiar to that language alone, will help him acquire a particular knowledge of its distinctive features. Of most importance is the meaning to be conveyed of the word, and whether it is selected for grammatical or lexical exercise; these criteria should be based ultimately on their psychological acceptability to the learner.   **EPQ ELD ELP EG**

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

71–53   Berwald, John Pierre. The videotape recorder as a teaching aid. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **43**, 6 (1970), 923–7.

Although videotape has been used for the training of foreign-language teachers, little has been written about its possibilities as a tool for teaching languages. It offers all the qualities of film, except colour. Technically, it is at present more cumbersome than audiotape both for recording and playback and the various brands available are not all compatible. Videotape could be used for the visual presentation of dialogues, for acting out verb tenses, playlets, interviews. Students take a great interest in seeing themselves on videotape. They are usually anxious not to display bad grammar or poor pronunciation and will take pains to make a good presentation. Two advantages of the tape are that it can be played back with the sound turned off and it can be stopped so that the teacher can ask questions about a 'still'.   **EPQ ELD ELR**

71–54   Rees, Alun L. W. Tailoring tape and slide for question practice. *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 35 (1970), 1–15.

Drills for question structures are usually non-contextualized. A selection of coloured slides can form a context on which the learner,

stimulated by the master voice on a tape, can base a number of questions. Prompts can be given to evoke four types of question: (1) for yes/no answers, (2) for adding question tags, (3) for 'alternative' questions, (4) for questions with 'wh-' words. [Examples given.] Question practice with a slide series can be preceded by a brief description, at which point any unfamiliar lexical item can be explained. Questions can be asked in the normal way, then questions can be elicited from the student and finally a general revision given to increase speed and fluency. [Details are given of script preparation and recording technique.]   **EPQ ELD ELR ATD**

71–55   Walch, C. J. Using a videotape recorder. *Babel* (Melbourne), **5**, 2 (1969), 10–11.

It is a great advantage to a pupil to see language used in a situation. The value of a television language series can be greatly enhanced by the use of a videotape recorder. The teacher is able to preview the programme, assess means of exploiting it in class and follow up the material presented. Having seen the programme he may decide to delay its use until certain difficulties in either vocabulary or phonetic material have been dealt with. A suitable time for showing the programme can be chosen and it can be repeated. One programme, with the aid of VTR, can be used at different levels of language study. [Illustration of how the same French language programme was used with an elementary, an intermediate and a leaving class.]

EPQ ELD ELR

FILMS

71–56   Richards, Brian. Films in the classroom. *Journal of English Teaching* (Tokyo), **3**, 6 (1970), 424–8.

Anything which can give a student a context for the language he is studying is useful and documentary films provide a very effective way of doing this. Colour documentary films are usually more appreciated than black and white. In addition to providing back-

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ground, films give a student a chance to come to grips with the foreign language in action. It can be objected that films in class hours take up time which could more usefully be spent in conventional studies. The teacher must decide what his students need most. Japanese students usually know very little about Britain. Documentaries on student life, cities, the countryside and sport prove popular. Films lasting more than thirty minutes are best avoided as they can be tiring. The sound track of films made for English audiences may contain literary quotations or references to customs which will baffle students. The teacher should see the film first and make notes on points which may puzzle students so that these can be explained first. One technique is to show the film without sound track first, the teacher providing a running commentary. The film can then be stopped and the students can ask questions.   **EPQ ELD ELV 952**

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

71–57   Ager, D. E. Advanced students in the language laboratory. *Visual Education* (London), May (1970), 13–15.

The 'advanced' student is difficult to define. He is still capable of a variety of errors. He will be highly motivated but he should not be bored with repetitive or mechanical work. He wants to be able to use his language to explore aspects of the civilization of the speakers of that language. Remedial work on pronunciation is often necessary at this stage and the laboratory can be used to give practice though not to diagnose errors. Tapes to be worked at individually are more useful than an integrated course. Students can be directed to these to practise a weak point in grammar. Grammar can now be taught in close connexion with semantic expression. Means of expressing emotion, such as amazement, can be practised. At this stage it is important to cultivate fluency. Correction becomes virtually impossible. Description and narration replace drills. The work, as in a conversation class, is still artificial, but it is possible to put laboratory students in situations which they might not meet in a conversation

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class or even during residence abroad. The laboratory will also function as a library providing recorded lectures, sound broadcasts, excerpts from political orators and so on. **EPQ ELD ELY EMT**

71–58 Coggle, P. A. Zu Fragen eines effektiven Übungssystems der Sprachlaborarbeit im fachsprachlichen Unterricht. [On an effective system of language laboratory drills in teaching scientific and technical language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **7**, 1 (1970), 111–21.

The use of the laboratory at three levels is discussed. At a basic level the laboratory is useful to technical and science students for the comparison of written and spoken forms of individual words, translation and self-correction. A student can work alone and the lack of a meaningful context is unimportant here. At the intermediate level important vocabulary and structures are given to enable the specialist to pick out the main theme of an article. The laboratory can provide self-administered drills for learning and recognition in other contexts. Recordings by native speakers aid comprehension of intonation, etc., and can improve reading speed. The advanced level includes aural comprehension, reading, speaking and writing. The author believes in a common basic course in the everyday language for all specialists, with dialogues, structural drills and guided conversations, using the laboratory under constant supervision. Mechanical substitution and transformation drills are of no value here without a context for the meaning. The specialist graduates to language work in his own technical field. Texts are recorded and compared with the written form, certain items practised and questions posed in the mother tongue, followed by translation in both directions of important words and phrases. Simplified texts giving the main argument are used and gradually, by substituting complex structures which have been practised, the original text can be mastered. Understanding is then tested. Difficult structures need extra drills, and aural comprehension work with note-taking and summarizing can also be included. The final stage is guided conversation with

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the student taking one role, or two students working together with key words, or the production of a monologue from key words.

EPQ ELD ELY ANG

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71–59   Larsson, B. Zu Fragen eines effektiven Übungssystems der Sprachlaborarbeit im Deutschunterricht für Fortgeschrittene. [On an effective system of language laboratory drills in teaching German to advanced students.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **7**, 1 (1970), 102–111.

Swedish school authorities stress the oral aspect of language teaching. The language laboratory is recognized as a vital aid to individual learning, but to be effective good material is needed. From autumn 1964 to June 1969 a school experiment was conducted to define the role of the language laboratory in foreign language learning. The experiment sought to develop model lessons and ways of integrating the laboratory into other language work, and to gain experience on technical aspects of laboratories. [The author reports on model lessons and methods with students having 3–4 years of German.]

There are two clear groups of lessons: drills for aural comprehension and oral productive drills. [Extracts from a series of dialogue drills on idioms are given.] Structure drills should include only those in common use and should be based on realistic situations which call forth automatic correct responses to varied stimuli. [Examples with illustrations.] Pictures can be used for summary exercises. The difficulties of standard responses and unambiguous stimuli in summary and situational language drills are pointed out but the most demanding tapes are those teaching debating and discussion. Literature lessons in the laboratory allow students to work at their own pace and to talk unselfconsciously about their reactions to a work. [Examples.]

Ad hoc lessons made by teachers often lack the variety of professional recordings, so interest must be maintained with lively situations and clear instructions. Sources for aural comprehension lessons are indicated and the two uses of the laboratory discussed:

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as a central transmission point and as a library. Students should be told about methods of work and taped lessons should fulfil certain specified demands.   **(430) EPQ ELD ELY EMS**

71–60   Roeske, Elfriede. Probleme bei der Differenzierung in der Sprachlaborarbeit des englischen Anfangunterrichts. [Problems with differentiation in language laboratory work for beginners in English.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **17**, 1 (1970), 52–60.

After the preliminary work in a beginner's language class some pupils will start laboratory work with a far greater grasp of essentials and a greater ability for abstract thought than others. It should be possible to group the pupils and let them work with tapes at three differentiated speeds, suggested here as basic tapes, tapes for an intermediate stage and specific achievement tapes. Ideally, in spite of allowing for three grades of ability and providing work to suit, the class should be able to complete its course having covered the same ground. [Details are worked out in terms of German pupils of *Hauptschule*, *Realschule* and *Gymnasium* ability with specimen texts from tapes.] The choice of material for the grades of ability may be partially guided by the use which the pupil is likely to make of the foreign language after leaving school. Any tests should be so constructed that the group as a whole can answer them.

(420) EPQ ELD ELY 943

71–61   Ross, L. Improving the effectiveness of language laboratory work. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **8**, 1 (1970), 25–35.

Although an automatic, native-like response is the goal of language laboratory drills, there is a danger that the student will not attend to the meaning of what he is saying. This can be prevented by asking multiple-choice questions and providing a variety of model answers, short and long, on the tape. Once a dialogue has been heard and repeated it can be heard again as a narrative before questions are

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asked about it. Language-laboratory work should be consolidated as soon as possible by follow-up exercises in the classroom. If the classroom can be the same room this is an advantage, as thirty minutes is about the maximum time for which students can concentrate in the laboratory. Modern equipment, dispensing with booths, makes the changeover easier. Structure drills which do not follow too regular a substitution pattern help to keep the student alert to the sense of what he is saying. [Further illustrations are taken from the A-LM Russian course.] When students are doing structure drills, the teacher's interruption is best made by 'telephone' communication. A suggested time-plan is given for an hour's laboratory lesson using both the laboratory and classroom procedure with an advanced class. The teacher's presence in the laboratory is justified when he is actively participating in laboratory work and making direct contact with the students.   **EPQ ELD ELY**

71–62   Swales, J. Language laboratory materials and service courses: problems of tape course design for science students. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **8**, 1 (1970), 37–40.

There has recently been a rapid increase in the number of language laboratories in developing countries. Usually it is in speaking and writing that university entrants find most difficulty. Commercially produced materials are likely to be unsatisfactory for those students who are primarily interested in acquiring sufficient English to facilitate their studies in other subjects and have little interest in England or in social contacts. In these cases laboratories are only successful where the staff using them is willing and competent to produce materials for their specific needs.

A suggestion for linking laboratory work to class work for science students is to ask them to illustrate by diagram an experiment described on tape and later to write up the experiment using the diagram. Fifteen-minute tapes drilling selected aspects of English can be made to include a 'deliberate scientific mistake' which the student is expected to note and report. Devices such as these [other

examples given] can maintain attention and interest for students whose main interest lies outside the field of language.

EPQ ELD ELY ANG

71–63   Tiggemann, Werner. Traditionelle Unterweisungsformen und Sprachlaborarbeit. [Traditional teaching methods and work in the language laboratory.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **17**, 1 (1970), 41–52.

Various special courses have been held in Germany to instruct teachers in the proper use of the language laboratory. [Lists of subjects covered in these courses.] Those taking part at first tend to be overimpressed by the technical side, but soon scepticism sets in, particularly with regard to questions of teaching and method. How should language laboratory instruction be integrated with classroom teaching? What tapes and books should be used? Many teachers are resorting to preparing their own tapes.

Communicating in a foreign language can only be learnt if realistic situations are created that prompt the pupil to speak, and if action and language response are linked in his mind. A detailed integrated work schedule is needed by the teacher to decide how to prepare sessions in the laboratory and how to consolidate the skills acquired. [Example of such a work schedule given.]   **EPQ ELD ELY**

ADULT STUDENTS

71–64   Loveland, C. I. An experiment in audio-visual language teaching. *Adult Education* (London), **43**, 1 (1970), 15–21.

In an institute of further education a beginners' German class was without a teacher. One of the staff undertook the experiment of learning himself and guiding the class through an audiovisual course. Recorded here is the progress made by the class and the reactions of adult learners to this unfamiliar teaching method.

EPQ ELD ELR EMV

IMMIGRANTS

71–65   Rudd, Elizabeth M. Language for immigrant children. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 260–9.

[The author describes the origin, nature, and use of the *Scope* materials for immigrant children in Britain.] Many immigrant children find informal teaching methods unfamiliar. They often need to acquire some of the basic manual skills and concepts English children gain in the infant or early junior school. Primary-school teaching and the teaching needed by recently arrived immigrant children are similar. Language must be taught as part of a larger experience. The view that children can sort out the language themselves if they are given a stimulating environment has not been justified. A firm core of language must be built up systematically. An over-rigid structural syllabus would not be helpful, but the teacher must have a detailed language-teaching scheme. The children can be helped to communicate as they need to. Language must be introduced and practised in action. In the *Scope* materials, the patterns that form the essence of the language programme have been chosen for their situational relevance. Many patterns are first introduced as isolated examples. Several tenses can thus be introduced, in different situations, at about the same stage, and built upon by substitution and variation later. The vocabulary goal and input must depend on a variety of factors. Language practice is given through games and dialogues related to current activities, and these forms of practice help rhythm and intonation.

More needs to be known about the grammar and lexis of the teaching-language of secondary school teachers, about the corresponding registers required from the pupil, and about the language of school subjects. The extent and nature of first-language interference requires study for the various mother-tongue groups. As important as grammatical errors are errors of appropriateness of language and behaviour. Much more needs to be known about the interests and worries of immigrant children on arrival and as they settle down.

EPQ ELD ENT

ENGLISH *See also abstracts* 71–33, –61.

71–66 Adekunle, Mobolaji A. Towards a realistic approach to problems of English instruction in West Africa. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 269–78.

A realistic approach should start with a consideration of the status and uses of English in West Africa. English is the only widely used foreign language among many local languages. It is used as a medium of instruction, the language of administration, the literary language, and a language of international communication. It takes precedence over local languages as the vehicle of scientific, technical, sociological and economic information. In offices, old-fashioned English is used in writing but not in conversation. A hybrid form of English is used in West African literature. The various projects resulting from international co-operation have brought West African countries into contact with dialects of English. An independent form of English should be developed for conversation.

There is no well-defined objective of language instruction. Competent language teachers are scarce. There is a shortage of adequate teaching materials. Syllabuses and examinations are unrealistic.

West African pidgin English hampers English teaching. In some situations there is also a psychological block to the learning of English.

Research into English and West African languages must be encouraged. Specialist language-teachers must be trained, especially for the primary schools. A West African centre of applied linguistics is needed. **420 EPQ ED 966**

71–67 Berndt, Rolf. Transformational generative grammar and the teaching of English. *Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik* (Leipzig), **18**, 3 (1970), 239–61.

Learning foreign languages has become a necessity for the majority of pupils but the time available for foreign-language teaching has not increased. Language teaching, therefore, has to become more effective and draw on the resources of philosophers, psychologists

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and technicians as well as pedagogues in the search for new and better techniques. The results of some twentieth-century linguistic research has been applied to language teaching but the latest developments in linguistics are still insufficiently known among teachers and have not been adequately investigated with regard to their potential usefulness for teaching. This is not the concern of linguists but is a task for those working on methodology of foreign-language teaching. [The article presents the principles of transformational grammar stressing that varieties of language may be traced back to principles of linguistic organization based on intrinsic properties of the mind (deep structure).] Teachers are very much concerned with the selection of appropriate sentence types for their teaching purposes and to achieve this it is necessary to find objective criteria for the best solutions to the grading and ordering of grammatical material. Transformational generative linguists can provide the teacher with valuable information on these criteria. [A survey of basic sentence types follows, illustrated with English examples derivable from them.] No pretensions to full coverage of the deep structures in question are made, but it is hoped that the material presented will give new insights to the teacher of English.

420 EPQ EL

71–68   Campbell, Russell N. English curricula for non-English speakers. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language*, (University of California, Los Angeles), 4 (1970), 93–8.

Non-native speakers of English in the United States include university students, secondary school students, non-university adults, and children entering elementary schools. American ideas on second-language acquisition have been developed mainly through experience with the first group. The special problems of the secondary school student have been ignored. The adoption of methods used at university level is inappropriate. Either full-time English-language programmes must be developed for these students or academic courses in their own languages must be given parallel with the English instruction. University-oriented programmes are also

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unsuitable for adult foreigners attending evening courses. Instruction leading to mastery of some skill or trade could be given in the learner's own language. Young immigrant children's education could be initiated in their native language. [Difficulties in doing so are discussed.] English is best acquired when it is used as the language of instruction. [The author also discusses possible causes of the relatively poor educational performance of Mexican-American and Navajo children.] The basis of research should be broadened by taking the findings of psychology, sociology, and education into account.   **420 EPQ ED 973**

71–69   Davie, H. C. M. Reported speech – fact and fable. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 235–40.

Many teachers see reported speech as a matter of learning and applying rules to uncontextualized sentences written in direct speech. The student performs tricks on these sentences, and there is little or no transfer to real-life situations. The rules are usually untrue and unhelpful. They deal with changes of person and tense, etc., and are often inapplicable. The patterns of reported speech are simple, but frequently confuse the student because they are different from those of direct speech. Reporting verbs are not always the same as those used in direct speech. The tenses used in reported speech are not determined by mythical rules for 'conversion'. The uses of modals, changes in pronouns, and changes in words descriptive of time and place depend on the context of the report.

It is useless to teach the rules as rules. Any drill on reported speech must be contextualized.   **420 EPQ ELD AK**

71–70   Garwood, C. H. The teaching of English to the non-English-speaking technical student: (2) relating the structures to the contexts of situation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 244–50.

The teacher of English can emphasize the structures appropriate to scientific thought and method. Science seeks to make universally

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valid statements and to make the facts and terms of these clear. It seeks precise specification. It searches for truth through a number of related procedures. Accounts of experiments and processes, and simple scientific description, give identifiable sequences of structures. [The author specifies the structural frameworks used in these four types of writing.] Modifying structures, the simple present, the modals, and subordinate clauses are also common.

The teacher may select and grade the structures according to the students' level and can lead on from training in simple concrete language to training in abstract language for reasoning.

420 EPQ EL ANG

71-71   Girard, D. The special demands on English in Europe today. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), **9**, 3 (1970), 71–5.

English is the mother tongue of 250 million speakers all over the world, and the official language of many ex-British colonies. For many others it is their main or only foreign language. [Tables show percentages for languages taught in the lycées and for all secondary schools in France.] Many pupils have no time to learn a second language and in any case it is better to have a mastery of one language than a smattering of a few. The main problem is how to ensure the efficient teaching of that one language.

Travel and mass media have helped to account for the development of language teaching all over the world, and since the second world war the United States' political, economic and scientific lead has obviously been attractive. This is sufficient to make young people in Europe choose to learn English rather than any other European language. Language-learning is no longer for the élite but for the masses. This means that a working knowledge of contemporary language is required. In trade, industry and research there is a great need for English. Most young people need English at a basic level for simple communication. Some will want to go further and use English for a specific (usually scientific) purpose, but specialized vocabulary is best taught intensively where it is needed.

Research should be undertaken in common by the countries

concerned to determine short-term objectives and long-term aims. Similarly a common core of scientifically oriented English should be established, from which a great number of specialized courses could spring.   **420 EPQ ED**

71–72   Hatch, Evelyn. More problems for the elementary school ESL teacher. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language* (University of California, Los Angeles), 4 (1970), 87–92.

Insufficient attention has been paid to the questions: what items should be taught to young children for comprehension rather than production; what standards of mastery should be expected from young children; is the same sequencing of structures appropriate for young children, older children, and adults? There is much in English which native English-speaking children do not master at an early age. [The author gives examples of noun plurals, negation, pronouns, mass and count nouns, comparatives, irregular pasts, two-word verbs, conjunctions, relative clauses, passives, causatives, conditionals and indirect questions.] Teachers of English as a second language should be aware of the language of the native English-speaking child, for it may be another source of interference with the language learning of the ESL child.   **420 EPQ EMR**

71–73   Pendlebury, A. C. Testing vocational English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 254–260.

The term 'vocational English' refers to the teaching of specific vocabulary connected with certain occupations together with basic English patterns and structures. The testing of this aspect of English should be integrated into a language-training course. Only one aspect of any area of learning should be measured by each question. Tests should be suitable for objective scoring and should be easily administered. [The author discusses listening, speaking, reading, and writing tests of the student's knowledge of the names of things, of the meanings of words describing activities or events, of the characteristics of objects, and of the meanings of words.] There is at present a lack

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of originality in tests used in language teaching. Testing can be fun: a variety of techniques is available.   **420 EPQ EH AN**

71–74   Reid, Charlotte. Evaluation of English texts. *RELC Journal* [Singapore], **1**, 1 [1970] 145–53.

There are too many course-books for English teaching available and awaiting evaluation for it to be possible for an evaluator to test them all by use in the classroom. In Malaysia there is no Ministry directive on course-books; teachers are allowed complete freedom of choice but a textbook bureau has the right to veto a bad text. Much evaluation of old textbooks is carried out by the sales figures. A book which continues to sell well has proved its teachability.

If the evaluator produces a questionnaire for teachers to use he will have in mind a hypothesis of what a good course-book should be. This hypothesis will inevitably be based on some theory of language teaching which may be at variance with the theory of the author, and may result in condemnation of a book for not fulfilling aims it was not intended to fulfil. Ten questions are suggested as fundamental for a questionnaire on which an objective evaluation could be based.

A certain amount of objective bibliographical information should always be provided, but the important thing will be the value judgement. A text must be considered in relation to a particular group of students in a particular situation. A text written for English medium students can be very different from one for students of English as a foreign language. [Pronunciation and reading are chosen as two areas for specimen evaluation questions and treated in some detail.]   **420 EPQ ELP 959.45**

71–75   Stankova, Elena. Practical English phonetics in the language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 3 (1970), 250–4.

The author describes in detail the way the language laboratory is used by the English department of Sofia university to teach English. Attention is paid to stress, rhythm and intonation. One-response

exercises are found useful. A Belgian audio-visual course, based on dialogues and filmstrip, is used.   **420 EPQ ELY AJ 949.72**

71–76   Theivananthampillai, K. A comparative study of the English and Tamil auxiliary verb systems and prediction of learning problems for Tamil students of English. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **8**, 1 (1970), 21–47.

The study analyses the differences between the auxiliary verb systems in English and Tamil drawing attention to Tamil-speakers' difficulties with English syntax. Constructions likely to cause trouble are questions, conditional sentences, the passive voice, indirect speech, and the use of the modal auxiliaries *could, might, should* and *would*.   **420 EPQ AK 494.811**

71–77   Tibbitts, Leonard. Examples of semantic and situational determinants in English intonation usage. *Phonetics Department Report no. 2* (University of Leeds), (1969), 29–41.

Normal written English has no symbols for pitch yet its factual content is intelligible. In speech, intonation reinforces structure/ syntactic boundaries, phonological stress, distinction between function and content words; it clarifies explicit and implicit content, personal and social attitudes. In foreign-language teaching, wide use is made of written texts even for oral practice and, where intonation is concerned, such texts are difficult to interpret well. The teacher's understanding of intonational principles is decisive if the pupils are to reach a high standard of intelligibility and ease of communication in conversation.

Because of the subtleties of intonational relationships, some statements published could be misleading for teachers and learners. In some cases they arise from neglect of the influence exerted by content and situation. [The author examines critically a number of recent statements on intonation by Pike, Kingdon, O'Connor and Arnold, and Halliday.]   **420 EPQ AJP**

71-78   **Trevett, J.** Technical English. *Bulletin of the Language Association of Tanzania* (Dar es Salaam), **2**, 1 (1970), 10–12.

The purposes for which the technical student uses language must be examined and also the style which he needs to master. Most of his reading and writing will be concerned with measurement and description. The passive voice is frequently used. Nouns are preferred to verbal expressions or clumsy passive constructions. 'Formal' is often preferred to simple vocabulary (i.e. *select* for *choose*). This style of writing has to be superimposed on a basic structure. In an ordinary secondary school there is more emphasis on the acquisition of reading skills than on the acquisition of vocabulary but the technical student reads less than an academic student and will need to read more intensively, concentrating on technical material. Technical English is concerned with activity and should be taught as far as possible through activity. Drills should be introduced in some meaningful situation wherever possible, preferably involving activity and the use of simple apparatus. An ordinary secondary-school course in English will not equip a student with sufficient English to study technical subjects at an advanced level.   **420 EPQ ANG**

71-79   **Unger, M.** Semi-programmed material for slow learners. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 17 (1970), 14–22.

Slow learners are apt to be apathetic, to lack belief in their own ability, and to have no learning habits. They are bored by reading texts. [The author describes how to use a series of geographical posters as a basis for semi-programmed reading passages, dialogues, and worksheets.] All exercises are done orally first. Each programme reviews a structure and reinforces points taught earlier. [Example given.]   **420 EPQ ELW ENF**

FRENCH   *See also abstracts* 71–34, –40.

71–80   **Beswick, Unity J.** An experiment in primary-level French teaching. *Babel* (Melbourne), **5**, 3 (1969), 16–19.

Over the five years since 1965 the Department of French Studies in the University of Western Australia has been teaching French to children from primary schools. Classes were held on Saturday mornings for a selected class of 126 children from a cross-section of suburbs and schools. Parents made application for a place in the class for their children, which ensured parental interest in the experiment. The material used laid emphasis on oral instruction with the disadvantage that the pupils had nothing to take home and were cut off from any contact with the material between one Saturday and the next. The children, however, greatly enjoyed the courses and their secondary school teachers later reported that they did not mind starting again from the beginning since different texts and methods are used in school, and that they participated well in classes.

440 EPQ EMR 994

71–81   **Boudot, Jean.** Initiation à l'orthographe du français: (3) enseignement du code. [Introduction to French spelling: (3) teaching the code.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 70 (1970), 25–32.

A frequent mistake made by teachers is to concentrate on the exceptions instead of the fundamentals of the writing system. Dictation provides one of the best means of teaching correct spelling as it only demands the transcription of sounds according to the requirements of morphology and syntax with the addition of certain silent symbols. Such difficulties as rhythms, length of vowel, consonant tension, intonation and language intensity, which trouble a pupil reading aloud, do not have to be taken into consideration. It seems wise, therefore, to teach writing before reading with students who have already assimilated the acoustics of the language. A series of points is suggested for the systematic teaching of spelling, consisting of key-words, grammatical points, and expressions to be learnt by

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heart. The teacher will compose sentences for dictation according to the knowledge of his students. Such sentences will only be of orthographical interest but their meaning must be absolutely clear. Pupils should be taught not to write until they have heard and understood a complete sentence. Correction should take place at the blackboard immediately after dictation and the reason for errors of faulty hearing or insufficient understanding of grammar made clear to the pupil. After dictation the sentences can be used to practise reading aloud, teaching such points as elision of vowels in speech which appear in writing. **440 EPQ ASL**

71–82   Debyser, Francis, Maurice Aupècle, Jean Bertrand, Henri Besse, L.-J. Calvet, Daniel Coste, Pierre Gibert, Francis Grand-Clément, Pierre Le Goffic, M.-T. Moget. Le niveau 2 dans l'enseignement du français langue étrangère. [The second stage in teaching French as a foreign language.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 73 (1970), 6–94.

The second stage of language acquisition is difficult to delimit. It is in classes at this level that students can get bored and can go backwards or merely mark time. The second stage should have its own goals and boundaries, otherwise lively and coherent teaching becomes impossible. [This entire issue, edited by Raphael Nataf, is devoted to the problems of the intermediate stage and the various articles cover content, methodology, cultural background, practical suggestions for exercises and texts for comprehension and expression.] **440 EPQ EMS**

71–83   Reed, J. French vocabulary lists. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **8**, 1 (1970), 11–15.

The teacher using modern language-teaching methods is thrown very much upon his own resources for the production of suitable language laboratory material. Details are given of available lists of vocabulary items in French, which could form the basis of a programmed approach to vocabulary assimilation at all levels. [Bibliography.] **440 EPQ ELY AHT**

71–84   Schiffler, Ludger. Pour des exercices structuraux dia-
logués. [On structural exercises in dialogue form.] *Français
dans le Monde* (Paris), 72, (1970), 9–15.

Structuralism, as developed by Saussure, Bloomfield and Fries, has
had certain consequences in the field of language teaching. The
spoken language of the present day is taught using the pupils'
mother tongue as little as possible, and everything is taught orally
before the student sees the printed word. Grammar is taught
structurally, though no satisfactory structural grammar has been
developed over the last fifty years. All it can mean at present is that
'pattern' or 'structural' exercises are given, and these will continue
to be the most important means of application of any structural
grammar of the future. For the English language plenty of structural
exercises have been worked out but there are not so many as yet
for French. [Detailed comparison is made between *Fundamental
French pattern exercises for the language laboratory* by Pond and
Peyrazat, *Exercices de français pour le laboratoire de langue* by
Hugonnet, and *Voix et Images de France, exercices pour le laboratoire
de langue* from CREDIF.]   **440 EPQ ELD**

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GERMAN   *See abstracts* 71–32, –60.

RUSSIAN

71–85   Dorofeeva, T. M. Некоторые проблемы синтаксической
сочетаемости глаголов. [Some problems concerning the
syntactic combinability of verbs.] *Русский язык за
рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1970), 51–4.

The term 'government of verbs' is vague, and a higher degree of
discrimination is required when defining the syntactic features of
Russian verbs if students of the language are to achieve a rapid
understanding of the verbal constraints of the language.

Two broad types of verb are distinguished: those whose combina-

bility features are subject to a set of constraints involving, particularly, choice of case – a definite number of these exists for each verb [examples] – and those denoting certain positions where the constraints are determined more by the semantic features of temporal, spatial, causal and other such relationships [examples]. The second type is applicable to all verbs, which the first is not, [a table clarifies this point].

In constructing a course for foreigners, both types of verbal constraint, with accompanying subdivisions, must be kept in mind, particularly in the teaching of polysemantic verbs. Individual meanings of all verbs should be marked in dictionaries and other such teaching aids, together with their corresponding linguistic constraints.

491.7 EPQ AK