

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

- 69–35 **De Grève, Marcel.** Nouvelles méthodes d'enseignement de langues étrangères. [New methods of teaching foreign languages.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), 34, 1 (1968), 79–92.

After years of hesitation new methods, and particularly audio-visual methods of teaching, are coming to be accepted, but there is a great diversity of opinions on aims, and consequently on appropriate methods. Commercial interest in the production of language courses has increased, each new course purporting to be 'the best'. Teachers become confused when confronted with such a mass of well-advertised new material. [Pronouncements by Nelson Brooks, Heise, Carroll, Moulton and Guberina on goals and methods are quoted to show the prevalent confusion.] In spite of difficulties, new techniques are being tried out and perfected, particularly audio-visual techniques and language-laboratory programmes offering maximum participation to all the pupils in a class and opportunity for training the ear to reduce distortion of sounds and absorb intonation and speech rhythms, making the acquisition of speech patterns automatic and providing prompt and individual correction of errors.

Warnings are nevertheless given against exaggerated enthusiasm for the new methods, and attendant dangers are noted, particularly the idea that the method in itself can be made to solve all teaching problems. Hard work and adaptation of the material to the situation will still be required. On the question of finding a basic vocabulary for new methods, the author makes the point that one should consider whether a word is basic in the mother tongue or in the target language, arguing, for example, that *bread* is of quite different consistency and importance, in France, Belgium and England.

69–36 Halliday, M. A. K. Language and experience. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), 20, 2 (1968), 95–106.

The school takes for granted that the child ‘knows’ that learning proceeds through language. One acquires the language system through mastering its use, and extends its use by acquiring more of the system. Most adults share a common core of fundamental uses, but this differs from one culture and subculture to another.

Children master the intonational and rhythmic patterns of a language first. These express relations among the participants in a speech situation and also show the structure of the discourse. The young must be given the opportunity to behave linguistically in all the culturally determined roles the language recognizes.

We can abstract from our experience, organized on many levels, different layers of generalization. It is important to find out at what points our conceptualization presents difficulties to the child. The innate language-learning tendency is to generalize. [The author distinguishes between abstraction and generality.]

Linguistic deficiency means an inadequate range of grammatical resources. By the time he comes to school, the child is familiar with the use of language for social control. His knowledge of other uses of language may be deficient.

Many of what are called children’s problems in language are created by adult prejudice. We must learn to listen to language, and especially to the grammar. Teaching is the provision of environments in which learning can take place. Professional linguistic knowledge and the professional knowledge of the educator must be brought together.

- 69–37** **Plastre, Guy.** Réflexions sur la méthodologie audio-visuelle structuro-globale en regard des principes généraux de la didactique des langues secondes (suite et fin). [A consideration of the audio-visual structuro-global method with reference to the general principles of teaching a second language (conclusion).] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 5 (1967), 19–33.

In the first article (abstract 68–294) the selection of material and grading of elements for a foreign language course were considered. The next concern is the presentation of morphological, structural and phonetic elements to give the pupils a clear picture of the semantic and structural form of the language.

Rhythm and intonation should be the basis of any second language course in phonetics. Vowels should be mastered before consonants and single consonants before clusters. At the same time as the pupil learns to write, he is initiated into reading and then composition. Later he will learn to read simplified and then original literary texts. Material can be presented to the pupils contextually and materially, acoustically and then graphically. This may be done by physical demonstration, representation on tapes, films, etc., and by contrastive and explanatory presentation. [The audio-visual structuro-global method is quoted in illustration.] There is discussion of how long pupils should be kept on oral work before they are taught to read and write.

Repetition is the only means of making language automatic but it should be used with a variety of methods so that saturation point is not reached. [Considerable development and illustration of the principles laid down are provided.]

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

- 69–38** **Artemov, V. A.** Основные проблемы современной психологии обучения иностранным языкам. [Basic problems in the contemporary psychology of foreign language teaching.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 1 (1967), 26–34.

Considerations of the needs of non-linguist learners, e.g. those who wish to read in a foreign language the literature of their subject,

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have prompted research in the so-called micro-language—language operating with the absolute minimum of expedients necessary for its limited register. An extensive count of verb forms in English medical literature revealed that knowledge of only the present indefinite, past indefinite, present perfect, past perfect, infinitive, and past participle is essential, and knowledge of future indefinite, future perfect, present continuous, and past continuous is desirable for easy comprehension; of voices, both active and passive are necessary; of moods, only the indicative.

The unity of the linguistic law and the speech act (which rephrases the well-known interdependence of 'langue' and 'parole') is a principle corroborated by present-day experimental psychology, and it should be respected in programmed teaching.

The importance of teaching machines is emphasized and their numerous jobs indicated, including previewing the material, changing the speed of instruction, recording and evaluating students' answers, retaining the information, and using computer techniques for programming.

SYLLABUSES

69–39 Biggs, Patricia. Languages and contemporary studies. *Modern Languages* (London), **49**, 2 (1968), 75–8.

Lanchester College of Technology, Coventry, has endeavoured to construct a programme of study which would illuminate the contemporary period for non-language specialists and at the same time stimulate the linguists. An intelligent understanding of present-day conditions and events depends upon a knowledge of the economic, social and political development of the country, which need not be presented in strictly chronological order as is frequently done with literature. [Some idea is given of the programmes drawn up, with a consideration of textbook problems.]

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69–40 Courts, Douglas C. Linguistics in the college of education. *Education for Teaching* (London), 75 (1968), 65–9.

Fears are expressed that a new grammatical orthodoxy may replace traditional grammar, or that a linguistic approach may lead to neglect of standards in speech and writing. The assumption that those trained in a scientific approach cannot respond on an imaginative plane is fallacious.

Linguistics has close links with other subjects. Many of the differences between various schools of linguistics are relevant only at the more theoretical levels. There is an occasional tendency to label as linguistics any form of language study; but linguistics has been defined as ‘the scientific study of language’.

At present the place of linguistics is in the college of education rather than the school. The teaching of linguistics should be integrated with the teaching of English. It should include a detailed study of some aspect of English structure. The student must realize that grammatical description is a series of statements arrived at after an analysis of written and spoken use.

It does not follow that because a linguistically trained teacher is interested in all forms of language he would not be concerned for standards in spoken and written work.

The syllabus should also include work on semantics. The students should be given assignments, so that they can explore the use of language, and should be trained to observe classroom language.

Many books on child language are linguistically naïve and the linguistic issues involved in reading are often neglected.

In-service courses in linguistics are needed for teachers. Language study based on linguistic understanding is complementary to creativity. Teachers with some understanding of linguistics will have a more balanced and richer approach to the teaching of English.

TEACHING METHODS

- 69-41 **Aarts, F. G. A. M.** Translation and foreign language teaching. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 3 (1968), 220-6.

Opinions differ on the role of translation in language teaching. The learners' proficiency must be considered. [Short account of the Dutch system of examinations in English.] Present examination requirements hinder the introduction of good language-teaching techniques. A new school-leaving examination needs to be designed. At university level, translation should be based on carefully selected texts. These should deal with a limited range of subjects (having an immediate bearing on English studies), be independent narratives, be translatable, and be lexically graded.

Translation differs from free composition in confronting the student with a text from which he cannot escape. It also gives him a better insight into the way in which his mother tongue and English operate, and gets rid of the notion that translation is possible at word level.

A thorough study and analysis of modern English prose texts encourages the student to concentrate on the English text and to develop critical reading habits.

- 69-42 **Rushworth, F. D.** Modern languages in the comprehensive school. *Aspects of Education* (Hull), 6 (1967), 92-106.

The aims in teaching foreign languages in comprehensive schools need to be carefully thought out, and the work of a foreign assistant planned so that the best may be obtained from his or her presence. As motivation is likely to be less strong for English children than for children on the continent of Europe, because we are geographically remote from foreign languages, day-by-day enjoyment and sense of achievement must provide a stimulus to learning. Culture can be provided in everyday terms, such as school-times, colour of buses and letter-boxes, headlines from foreign papers which can be compared with British headlines. Recent work in primary schools has shown

that a foreign language can be taught successfully to children of all abilities. As the number of teachers themselves educated in comprehensive schools will be small for years to come, responsibility for in-service training will rest with the head of department. The syllabus will have to be expanded to give guidance to colleagues in a large department which will frequently contain a new member. [Some detail of possible difficulties is given.] In a large school it should be possible to offer a second modern language to those who want it. The organization of tests and internal examinations will need much more care than in a grammar school.

69-43 Shubin, E. P. О некоторых тенденциях в современной методике обучения языкам. [Some modern trends in language-teaching methodology.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 6 (1966), 2-14.

This survey introduces criticism, mostly unfavourable, of present-day American methodology. The author disagrees, for example, with the emphasis on semantic patterns in which words are treated as independent elements and the disregard for phrases as symbols in their own right. In grammar, the practice of general patterns, however useful for listening, contributes little to the development of speaking habits, for which special patterns are more important. Learning by heart is over-estimated, whereas the role of active synthesis in communication is given little attention. Exercises designed to stimulate synthetic processes in speaking are badly needed to offset the tiresome monotony of the usual drills. Teaching of reading would benefit from a recognition of the written language as a specific system of symbols, and of specific techniques for acquiring skills fundamentally different from skills in speaking. The fashionable emphasis on spoken language is unjustified.

TEXTBOOKS

- 69-44 **Alexander, L. G.** The task of the course-designer today. *Englisch an Volkshochschulen* (Munich), 17 (1968), 263-7.

The theoretical ideas (summarized in abstract 68-124) are now examined in relation to a modern integrated course consisting of three levels. The first would include a student's book, a teacher's handbook and audio material, assuming two hours' instruction a week for a year's course. Material would be presented in multi-purpose dialogues. [Illustrations.] The second stage, providing two or three years' work, would have a student's book and audio material. New patterns would be presented unobtrusively in narrative and descriptive multi-purpose texts and these would be used for oral work and for written exercises. [Examples.] The advanced level would also provide multi-purpose texts for graded intellectual content as well as language, because mental maturity can be a problem with younger students working at advanced level. A large number of linguistic exercises would recall and practise basic patterns. Fluency should be the outcome of efficient and systematic work over a period of years.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

- 69-45 **Borodulina, M. K.** Некоторые вопросы применения аудио-визуальных средств обучения иностранным языкам. [Some problems in using audio-visual methods in foreign-language teaching.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 3 (1967), 43-7.

Audio-visual methods, which owe their popularity to an extensive use of slides, tape-recorders, film, and television, have proved very effective, since the auditory component is introduced as a sound accompaniment to the graphic background and the two-channel perception is mnemonically superior. But there are also serious limitations, because a complex or stylistically marked verbal reference does not lend itself readily to pictorial representation. Consequently, suitable texts are not easy to select, especially for adult audiences. There is no

consensus of opinion about the stage at which written language should be introduced. More data are needed for elaboration of an adequate methodology, and they can be obtained from answers by teachers to a questionnaire, a sample of which, borrowed from P. K. Léon's *Laboratoire de langues et correction phonétique* (1962), is appended.

- 69-46** **Jerman, J. A.** La méthode audio-visuelle ou son et lumière ? [The audio-visual method or 'son et lumière' ?] *Aspects of Education* (Hull), 6 (1967), 55-74.

The article reiterates the basic theories of audio-visual and audio-lingual methods, which embody fundamental changes in the notion of language learning. A wholesale re-training of teachers is needed. Reasons for such a statement are examined by studying various sentences embodying misconceptions about or wrong reasons for adopting new methods. The background to modern courses is considered. Advice is given on the handling of unavoidable repetitive choral material. The change to audio-visual-lingual courses is considered to be a radical one and, unless prepared for a totally different kind of teaching technique, the teacher would do better to ignore the 'revolution'.

- 69-47** **Fleming, G.** Sprachpsychologische Erwägungen zu der Erarbeitung einer Bildgrammatik des Französischen. [Some psychological observations on the production of a picture-grammar for French.] *IRAL* (Heidelberg) 6, 2 (1968), 111-26.

It is essential for a foreign-language learner to understand the meaning of both spoken and written utterances in that language. Mechanical pattern drills do not serve this purpose well, but structures can be effectively taught by means of a clear, unambiguous picture or series of pictures. A well organized picture provides the learner with maximum stimulus to speak. It is to some extent a substitute for the context of situation. Mother-tongue interference is neutralized. [The method described in this article is illustrated from French.]

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

- 69-48 **Gurvich, P. B.** Программирование коммуникативных упражнений для развития устной речи. [Programming communication exercises to develop spoken language.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 2 (1967), 32-42.

Some basic concepts of programmed teaching, such as feed-back, terminal behaviour, irrelevant decisions, etc., are discussed, and the various techniques are demonstrated in samples of programmed texts, mainly German. Promptings (direct or masked) and clues (verbal, pictorial, or symbolic) appear to be useful devices to gear the responses into required channels, particularly in advanced texts; however, to ensure active participation of the students, branching of the programme, which emerges from two different answers to a question, should not be excluded. In conclusion, an example is given of a loose algorithm which, if programmed effectively, would allow a series of responses with a high communication content.

- 69-49 **Mueller, Theodore H.** Programmed language instruction—help for the linguistically ‘underprivileged’. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 52, 2 (1968), 79-84.

Several pilot studies have shown that students with average or below-average language aptitude derive most benefit from programmed learning. The essential conditions are minimal steps, individual learning pace and immediate reinforcement. The instructor's role is changed. It is now his responsibility to see that what has been learnt is applied in communication. Homework can be done with a programmed book which gives necessary explanations and provides additional drills. Further testing in 1967 confirmed the higher standards and lower number of drop-outs when University of Kentucky students were taught by programmed language instruction.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 69-50 Cammish, Nadine K.** Using the language laboratory in advanced language teaching. *Aspects of Education* (Hull), 6 (1967), 125-38.

As yet little work has been done on material for advanced learners in a language laboratory. Nevertheless, some work has been done on comprehension (using such material as foreign news bulletins), and oral essay, which challenges a student to understand a complete text and reproduce it orally. Leeson's article on 'Oral composition with advanced students' (abstract 68-132) is quoted and also work on the teaching of French at an advanced level done in the Department of Education at the University of Hull.

- 69-51 Meiden, Walter and Joseph A. Murphy.** The use of the language laboratory to teach the reading lesson. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 52, 1 (1968), 23-5.

It is difficult to make a truly useful laboratory exercise to accompany a reading lesson as its purpose is more general than laboratory drill on grammar. It should, however, (1) test the student's knowledge of the material read, (2) give him an opportunity to hear the foreign language and in this way increase his ability to understand it, (3) afford him a means of improving his ability to speak the language, (4) make him more familiar with certain vocabulary items and idioms. 'Either-or' questions require a higher level of understanding than 'yes-no' questions and are just as successful in eliciting a reply which corresponds to that given on the tape. They introduce discrimination but still within controlled language. These can be followed by simple information questions where all cues are removed and a certain mastery of both structure and content is assumed. Taped questions can be followed by the same questions in class, which are then turned into indirect form as directed dialogue. Variations on these basic exercises will be limited only by the teacher's imagination.

TEACHING MACHINES

- 69-52** **Ruplin, Ferdinand A. and John R. Russell.** A type of computer-assisted instruction. *German Quarterly* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **41**, 1 (1968), 84-8.

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) in German was first used with students at the State University of New York during 1965-6. The students were tested by the Modern Language Aptitude test at the beginning of the course and the Modern Language Achievement test at the end. Three hours a week were devoted to direct-method class teaching and two were spent in the language laboratory which took charge of spelling, dictation, translation, vocabulary teaching and several other items.

In conjunction with the written CAI programme there are tapes and a slide projector and the student works through a typewriter-like keyboard, checking his answers against the machine.

Ear training is conducted through minimal-pairs drills, German/English and German/German. There are pronunciation exercises with immediate play-back for checking against the native speaker item by item. The whole process offers the student a programme of forced and supervised study; he may not proceed until he has done an exercise correctly, but he can opt to skip a drill if he has shown proficiency. Thought-provoking tasks help to alleviate the boredom which is prevalent in conventional laboratories. The CAI is not intended to replace the present laboratory but there is room for both and the CAI laboratory could teach reading and writing as well as oral comprehension and speaking. Progress was found to be good, particularly among the less able students.

- 69-53** **Adams, E. N., H. W. Morrison and J. M. Reddy.** Conversation with a computer as a technique of language instruction. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **52**, 1 (1968), 3-16.

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) can supervise student performance and monitor, record, analyse and summarize data about that

performance. It may also prove worth while in group and individual instruction because it makes possible better standardization of supervision, presentation and testing. [The article emphasizes concepts and methods of the CAI laboratory rather than giving details of the programme features which are under frequent revision.]

TEACHING IMMIGRANTS

69-54 Malpass, C. All by chance (1). *Remedial Education* (London), 3, 1 (1968), 35-9.

The author summarizes his teaching experience with various types of class, including classes of immigrant children, and outlines a one-term intensive English course for teachers of immigrant children, at primary and secondary level respectively. The two schemes of work are divided under such headings as 'number: daily routine', 'physical activity: bi-weekly routine', and 'centres of interest'.

SPEECH

69-55 Schäfer, Hans-Wilhelm. Variationen der normalen Sprechgeschwindigkeit — Überlegungen zur Arbeit mit Tonbändern in der Grundstufe für Anfänger. [Variations in the normal speed of speech—thoughts on work with tapes for beginners.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), 17, 4/5 (1967), 114-22.

Tests were made from radio broadcasts to find the average speed of speech in varied circumstances such as poetry reading, sports reporting, street dialogue, the results varying from 150 to 300 syllables per minute. Within these limits an ideal speed is sought for beginners in a foreign language to listen to taped lessons. Too slow a speed results in distortion of sounds and upsets the natural rhythm. [A detailed study of Nieder's laboratory drill tapes to accompany Schulz-Griesbach's *Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer* is made with this in mind and general conclusions are drawn.] The student will take longer to understand a quickly spoken sentence containing several units of

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meaning, and he will need a correspondingly longer gap on the tape in which to make his reply. Lip-movements may show that he is repeating the sentence again to himself in order to extract the meaning. Sentences containing many short words will be more difficult to understand than those containing fewer but longer words. Beginners have to learn to distinguish many new groups of sounds and learn to reproduce them. In so doing they need to form an oral image of the word. The written word will help the learner to distinguish one or more words in a sound combination he has learnt, but it can only be an aid. In order to learn to read the pupil must have already a good idea of the sounds of the new language. Gradually speed can be increased to a quite normal pace. Should slower speech be required, sentences containing emotive elements, which would automatically slow down native speech (i.e. surprise, disappointment, doubt), should be used. Speech speed is very dependent on the co-ordination of technical aids and traditional teaching. [Bibliography.]

PRONUNCIATION

69–56 **Kjellmer, Göran.** On active versus passive proficiency in pronunciation. *Moderna Språk* (Saltsjö-Duvnäs), **62**, 2 (1968) 136–43.

Both active and passive proficiency are needed in the study of pronunciation of a foreign language. Till now passive proficiency has not been much tested in the schools because adequate tests have not been available, and because it was felt that the two skills developed together. If that were so, it should be possible to test passive competence, grade the results by computer and, in a few days have a complete and objective record of the pronunciation deficiencies of each student. In 1967 the English department of the University of Göteborg endeavoured to produce such a test. The result, intended for language laboratory use, was in three parts: one dealing with the phonological system of English, one with rhythm and intonation and one with the pronunciation of individual words seen in the light of the relation between spelling and pronunciation. The test was adapted for com-

puter marking and given to about 270 students in the department. Most of those who took part were also given an 'active' test on the same occasion, which required them to read printed text material aloud. Their performance was recorded on tape and marked later. Correlation between the two sets of results was not perfect but a band on the graph showed 79·2 per cent correlation. The department is now trying to discover why it is that some students have good perception but poor production. The answers may lead to modifications of the passive test. One practical result is the drawing up of language laboratory programmes to link up with the separate units of the passive test, providing practice where it is shown to be necessary.

VOCABULARY

- 69-57 Forrai, Ernest.** Theory and practice in language teaching. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 24, 3 (1968), 49-50.

By scientific methods of recording it has been established in seconds and days how much repetition, and at what intervals, is necessary to ensure mastery of vocabulary. Applying the results in a classroom becomes an art rather than a matter of applying scientific theories of learning. Nevertheless it is obvious that massive practice at the initial stage of learning is needed, that this will decrease and no other repeated recalls are needed; indeed time spent on added repetition at a later stage would be wasted. It is suggested that the teacher keep a note of vocabulary and grammatical rules, with the date of presentation, to ensure properly distributed practice and revision.

- 69-58 Frumkina, R. M.** Словарь-минимум и понимание текста. [Minimum word-lists and comprehension of written texts.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1967), 15-21.

The rationale for a frequency-based minimum word-list is that a comparatively small number of words will cover a text sufficiently to guarantee satisfactory comprehension. The subject of investigation is

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the correlation between the comprehension of a given portion of words in a text—which represents a proportion of coverage of the text by the minimum word-list—and the comprehension of the meaning of the text itself. This should define the optimal value of a minimum word-list.

[Disadvantages in methods of investigation are discussed from the viewpoints of language medium, texts and questions on the texts.]

Artificial words are chosen in preference to gaps, and texts in the native language instead of the foreign language—thus ensuring the subjects' thorough knowledge of all other lexis and all grammar and syntax.

A preliminary experiment points to a necessary 75 per cent coverage of the text by the minimum word-list to ensure understanding.

In the main experiments, two texts each with¹ three variants of coverage showed that satisfactory understanding (the basis of which was taken to be seven-tenths of full comprehension) was subject to 65 per cent coverage.

Reckoning satisfactory understanding more reliably at eight-tenths of full understanding, 70 per cent coverage by the minimum word-list is the requirement, which in turn is satisfied by a minimum word-list of 2,000–2,500 words.

READING

69–59 Modiano, Nancy. National or mother language in beginning reading: a comparative study. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Champaign, Illinois), **2**, 1 (1968), 32–43.

All children, including members of linguistic minorities, need to become literate in their country's national language but it is debatable whether minority group children should first learn to read in their mother tongue or in the national language. Preference has varied from one country to another, but France, Australia, Canada and the United States have used their national languages exclusively for their linguistic minorities.

A study was carried out in three tribal areas among Mexican Indians.

In Federal and State schools all reading instruction had been in Spanish and in Institute schools teachers had taught reading in the vernacular. In all three areas a larger proportion of the students in the bilingual Institute schools were selected by their teachers as being able to understand what they read in Spanish. An examination of additional data showed that there was a higher proportion of literate adults in hamlets served by the much newer bilingual schools. Studies in Ghana and the Philippines bore out these findings. The Mexican study also showed that the Indian teachers' ability to communicate with their students and their attitudes toward them may have outweighed their poorer training or educational level.

COMPREHENSION

69-60 **Krupnik, K. I.** Понимание текстов, содержащих неизученную лексику при самостоятельном чтении. [Comprehension of texts containing unprepared vocabulary in reading without the use of a dictionary.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 6 (1966), 22-8.

To establish the suitability of English texts for Russian readers, English words and idioms were contrasted with their semantic equivalents in Russian and a code was devised to grade the various difficulties in straightforward comprehension. To test the criteria on which this code was based, approximately 5,700 words were divided into five groups according to difficulty of comprehension and texts utilizing the vocabulary of particular groups were used for tests in reading efficiency. It was shown, for example, that in respect of the 'easiest' group an inclusion in the text of up to 20 per cent of words unknown to the informants entails no significant impairment of comprehension, but only a proportionate reduction of reading speed. Tests of this kind are expected to provide information necessary for the study of the so-called potential vocabulary of the learner, i.e. vocabulary which can be inferred from the text by guessing.

69-61 Payne, Kenneth. The comprehension passage. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), March (1968), 20-4.

In the past comprehension passages have been chosen to fit examination requirements and have tested rather than exercised and helped students. Composition rather than comprehension has been tested. The clarification of ambiguities and unsuspected implications as well as of the *facts* narrated in the passage could produce lessons of lasting value. [Illustrations.] The bulk of the class-work will be oral, the teacher first reading the passage to the pupils so that they can concentrate on understanding the text. The traditional question-and-answer work can be varied by multiple-choice questions (which would have to be multi-copied) or by the teacher making statements about the text which the pupils then have to examine for accuracy, sometimes needing a single 'yes' or 'no' and, for more advanced pupils, sometimes requiring more detailed explanation of the variation in the statements. The use of written expression work is legitimate provided that it is recognized as expression rather than comprehension work. Some translation of particular words or short lists may help at the surface level of understanding. The more primitive form of questioning asks straightforward questions that can be answered by direct reference to the text. This has very little value, but a more sophisticated type of questioning conceals reference to the text by using different words and constructions, thus enabling the student to show his skill in manipulating the language. This can also be discussed and prepared in class and written answers given for homework.

69-62 Shillan, David. Phrasing and meaning. *Meta* (Montreal), 13, 2 (1968), 47-51.

Teaching and learning a foreign language involves success in the four skills of reading, writing, understanding speech, and speaking. Translators should be taught that mastery of the spoken language will help considerably in fully understanding written English, partly because of the lack of rigidity in punctuation. A native reader draws on experience of speech to feed into his silent reading the tones and

stresses of a lengthy but unpunctuated sentence. Rhythm is an outstanding characteristic of the English language. This fact is illustrated from bilingual material in governmental English and Canadian French. A good method of translation is phrase for phrase or, better still, quatrain for quatrain.

The Cambridge Language Research Unit has shown that a 'telegram' type of summary of a passage is usually contained in the principal stress points—in English at or near the end of each tone unit. [Bibliography.]

TEACHING LITERATURE

69–63 Edwards, Paul. Meaning and context: an exercise in practical stylistics. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 3 (1968), 272–7.

The author describes in detail a series of tutorials designed to help university students to understand better the nature of literary language. He led them, by many examples, to the view that even two identical statements can mean different things in different contexts, and that words which are 'poetic' in one context may not be so in another.

ENGLISH

69–64 Davies, Norman. Fluency in oral English. *Języki obce w szkole* (Warsaw), **60**, 3 (1968), 158–63.

The most vital aspect of language competence is fluency, with its component elements of stress, rhythm and intonation. Vowels and consonants can be slightly distorted but communication will still be accurate. Feelings of pain, surprise, admiration, etc., are usually communicated by intonation alone. Examples are given of the variety of meaning conveyed by the intonation of the English words 'good morning' and 'yes'. Rhythm can be indicated by Morse signs or better still by musical notation, though such notation can be for the teacher alone. The pupils will remember the sounds. Eight practical hints on teaching fluency are given.

- 69–65 Faial, Edite.** Teaching the passive. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), March (1968), 3–11.

The article suggests an approach to the teaching of the passive, and warns teachers against provoking difficulties. The passive structures and then passive usage of both English and Portuguese are examined independently. [Plentiful examples for both are given.] There is widespread use of the Portuguese active-reflexive in place of English passive. Passive constructions in English with 'had' and 'got' have no equivalent in Portuguese. Sentences with both a direct and an indirect object which have two possible transforms into the passive in English present only one possibility in Portuguese. Idiomatic usage will affect passive sentences in both languages. Although a specific passive construction may be the same in English and Portuguese, the verbs used in it are not necessarily the same. Warnings are given about order of presentation of material leading to the teaching of the passive and about practice of the form by the transformation of active sentences, which can be done in theory but which may produce stilted and unreal sentences. Hundreds of sentences in both languages are almost always passive and hundreds more are almost always active. Artificial conversions can be avoided by using the same method as is used for practising present and past tenses in the active form. Paired sentences can be used for tense contrasts in a natural context and the time indicators *used to be* and *going to be* can be introduced in the same way.

Familiarity with the passive will increase as students read more because the form occurs most frequently in written English.

- 69–66 George, H. V.** Tall, taller, tallest. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 124–9.

When we use *taller*, or *tallest*, we do not necessarily have in mind the idea of *tall*. *Taller* implies a comparison with a given height. When the comparative form is used, more than two persons or things may be involved. The use of the superlative does not confer additional superiority: *strongest* does not mean *more strong than stronger* or *more strong than strong*. We may not need to contrast *-er* and *-est*. The

superlative can be presented first in an attributive position. The comparative form can have the meaning of 'different in a specified sense'. In this case there will be no parallel superlative.

[The author discusses the presentation of comparatives and superlatives, suggesting that the *-er* form should be presented without *than* at first, and *-est* without *of the* or *in the* construction. He considers article usage, and restrictions on adjuncts after *-est*. He quotes frequency figures to support a particular sequence of presentation.]

69–67 Hansen, Klaus. Zum Verhältnis von Schreibung und Lautung im modernen Englisch. [The relationship between the written and spoken word in modern English.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 12, 6 (1968), 202–8.

The discrepancy between the sound of English words and their spelling is not so great as is sometimes imagined, as the differences refer to a fairly small number of exceptions of very frequent occurrence. The learner will not discover this, however, until many years have passed unless he receives some direct guidance. Emphasis on the forty-four phonemes of the English language is helpful, as is also attention to the fact that two or more letters may constitute a grapheme. Reference should be made to the long and complicated history of English as a written language and the fact that the written form has often remained while pronunciation has changed. It should also be noted that the written language not only corresponds to the phoneme but also to the morpheme level. This is particularly noticeable in the case of the voiced and unvoiced endings of the past tense (for example *waited*, *played*). [Detailed examples of the relation of the written language to phoneme, vowel grapheme, consonant grapheme and morpheme are appended, formulated into rules to which the author admits some exceptions, adding that further thought would have to be given to the methods of introducing such information into the classroom.] Text-book writers might well bear these points in mind and, for the early stages of learning to read and write, endeavour to present and group words which have uniformity of sound and spelling.

- 69–68 Heuer, Helmut.** Zur Motivation im Englischunterricht. [On motivation in English teaching.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 2 (1968), 33–7.

A questionnaire was given to pupils in Dortmund and Hagen schools in the summer of 1967 to try to discover (1) their reasons for wanting to learn English, (2) how often in a week they would like to study English, (3) what they liked best in their English lessons, (4) whether they had yet been able to make use of their knowledge, (5) whether they had seen an English newspaper or periodical, (6) whether they would like to visit England, or (7) whether they would prefer to visit the United States, (8) what use they might later make of English. Reading was, surprisingly, the favourite aspect of the English lesson, with the singing of English songs, conversation, and listening to records coming next in that order. By a small majority America was the first choice for a visit, particularly for the boys. The strongest motivation for learning English was for foreign travel, though the best pupils gave use in their future careers as their first reason.

- 69–69 Jones, J. Allen.** English language teaching in a social/cultural dialect situation: (1). *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 3 (1968), 199–205.

Underlying many statements of aims in language teaching is the assumption that there is only one form of language usage to be mastered. It is unscientific to take the view that the non-standard form has no place in the child's world. The eradication of non-standard codes and of the cultural mores they express makes the child feel rootless, ignores the influence of his subgroup and family, and implies the belief that the standard form is the only one with any validity. We are concerned with producing a person who can switch codes as the occasion demands.

The situation created in the (West Indian) classroom should involve experiences external to the child's personal experience. Because of interference caused by the home language, there must be constant practice in the target language. Since the non-standard speaker has

recognition control of the standard form, second-language teaching methods cannot be adopted wholesale.

The English-teacher should aim at developing the ability (*a*) to understand standard English in a range of styles, (*b*) to speak standard English on formal and semi-formal occasions, (*c*) to read silently and aloud, and (*d*) to write standard English.

Among factors to keep in mind are the pupils' ages, the size of the class, whether the class is mixed or single-sex, and what language material has to be emphasized.

Items which present persistent difficulties need to be selected and graded according to ease of learning and usefulness for further work. Pattern drills are the basis of method. There should be emphasis on oral work and reading. As many social situations as possible should be created in the classroom.

69–70 Kirsten, Hans. Zur Darstellung des Gebrauchs einiger Gegenwarts- und Vergangenheitsformen in den Englischlehrbüchern für allgemeinbildende Schulen. [The use of some present and past tense forms as presented in English textbooks for schools.] *Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik* (Leipzig), 15, 2 (1967), 166–80.

German textbooks used in the teaching of English rarely reflect new knowledge about syntax. Examples from volume 1 of *Let's Speak English* (Berlin 1963) show how incorrect some statements are that deal with the past and perfect tenses and with the simple and continuous form.

The author proposes a clearer, more logical terminology: 'expanded form' is preferred to 'continuous form', 'plain form' to 'simple form', and 'pre-present tense' to 'present perfect'. He criticizes the emphasis put on the use of the continuous form as the progressive form; other uses are discussed and illustrated. The continuous form is defined as implying involvement, compared with the simple form which states a fact or an action as seen by an observer. There are misconceptions about the nature and use of the past and perfect tenses, especially the assertion that the past tense is used for completed actions or states and

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the perfect tense for actions or states that extended up to the present time. [Examples are given to disprove these definitions.]

The time notion of the speaker or writer is the main criterion for his choice of tense. When using the past tense the speaker or writer places himself in a period in the past that is separated from the present by a distinct gap. It is this period of time in which the action takes place that is complete rather than the action itself. When using the perfect tense he looks back from the present into the past, without any intervening time gap, the perfect tense being a link from the present to the past rather than the other way round. Temporal adverbs, conjunctions, etc., are investigated and grouped into three different categories according to the tense they require. Finally an analysis of the continuous form of the perfect tense, with illustrations, underlines the difficulties of defining or using the tenses and forms discussed.

69-71 Mohr, Eugene V. Inference expressed by 'should' and 'must'. *TESOL* (Indiana), 1, 3 (1967), 47-51.

There is a need for an efficient description of the uses of 'should' and 'must' for advanced learners of English as a second language. Seven rules are provided governing their use based on the varying cause-effect inferences and simple inferences that these words imply.

69-72 Parry, Sylvia. Teaching handwriting. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 3 (1968), 235-42.

The author describes in detail the steps to be followed in teaching handwriting in English to Israeli pupils. The article is fully illustrated.

69-73 Pearce, Brian. Some non-rules. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 137-9.

Six examples are given of unsound grammar rules learnt by foreign students of English. These concern *among* and *between*, the present perfect and definite time, *going to*, *much*, *too*, and the definite article

before names of countries. In each instance corrective examples and a sounder rule are supplied.

69-74 Pearson, Antony. Reflexions on the use of simplified texts. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 3 (1968), 242-6.

Although most of the books available for secondary school and adult learners are works of literature, the majority of students overseas learn English for vocational reasons or for general education. Outside Europe also the reading public enjoys stories. English is a medium for cultures not our own, and for education, science, and trade. Most foreign students do not need to reach a high level in English. No stigma should attach to simplified texts. A wider range of authors and some non-fiction should be included.

69-75 Pincas, Anita. 'Transformational', 'generative' and the EFL teacher. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 3 (1968), 210-20.

Transformational grammar is a set of language-generating rules which produce acceptable sentences in English. A language-generator such as the brain has these rules built in and produces only acceptable English sentences. It is this aspect of grammar which is generative. The rules can be summarized compactly, in symbolic formulae. Lexical definitions are usually given in a separate part of the grammar. The lexicon is subclassified according to whatever criteria are appropriate. The rewrite rules incorporate information about which classes can combine. Transformational research has made some of its most important contributions in classifying words to avoid semantic unacceptability. Rules can also be given for the morphophonemic component. A distinction is made between deep and surface structure. Transformational grammar groups sentences into kernel sentences, which can be simply analysed into their constituents, and patterns derived from the kernels. Some transformations involve the combination of two sentences or two parts of sentences into one, while others are transformations of one sentence into another. A complete

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transformational grammar lists all the possible lines the generator can follow in producing an utterance. Habit formation cannot fully account for the learner's acquisition of the rules. Transformational grammarians have presented the relationship and interactions between the parts of the language in a concise and logical way, demonstrated that language is not merely sentences composed of parts but also operations performed on sentences, described regularities previously ignored, separated surface and deep structures, and given new sub-classifications of word-types and functions.

Transformational grammar may not only give the teacher a clearer picture of how English works but also help to determine the order in which material is presented to learners, and even the mode of presentation. But the importance of context in learning cannot be over-emphasized. Because some sentences are structural transforms of others, this does not mean they should be taught as such. A grammar does not claim to deal with teaching method.

69-76 **Praninskas, Jean.** The writing skills clinic—spelling. *TEFL* (Beirut), 2, 2 (1968), 3.

As English spelling is admittedly difficult even for native speakers, it is an important part of the language-teacher's job to help his students to learn the proper spellings. Ten suggestions are made for methodology, learning devices and spelling games for use in the classroom.

69-77 **Santhanam, K.** The language policy and major universities. *Education Quarterly* (New Delhi), 18, 72 (1967), 35-8.

The writer examines the recommendations of the Government of India Education Commission on the study of languages and media of education. He agrees with the Commission that each university should use its regional language as a medium of instruction but expects strong opposition to this from some quarters. English, however, is still essential as a link language between the universities and in the present national and international situation is preferable to French, German

or Russian. All students should be proficient and fluent in reading, writing and speaking English. The medium of instruction for linguistic minorities and for technical education should ultimately be the mother tongue. In commenting on the Commission's suggested modification of the three-language formula the author feels that it would be pointless for children in Hindi areas to study compulsorily another modern Indian language as there is little motivation. They should study either Sanskrit or Urdu. Facilities should also be available for teaching Russian, French, German, Spanish, Japanese and Chinese. Finally the author proposes that the abler students from all parts of India should go to one of five or six major universities where the medium of instruction would be English and which would supply the majority of recruits to the all-India and central services. He suggests that such major universities should be devoted entirely to graduate and research work.

69-78 Vodden, Michael. Rhythm and intonation. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 3 (1968), 246-52.

The ability to distinguish aurally between certain phonological features is required as well as the ability to reproduce them. Teaching learners to make certain syllables prominent is more important than teaching the vowel qualities of non-prominent syllables. Stress and length are sometimes confused, and learners fail to co-ordinate features associated with syllable prominence or lack of prominence. One cannot be certain about the rhythm and intonation pattern of an utterance unless one knows the situation for it, and vice versa.

Rhythm and intonation must be taught from the beginning, and principles of selection and grading applied. A relatively careful type of pronunciation should be taught at first. Stress can be isolated from intonation. [The author describes and illustrates two basic intonation tunes.]

Patterns should be taught through situations and memorized by classroom practice. Recorded models are needed.

- 69-79 Walker, Ralph H.** Teaching the present perfect tenses. *TESOL Quarterly* (Indiana) **1**, 4 (1967), 17-30.

The author points out the difficulties foreign speakers of English meet in the use of the simple present perfect and present perfect continuous tenses. He describes in detail the function of these tenses and the confusion that arises in foreign speakers' speech. He suggests teaching techniques to overcome the problem and gives numerous exercises that the teacher could use.

- 69-80 Wingard, P.** For the young teacher. Must revision be boring? *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 173-6.

Important items of language will only be mastered if they are repeatedly practised in new combinations and situations. [The author describes the use of a game, a picture, and an action rhyme to practise the possessive.] Interest is added in vocabulary revision by slightly extending the meanings of the words. In revision exercises the children's understanding of continuous speech can often be developed. [Example of the use of a short narrative to revise the past tense.] A new, tape-recorded voice adds interest. There must always be something new in revision. It should not be left until the end of the week or term, but should be done frequently.

- 69-81 Wingfield, R. J.** English idiom in a second language teaching situation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 3 (1968), 231-4.

[The author takes an idiom to be a group of words whose total meaning is different from the sum of its parts.] Many idioms start with individuals or small groups and gradually become widely accepted. Some remain confined to a group or are no longer used. Some are part of the lexical core of the language. There are metaphorical idioms which are easy to understand. A certain number call for a superficial acquaintance with the social or professional activity from which the metaphor

is drawn. There are also idioms which are culture-bound to one or more language variants. [Examples.]

Where English is used as a second language, a local variant with its own idiom establishes itself. The culture-bound idiom causes the greatest difficulty, and the pupils should not be too much exposed to it.

FRENCH. *See abstracts 69-37 and 69-47*

GERMAN. *See also abstract 69-55*

69-82 Beneš, Eduard. Eine Sonderform von Lehrbüchern für den Fremdsprachenunterricht: das Lehrbuch für Wissenschaftler. [A special textbook for foreign-language teaching: a textbook for scientists.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 1 (1968), 45-50.

Beginning from a note of points made by Hellmich on the content and form of foreign-language textbooks, the author observes that it is also necessary to know the general level of education of the students and what it is intended to achieve. Many people learn German today in order to read literature and follow lectures in their own technical speciality. There will be a difference between books for technical students who are just beginning in their special field and those for advanced postgraduates. [A brief summary of the basic syntactic and lexical knowledge for a postgraduate is given.] 2,200 general scientific or technical words are considered sufficient to give 95 per cent coverage of texts when one adds to them a percentage of international words and words derived from known roots. It should be possible to draw up one general textbook for technical and scientific learners of German. Research fields develop and change too fast for the production of multiple textbooks for varied needs to be practicable. A common textbook would mean that common teaching for a variety of scientific disciplines would be possible and the choice of texts would cover problems of basic general interest. Special terminology could be given in footnotes.

In order to be able to test the learner's understanding of his work it would be necessary to use a book directed towards all students of one mother tongue—translation would then provide a rapid control

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of understanding. Accurate if stylistically unpolished translation is an essential part of a scientist's training in a foreign language. The mother tongue would be used as well as the target language for teaching purposes and a systematic presentation of material with a brief grammatical appendix and exercises for homework would be helpful to a scientifically trained mind. It might also be necessary to cater for those wishing to understand the spoken language and some active use of the language such as letter-writing may also be needed.

The whole plan is based on the assumption that the students will have a beginner's knowledge of the language but the drawing up of a specialized book for beginners in a specific field could also be envisaged, though a special preliminary book would also have to be provided. For a specialist with beginner's knowledge, sixty hours of class tuition should be adequate, with homework bringing the total learning hours to 200–250.

RUSSIAN

69–83 **Leont'ev, A. A.** Теория речевой деятельности и проблемы обучения русскому языку: 1. [The theory of performance and problems of teaching Russian: (1).] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1967), 22–6.

The article presents an analysis of language-teaching methods, and discusses the basic distinction between the conception of speech of Soviet and American linguists and psychologists.

Behaviourism, the so-called 'direct method', and programmed learning all reduce creativity to a minimum. The contemporary Soviet psychological conception of speech is derived from L. S. Vygotsky's theories and the basic 'theory of mental activities' developed by Galperin. According to the latter, man's mental activities derive from his external activities. Not every method of language instruction supports this conception. Grammatical rules can and must be studied only when the teaching method permits them to be transferred from conscious to automatic, unconscious knowledge. The danger inherent in the grammar-translation method results from mother-tongue inter-

ference. According to Vygotsky there are two levels of awareness. One must distinguish between language learning by an infant (spontaneous speech activity leading to an awareness of speech forms as such) and foreign-language learning, where the process is reversed, and the student must be aware of the foreign grammatical system to master it.

In the USSR an attempt was made to construct a bridge to foreign-language learning by getting 8-year-olds to analyse the morphological structure of Russian. The pupils readily understood the concept of changing meaning by altering word forms, subsequently applying this to foreign languages. The experiments indicated the following optimal procedure: functional analysis first of native grammar, and then of foreign grammar, comparison of word formation in both languages, simple syntactic models.

69–84 **Leont'ev, A. A.** Теория речевой деятельности и проблемы обучения русскому языку: 2. [The theory of performance and problems of teaching Russian:(2.)] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1967), 25–9.

The basic problem of foreign-language teaching remains the nature of speech patterns and the method of their presentation. Attempts to use transformational grammar have in recent years simply taken the form of a straight and uncritical application to foreign-language learning of the models of generating speech in the native language and the value of this has been little investigated. There is no evidence to show that the same utterance must always be generated by the same means. It is also not clear which are the kernel grammatical structures from a psychological point of view.

The foreign-language methodologist must (1) investigate the psychological mechanisms of generating speech in both the native and the foreign languages and have a theoretical understanding of these processes as they are seen by Vygotsky, (2) investigate the processes of the conscious acquisition of the foreign language and how its use becomes automatic, (3) review the terminology and methodology of presenting speech patterns in accordance with psychological principles of mastery and acquisition of a second language.

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- 69–85 Malíř, Frantisek.** Der russische Imperativ. [The imperative in Russian.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 1/2 (1967), 11–18.

A simplified methodological approach is discussed for teaching the second person singular imperative in Russian, based on linguistic and psychological considerations. [Tables and word-lists compare the imperative with other moods of the verb, showing the comparative frequency of its five forms and the most commonly used verbs in this mood.]

Explanations of the formation of three main types of imperative, taken from two grammar books, are deemed too complex for teaching purposes.

An experiment performed with artificial words on native Russian speakers to discover the mechanism for forming the imperative revealed that this formation occurred on analogy with other imperatives with respect to the type of verb and position of stress. [Some impossible forms emerged.]

To meet the pupils' need to recognize the imperative orally and use it productively, an algorithm has been constructed from one of several possible methodological variants, characterized by phonetic, graphic and personal verb-ending components. Although this omits irregular formations, it is rejected, with Mulisch's algorithm, as still too complex for mastery by pupils.

By classifying one low-frequency group together with irregular formations, using eight verbs as models for learning and simplifying the question of the root, the author proposes, for Czechoslovakian schools, a simplified algorithm which he claims to be viable for 90 per cent of all imperatives.

SPANISH

- 69–86 Molina, Hubert.** Transformational grammar in teaching Spanish. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **51**, 2 (1968), 284–6.

Transformational grammar can make a powerful contribution to language teaching, but it may have to be used alongside other

grammars. Teachers should use the devices which prove successful in the classroom. The sentence *Juan compra un libro hoy* can be transformed into nine different questions. This is done by change of subject position and by replacement and deletion rules.

Texts such as *Modern Spanish, Entender y Hablar*, and *Audio-Lingual Materials* to a great degree treat structures in an unrelated manner (e.g. the definite article and the third person object pronouns). By the process of deletion it is possible to make students aware of the derivational history of forms (e.g. *Voy a comprar los libros > Voy a comprarlos > Voy a comprarlo*). The systematization of transformational procedures makes the teaching process easier and more efficient.

69–87 Sacks, Norman, P. A correlation of the grammatical sections of 'Modern Spanish' with the visual grammar posters. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **50**, 3 (1967), 500–5.

A list is given of those grammatical points of the MLA course materials project, *Modern Spanish*, which have corresponding *Visual Grammar Posters* by William E. Bull. Each of the parallel sections is carefully detailed with numbered references. There is also a list of points in *Modern Spanish* which have no corresponding visual posters, and a list of points in the visual grammar which are not fully treated in *Modern Spanish*.