

Language learning and teaching

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

70–213 Darian, Steven. Backgrounds of modern language teaching: Sweet, Jespersen and Palmer. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 8 (1969), 545–50.

By means of a brief outline of the work of Henry Sweet, Otto Jespersen and Harold Palmer, the beginnings of modern practice in foreign language teaching are illustrated.

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

70–214 Alexander, L. G. The new grammarians and the language teacher. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 5–11.

Language research sometimes seems to have little connexion with language teaching, but some apparently remote ideas do percolate through. The good teacher and course-designer provide the medium through which the most relevant knowledge finds its way into the classroom. Work on vocabulary is reflected in modern teaching methods. The formulae of transformational grammar, when translated into ordinary language, look like structural grading systems. Laboratory drills are sometimes a failure because the distinction between deep and surface grammar has been ignored. If languages operate in accordance with universally valid principles, regional courses may not be preferable to global ones. Transformational grammar emphasizes the creative potential of language, and this is nowhere more apparent than in literature. [Examples.]

Chomsky's attack on stimulus-response language-teaching methods is harsh and unfounded, being based on a narrow interpretation of the word 'habit'. Language-learning involves the mastery of a large

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number of purely mechanical activities, but stimulus-response exercises are not the only means of communicating language: there are other techniques. Such drills and the creative use of language are not mutually exclusive. Like musical scales, language drills lay down a framework capable of variation.

70–215 Brown, Judith. The Peace Corps and the development of foreign language instructional materials. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington DC), **11**, 5 (1969), 1–3.

Since its establishment in 1961, the United States Peace Corps has trained over 50,000 Americans for volunteer service in sixty-five countries.

Development of materials for language training has been through training contracts awarded to universities and some commercial institutions; through materials-development contracts negotiated with research teams like the Foreign Language Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics; and through co-operation with other government agencies. Although the resultant material is potentially very valuable, wider dissemination is difficult because of the limited appeal which does not attract commercial publishers. An annotated bibliography of materials produced has however been compiled, giving 238 entries most of which cover elementary material, as the Peace Corps believes in short-term intensive training before volunteers go overseas. Specialized and technical word lists were produced. Two basic courses exist, one of regular lesson units with dialogues and drills, and one based on the 'microwave approach'. These aim to teach the most common structural patterns, with a minimum vocabulary giving high-frequency lexical items. Technical vocabulary can be introduced at an early stage. Speakers of over 100 languages are catered for. [List appended.]

70–216 Bruton, J. G. Contextualization. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 76–8.

Contextualization is not difficult in the earlier stages of teaching a language, but in the advanced stages it becomes more difficult to

find situations which permit the introduction of a series of examples of a structure without extreme artificiality. Contextualization can be provided by reading passages, but in most cases practice at a relatively advanced stage is uncontextualized. Exercise materials are often unimaginative and unrealistic, and emphasize unduly the grammatical features of the language. Students should not be encouraged to believe that language operates in a vacuum. It is not difficult to devise tables and exercises which offer choices based on thought instead of on purely grammatical criteria.

70-217 Feenstra, H. J. Parent and teacher attitudes: their role in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **26**, 1 (1969), 5-13.

In the past most of the research into second-language learning was concentrated on the relationship between the student's language aptitude and his achievement. It is only recently that research has been initiated on the attitude structures of the student, his parents, and his teachers in order to ascertain their effect on the student's language achievement.

In studies conducted in Canada and the United States with groups of students learning French as a second language it was found that the integrative motive, i.e. the student's willingness or desire to be like members of the community whose language he studies and to identify with them, facilitates the acquisition of the language in question.

[The general approach and method of these studies are outlined.]

In two of the studies information was also gathered on the parents' attitude. It was shown that children from integratively oriented homes have a positive attitude towards the French language community, and indeed towards any out-group. In similar studies performed among American Indian children learning English the usefulness of the language appeared to be a crucial factor in addition to the integrative motive. Cultural barriers conflicting with the wish to learn English seem to be at their weakest in young children and students in the final grades. In areas where it is impossible to have direct contact with the cultural-linguistic community whose language

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is being learned the role of the teacher becomes very important, since he must act as a representative of that community and present its culture in a positive way.

70–218 Juhász, János. Transfer und Interferenz. [Transfer and interference.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **6**, 3 (1969), 195–8.

People who speak only their mother tongue feel a direct link between the name of an object and the object itself. Beginning to learn a foreign language causes a block against the adoption of a second code and the learner must consciously neutralize the effects of his mother tongue or deliberately use it as an aid. This will not completely remove the difficulties as there is no one-to-one opposition between the codes. Where the habits of the mother tongue can be carried over into the new code there is 'transfer'. If, however, the new code demands changes, 'interference' will result. With some complex lexemes (especially where the mother tongue is very analytical) both transfer and interference operate within the same sentence. From the psychological point of view, transfer and interference are one and the same. The relationship between conscious learning and automatic drilling must be defined by psychology and linguistics together. This means that sufficient elements and structures must first be learned and it is then rarely necessary to make students consciously aware of them. Other structures and elements in sharp contrast to the mother tongue must be consciously explained as this is the only way to overcome the negative interference of the mother tongue. This is a simplification and further modifications are suggested. Context will be important where closely related languages are concerned. Purpose in teaching will also decide how much to explain and how much to drill.

70-219 Mittins, W. H. What is correctness? *The State of Language: Educational Review* (Birmingham), **22**, 1 (1969), 51-63.

Correctness of language has to do with usage, and with conformity to some standard. Occasionally teachers behave as though the categories of language constitute a system as logically closed as that of number and they correct pupils' work as if they were proof-reading. The proof-reader, however, is confined to a written code and starts from an approved text, the teacher is only working towards one. Between this attitude and total freedom of choice lies an area in which current usage is the only arbiter. Yet in the schools some direction and guidance must be given and this should take into account not only linguistic but also social considerations. 'Appropriateness' would be a better term than 'correctness'. Application of such a criterion means that the mind must be cleared of prejudice, the records of the past consulted and present practice noted. Clarity and precision must be defended but not to excess. Above all it means accepting that languages change and that change is not corruption.

70-220 Ort, Barbara A. and Dwight R. Smith. The language teacher tours the curriculum: new horizons for foreign language education. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **3**, 1 (1969), 28-74.

Recent developments in foreign language teaching have tended to isolate it from the mainstream of the school curriculum. A description is given of several attempts at integrating foreign language teaching more closely into the curriculum, frequently by teaching part of another subject in an appropriate foreign language (problems of democracy taught in German, Latin American studies in Spanish). The results are shown to be positive.

- 70-221 Prator, Clifford H.** Adding a second language. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language*. (University of California, Los Angeles), May (1969), 1-10.

In learning the mother tongue the exploratory stage comes first. There follows the imitative stage, in which the child develops a phonological system more and more resembling his parents'. Noise-making is succeeded by one-word sentences. The analogical stage usually begins in the child's second year: the child experiments with possibilities of word patterning. A child does not learn to speak his mother tongue by imitation alone. He internalizes the rules that the grammar of his mother tongue prescribes for the generation of sentences. Finally, there is the stage of formal instruction. It is an exaggeration to say that a child has already mastered his language before he goes to school. But most teachers concentrate on reading and writing.

The circumstances in which the mother tongue is learned cannot be duplicated for the learning of a second language. Less time is available for the latter. The teacher's responsibility is therefore greater. He is responsible also for most of the pupils' language experience. He must use the most economical techniques of instruction. Error must be minimized. The linguistic content must be carefully structured. In special cases the sequence of skills may not need to be hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. As children mature, they tend to become more visually minded and more capable of learning through analogy and generalization. Simple rules may provide a short cut.

- 70-222 Rodgers, Theodore S.** On measuring vocabulary difficulty: an analysis of item variables in learning Russian-English vocabulary pairs. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 7, 4 (1969), 327-43.

Several experiments are described to test the difficulties encountered in learning the meaning of Russian words. Some initial conjectures were made as to variables such as word length, pronounceability, form-class, which might be expected to influence vocabulary pair

learning. It was found that the pronunciation difficulty of the Russian word gave the best indication of the degree of difficulty to be encountered in learning its meaning. A new series of experiments supported this discovery. The relevance of response variables in determining pair-learning difficulty is now being considered.

70-223 Schiffler, Ludger. Geht es ohne die Technik nicht besser im Sprachunterricht? Die Enttäuschung eines 'fortschrittlichen' Lehrers. [Would language teaching be easier without technical aids? The disappointment of a 'progressive' teacher.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **16**, 4 (1969), 420-3.

A teacher experienced in employing audio-visual aids in language-teaching taught a strange class unused to such techniques and discovered that the pupils could not understand the tape and were barely able to repeat any of the text.

In a discussion following this experience the reasons for the failure were investigated and the pros and cons of technical aids in the classroom, in particular the tape recorder, were examined. The technical equipment was not at fault, but the pupils in this demonstration lesson were not used to hearing without seeing the persons talking. Understanding a foreign language without seeing the speaker is, however, essential if one wants to telephone, listen to the radio or watch television or films, and this ability can be acquired by listening to tapes. Texts on tape are spoken with the correct intonation and at the normal speed for the language in question. This speed is inevitably faster than that used by the teacher in the classroom.

The tape recorder allows the teacher to go through exercises faster as well as to liven up the lessons, to which pupils react positively. Despite additional work for the teacher there can be no doubt about the usefulness of the tape recorder.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

70-224 Denham, Patricia A. Tests of aural-oral control of language. *Papua and New Guinea Journal of Education* (Sydney), **6**, 3 (1969), 11-16.

Diagnostic tests for students learning English are useful when the difficulties faced by a group are not known. Remedial courses can be drawn up according to the errors made in the test. Tests to measure the extent of learning are often limited to what has been taught and practised over a short period. The article is chiefly concerned with tests of this second type to measure the control of aural/oral aspects of language. Aural aspects are covered by tests of perception, recognition and comprehension while tests of production correspond with oral work. Competence in one aspect does not automatically lead to competence in the other, though the two skills have sometimes in the past been considered as identical, particularly with regard to phonology. Aural tests are the best developed [details and examples of tests of aural control of vowel and consonant phonemes, of stress and intonation, and of comprehension of a passage]. The most objective tests of language production are at the phonological level and objectivity is achieved by testing only specific aspects. Tests of sentence structure and syntax are not objective and so far no technique has been devised to overcome the limitations of the traditional approach to these aspects.

70-225 Handforth, D. A. Conversation or catechism. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), **5**, 1 (1969), 11-14.

Not only is the practice of demanding a full sentence in answer to a question to be deplored, but also the kind of exercise which demands questions suitable to prompting replies as part of a small dialogue. Such testing by asking for conversation-questions may also prove unsuitable as some pupils may well try to produce a dialogue reflecting English as a living language and not the pattern form set. The examiner is then faced with the classic dilemma of those who try to test more than one skill at a time. As some teachers are also doubtful

of the value of filling-in tests, a suggested contextualized form is illustrated, giving a brief series of sentences forming a context first, followed by short prompts and introductory question words, from which pupils are asked to construct questions.

70-226 Jakobovits, Leon A. A functional approach to the assessment of language skills. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 4, 2 (1969), 63-76.

Work in language testing to date has been oriented towards the assessment of linguistic competence rather than communicative competence. Linguists have generally maintained that the study of linguistic competence *per se* need not concern itself with social-psychological factors and the development of language tests as measures of linguistic skills derives its justification from this position. The adequacy of such a position is now challenged as a result of recent work in linguistics, particularly in semantics. Language 'codes', for instance, applicable to social situations have been recognized.

Three levels of meaning are here distinguished to account for the minimum range of linguistic phenomena involved in communicative competence: linguistic, implicit and implicative meaning. A classification scheme is proposed for identifying the functional elements to be taken into account in the study of communicative competence, and some methodological approaches suggested for developing a testing program designed to assess skills involved in the use of language.

70-227 Nosenko, E. L. Об использовании некоторых темпоральных характеристик речи для объективного установления уровня владения устной иноязычной речью. [The use of certain temporal features of speech in determining an objective measurement of oral mastery in a foreign language.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 5 (1969), 48-58.

The temporal characteristics of normal speech have been examined carefully by various researchers and are seen to fall mainly into the category of hesitation phenomena. Seven principal criteria are evolved

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from a study of these speech characteristics and regarded as measuring devices for assessing the degree of mastery of a foreign language. (1) The absolute speech rate: this is independent of the speech task, tends to grow with practice and may be used as indicator of the ability to link together successive linguistic units in a foreign language. (2) The frequency of hesitation pauses: this suggests that the lower the level of mastery, the smaller the length of phrases between pauses and therefore the greater the number of pauses in any given period of time. A reduction in the frequency of hesitation pauses is noticeable with an increase in the skill of linking phrases together. (3) The contrast of frequency pauses with the absolute speech rate: given a high absolute speech rate, the greater the length of the phrases between pauses—and therefore the smaller the number of pauses in any given period of time—the higher the level of mastery. (4) The length of hesitation pauses in the delivery of a statement (subject to a variety of factors—semantic, linguistic and cognitive). If the length of a pause significantly exceeds the average pause length of a native speaker in the same coding situation, then this is a legitimate indication of a low level of foreign language mastery. (5) The interpolation of pauses: if the somewhat rhythmic alternation of fluent-hesitant periods found in speech in the native language is broken by a large number of hesitation periods when speaking a foreign language, this may point to insufficient mastery. (6) The length of pause after the first member of a phrase has been uttered: this involves the speaker's choice regarding the correct grammatical construction needed after he has begun to speak and indicates his degree of syntactic mastery. (7) Other hesitation phenomena: these may entail such items as rephrasing, self-correction and semantically unsuitable turns of speech.

70-228 Roberts, Christine M. Is CSE French worthwhile?
Modern Languages (London), 50, 4 (1969), 148-50.

[Paper given at a one-day conference on the CSE examination in modern languages, Nottingham 1969.] The Certificate of Secondary Education examination is designed for the less academic pupils of

about sixteen years. From experience in teaching French and entering pupils for this examination as well as the General Certificate of Education, the writer found the CSE was well worth while. It provided a fifth-former of lower linguistic ability with incentive and maintained his enthusiasm for learning. Nevertheless it was felt that the examination placed too much emphasis on comprehension. Even a candidate who achieved a CSE grade 1 pass (supposedly equivalent to a GCE pass) and went on to study French in further education would probably be outpaced by those who held GCE passes. [Difficulties in examining are detailed.] On leaving school, pupils who had achieved a reasonable CSE pass ought to prove suitable trainees in jobs where a limited knowledge of a foreign language was required.

70-229 Roy, Robert R. Rate of output—a factor of oral proficiency. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **26**, 1 (1969), 14-22.

An investigation into the rate of output by people learning French as a second language is used to clarify the nature of oral proficiency. The method of testing and evaluation is discussed.

TEACHER TRAINING

70-230 Hagiwara, Michio P. Training and supervision of college foreign language teachers. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **3**, 1 (1969), 90-107.

The Modern Languages Association of America survey on the training of college foreign language teachers conducted in 1963 indicated that out of fifty-two foreign language departments in thirty-nine universities, nearly 60 per cent offered no teacher training to their graduate assistants and a 1967 survey showed little improvement on this. The article describes the training and supervision of the teaching assistants in French at the University of Michigan. Specimens of two reports are given: one to be filled in by the graduate assistant's

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supervisor on his command of French and performance in the classroom, and one to be filled in by students to evaluate the instructor's teaching skills and the course objectives.

70-231 Rees, Alun L. W. The trainee teacher and his practice class: fifty pointers for the student-teacher. *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 33 (1969), 1-42.

[This special issue is entirely devoted to the subject of the trainee teacher and his practice class, beginning with grooming and general bearing in the classroom, through the details of lesson presentation to a consideration of the class atmosphere, the teacher's sensitivity to it, and the extent to which the pupils benefited from the lesson.]

70-232 Ciotti, Marianne C. A conceptual framework for small-group instruction in high school. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 3, 1 (1969), 75-89.

Once a basic repertory of lexical, morphological and syntactic elements of a foreign language has been acquired, practice is needed in a conversational situation which neither a large class nor a language-laboratory is able to provide. Small groups of five members provide a fundamental social unit. Such groups can be organized as circles, wheels or chains. The circle is more satisfying for social-emotional needs; one of the other groupings, however, provides for leadership and is more appropriate for the completion of a task. An illustration is given for a method of working such a group, led either by a teacher or a student moving gradually from a controlled to a non-controlled stage, and using a cultural narrative as a basis for departure.

70-233 Crystal, David. New perspectives for language study: (1) stylistics. *English Language Teaching* (London), 24, 2 (1970), 99-106.

Traditional approaches to English language study are too restricted in scope to provide an adequate picture of the language. Stylistics

clearly indicates a movement towards a more comprehensive description of English. The concept of style is usually discussed in a literary context, but literary style can only be understood against the background of everyday language. Stylistics studies all the varieties which constitute a language. A variety is a set of linguistic forms which have a regular connexion with a particular social situation or set of situations. Information on varieties is rarely included in courses. People should be trained to respond appropriately to the various kinds of English. An outline is needed of all those features of English which systematically co-vary with situations. Relatively permanent background features include regional, class and temporal dialects. More transient features are connected with choice of discourse, the language-user's occupation, matters of status, the modality of the utterance, and the singularity of the user. Errors are frequently made by learners in distinguishing between norms of speech and writing, between formal and informal speech, and in the observation of letter-writing conventions. Ability to joke and pun in a foreign language is a mark of a high standard of knowledge of that language, as is also an awareness of the stylistic norms in literary analysis.

70-234 Rainsbury, Robert C. Getting meaning into the drill—a few observations and checkpoints. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 4, 2 (1969) 49-56.

Most of the training which teachers receive in the preparation of materials deals with effective ways of presenting formal structures as such. It is now becoming clearer that while we drill the formal element we must at the same time consider semantic aspects. As a guide to the meaningfulness of drills we may ask whether sentences make sense, and if so whether a native speaker would be likely to produce them, whether they are related to the student's daily life experience, whether they cause offence or conflict with the prevailing cultural pattern. The sentences in the drills should relate to one another.

There are certain problems where a semantic approach is obligatory, for instance to clarify the use of *should* and *must*, *I wish* and

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I hope; conditional sentences must be approached from the semantic as well as the mechanical angle. A reaction against the so-called 'linguistic method' of pattern drills is noticeable at present, but there is no need to abandon drills which have proved useful. It is the content of the drills which must be extended and deepened.

70-235 Smith, David G. Contextualisation: towards a more precise definition. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 7, 3 (1969/70), 147-52.

Except at an extremely elementary level language teaching is more effective as a process of verbal reasoning than as a form of conditioning. Structural drills often allow no choice and put too much emphasis on the particular grammatical problem. Language is best mastered from an early stage by selecting the relevant forms demanded by a recognizable situation. [Examples.] A short text recorded on student tapes or given in print will provide a context. Questions must be unambiguous and susceptible of only one answer. The exercises are time-consuming to prepare but they provide examples of language operating in a manner akin to reality. First the pattern to be practised must be decided, then the situations found in which the pattern occurs in speech. It should then be possible to compose a text of five or six sentences upon which a series of questions can be asked, susceptible of logical answer only by a phrase or sentence involving the point at issue. In such an exercise, the answers to the questions would provide intensive practice of the desired pattern while remaining meaningful utterances. The pupil's response will come from the demands of the context and will be more rewarding emotionally and pedagogically than those evinced in most structural drills.

CLASS METHODS

- 70-236 Crymes, Ruth.** Materials and classroom techniques and procedures for teaching English as a second language. *Philippine Journal for Language Teaching* (Quezon City), **5**, 1/4 (1967/68), 60-7.

Teaching methods and materials have their effect on a class after being filtered through a teacher's thoughts and actions, and have to be geared to the different stages of language learning. Most of the research to date has been on the initial stages. Such things as word order, word form and the use of function words can only be learned by repetition, but repetition, even for beginners, can be of connected sentences. Practice can be given in manipulation and in making choices. If students are to master language as communication they must have practice in communication. There is more than habit involved here; intelligence is needed too. Minimal pairs may have more value as a testing than as a teaching device because they rely on acoustic or visual clues only and do not make use of context or intelligence. The development of materials will continue to be a gradual process but our understanding of language learning can be implemented immediately through methods.

- 70-237 Paine, M. J.** The variation of classroom drill techniques. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 34-43.

The aim of the drills is fluency and skill in sentence manipulation. They can be used with almost any pattern. The class can be divided in various ways. The steps of the procedure are stimulus (verbal, visual, or both), student response, reinforcement, and student repetition. [The author gives a considerable number of examples in detail.]

70-238 Raz, Hana. Dramatic dialogues. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 43-6.

Dialogues are often dull and irrelevant. Situations must be created in which the pupils can express feelings. Snatches of real dialogue can be collected, adapted, and classified, and then introduced into classroom dialogues. The initial dialogue must be short, but can be expanded and improvised on later. [Examples.] Dialogues should not be learnt from a text. The teacher should present them dramatically, perhaps with the aid of drawings. The pupils learn the dialogues by choral repetition in groups, then individual pupils take the roles. Dialogues have been successful with emotionally unstable adolescents. Gestures are important. [Examples.] There should be concentrated practice of each dialogue immediately after presentation, and repeated practice in several consecutive lessons. Dialogues may be expanded over a period of years. Once mastered orally, they can give elementary reading and writing practice, and can be the starting-point for advanced written work. Their main value lies in helping the pupils to absorb structures and idioms as they are used in communication.

70-239 Zimmermann, Günther. Integrierungsphase und Transfer im neusprachlichen Unterricht. [The integration phase and transfer in modern-language teaching.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **16**, 3 (1969), 245-60.

The results of linguistic research and research into the psychology of speech and language learning confirm the experience of the classroom that neither pattern drills nor situational exercises alone can lead to good results for the pupil. Three deliberately constructed learning stages should help to achieve full language mastery. (1) The learning of the separate components from which the pattern drills will be built. (2) Practice exercises to transfer independent speech situations into a variety of wider contexts. The pupil must be aware of the field in which a speech situation can be used before he

can use it in a 'new' situation. (3) Moving on from the situations, the pupil must be encouraged to speak freely using one or more speech phenomena and gradually reducing the thematic or grammatical assistance.

None of these stages can be omitted, nor can their order be varied. The acquisition of the ability to speak freely cannot be left to chance but must be systematically planned and checked.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

70-240 Caspi, Bella. Teaching by and with television. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 16 (1969), 6-9.

The number of schools in Israel where teaching is assisted by television has grown very rapidly. Some teachers are doubtful about tying themselves to a programme prescribed both in material and pace, but the aims of a television programme are shown to be inspirational, by providing a variety of situation and conversation which is beyond the reach of a teacher working single-handed without stage properties. 'Enrichment' programmes had to be limited in favour of a direct teaching approach because many students lacked the basic grammatical structures to benefit from such a programme. With a direct teaching series, the teacher's role is of great importance. He makes the link and must see that his class is prepared for the programme and that adequate follow up of vocabulary or structures is provided. Teachers' in-service courses are now provided three times a year to prepare existing teachers to use the forthcoming lessons to advantage. Individual counsellors can visit classes using television and help with problems that may arise.

70-241 Smith, David G. and Peter A. Baynes. Spanish on local radio—Leicestershire's experiment. *Adult Education* (London), 42, 4 (1969), 226-30.

The amount of language learnt in the usual two-hour evening class is relatively small. The language advisers to the Leicester Education

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Authority decided that local radio was a suitable medium for supplementing evening class work. Programmes were constructed for beginners who had not a great deal of linguistic knowledge. [Details of the planning are given.] Preparation of the materials also gave intensive and practical in-service training to teachers. Programmes were first broadcast for the autumn term, 1969.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

70-242 Freudenstein, Reinhold. Die Unterrichtsprogrammierung für das Sprachlabor. [Programmed teaching for the language laboratory.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **18**, 3/4 (1968), 103-12.

The laboratory is not an extra teaching aid in the way that a picture or a record may be, although in many schools it is used in that way. Taped material for the laboratory is of two kinds, for teaching and for drilling. It can be classified as programmed teaching material since all definitions of programmed material can equally well be applied to material for the language laboratory, even though the one usually serves for written work and the other for speech. The main disadvantage when attempting to programme both the teaching and drilling aspects of a language course is that mechanically a laboratory is not sufficiently far advanced to correct students' mistakes. It can only provide a model answer and the student has to be able to make the comparison with his own. For beginners in a language, some direct communication is important and a teacher is necessary. The role of the language laboratory in this case has been the establishment of audio-lingual foreign-language teaching. [Seven principles are stated.] One hour a week spent in a language laboratory and the rest of the time spent in traditional lessons with a course-book is at best an interim measure. Ideally part of every lesson should be spent in laboratory work. Teachers have to be deliberately trained for this kind of work. An individual academic preparation is not sufficient. Architects also have to plan schools with a foreign-language centre providing the necessary space and equip-

ment for team-teaching. Once a certain fluency has been established, cultural background and the study of linguistic problems can be added through the foreign language itself.

70-243 Hook, Donald D. and Gerhard F. Strasser. Die Verwendung des Sprachlabors im Deutschunterricht für Ausländer. [Using the language laboratory to teach German as a foreign language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **6**, 8 (1969), 198-202.

Even though many children may now begin to learn a language with the help of a laboratory it is impossible to find enough commercial tapes to conduct intermediate courses, and advanced courses based on the study of literature, through the medium of the laboratory. Conversation pieces are the most useful for the intermediate course where the aim is to bring the pupils to the point where they can answer questions and summarize stories, playlets or even poems. Making his own tapes can cause great difficulties if the teacher has no native German-speaking colleague to help him prepare and check them, but even if no native assistance can be had it is the lesser of two evils to prepare one's own tapes, rather than let laboratory work go into abeyance. [A specimen text is given followed by three groups of model questions.] Any teacher equipped with a language laboratory will have to be prepared to do the extra work which such preparation inevitably entails.

70-244 Poulter, Virgil L. Computer-assisted laboratory testing. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 8 (1969), 561-4.

Student boredom in the language laboratory may to some extent be removed by frequent testing. Preparation, administration and scoring of the tests requires time but may be done largely by the laboratory director with a little cooperation from the teacher, and the scoring of the tests can be speedily done if there is access to a computer centre. [Details of how to prepare test cards and brief those concerned are

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provided.] The system has been in use at the University of Texas at Arlington for several months and is proving satisfactory.

70-245 Roeske, Elfriede. Drei Entwicklungsphasen der Sprachlaborarbeit: von Stack bis heute. [Three phases in the development of language laboratory work from Stack to the present day.] *Programmiertes Lernen und Programmierter Unterricht* (Berlin), 6, 3 (1969), 125-132.

Although language laboratories have now been in use in West German schools for six years the question of what kind of exercises to use with them is still hotly debated, and particularly the details of their construction. These debates are influenced by three phases of development. (1) Skinner's behaviour psychology which led to the programmed learning of the United States whose principles of progress by small stages in formal linear drills were retained in language laboratory work and associated with Stack. This method was copied in West German schools but it was found that only mechanical reproduction followed and the pupils could not easily transfer the patterns learnt in the laboratory to their normal classroom work. (2) The next step consisted of integrating pattern drill into the context of ordinary textbook lessons and involving decision-making with the slot-and-filler technique. Support for this method came from Firth, from contextualized linguistics and psychology. [Plentiful examples of exercises from the transition stage between these two phases.] Context material began to dominate purely structural material in this second phase. It was then discovered that pupil motivation was still lacking and transferability of speech patterns was still less than expected. The impulse for further development now came from psychology, from information theory, from communication theory and from the idea of the role of 'situation' in foreign-language teaching. A search began for forms of composition which correspond to the spoken language, involving spontaneous reaction from the pupils. The result was a small audio sketch [illustrations from exercises employing this latest technique for third-year students of English]. This method leads to role-playing by the pupils

in a situation which is meaningful to them, although by its very nature of limitation and concentration it cannot become a reality. Nevertheless such situations have great possibility for transfer to a situation of real life.

70-246 Tiggemann, Werner. Das Problem des Transfer im neusprachlichen Unterricht mit Sprachlabor. [The problem of transfer in foreign language teaching using a language laboratory.] *Programmiertes Lernen und Programmierter Unterricht* (Berlin), 6, 4 (1969), 146-56.

It is difficult to find the best way to transfer language skills learnt in the laboratory to another situation. Relevant features of the learning process, including the explicit teaching of transfer based on an analysis of the communication process, are dealt with. For a theoretical framework, van Parreren's system theory is referred to especially with regard to the problem of interference. Adequate structuring of the teaching situation is a prerequisite of making transfer possible.

ADULTS

70-247 Kohls, S. Internationales Kolloquium zu Problemen der Sprachintensivkurse. [International colloquium on the problems of intensive language courses.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 13, 2 (1969), 98-100.

This colloquium, held in 1968, was concerned with didactical, methodological, theoretical and organizational questions relative to intensive foreign-language teaching for adults. Discussion was on the following points: principles and structure of intensified teaching in Brandenburg-Plaue; the efficacy of intensive teaching compared with conventional methods; intensified teaching of language to customs officers in East Germany; the place and function of the language laboratory; the limits and possibilities of teaching methods geared to raising the qualifications of adults; the verbo-tonal system; and various other accounts of experiences in intensified foreign-language teaching.

IMMIGRANTS

70-248 Hester, Hilary. Stories in language teaching. *English for Immigrants* (London), 3, 1 (1969), 20-3.

A language-teaching story, as well as providing an imaginative element often lacking in drill-games, can provide the necessary repetition for younger children. Stories which are simple for children listening to their mother tongue can be very complicated for a child coming from another language and cultural background. [Illustrations.] By recording the story on tape the difficulty of repeating it with exactly the same words and structures is overcome. It also enables a small group to listen to the story again while others are otherwise occupied. Small models or drawings based on the story will help with comprehension and aid recall. With the help of the figures, the children may construct further stories for themselves.

70-249 Schools Council/University of Birmingham. Linguistic and non-linguistic teaching objectives. *English for Immigrants* (London), 3, 1 (1969), 24-7.

The Schools Council/University of Birmingham project on Teaching English to West Indian Children was begun in 1967 and has now reached the development stage where the production of materials is being undertaken. These materials will be used by the Birmingham Experimental Group as they are produced and the group is advising on pre- and post-production. The teaching objectives governing the preparation of materials and the production of a teacher's manual are summarized as follows: (1) linguistic teaching objectives—to counter dialect interference, to improve general communication skills, (2) non-linguistic teaching objectives—progression of work, clarification of the role of the child, clarification of the role of the materials in the teacher's chosen themes and his normal lessons.

SPEECH

70-250 Golubev, Ya. V. О формировании речи на иностранном языке на ранней стадии обучения. [The formation of speech in a foreign language in the early stages of instruction.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 1 (1969), 38-47.

In foreign-language instruction pupils must be taught to establish a direct link between the thought content and the forms of the language expressing it, since experiments show that pupils can be encouraged to react to a command in a foreign language as speedily as to one in their own language. Simultaneous listening and viewing of the associated activity facilitates such a link, as does the use of pictures, in the presentation of material. As instruction proceeds visual stimuli may become less frequent allowing natural conversation to be developed, based on the knowledge acquired through the use of pictures and on the experience the pupil has gained in his native language. Translation may be used as an auxiliary to comprehension in presentation of new material. This is natural because the learner always tends to translate silently any new material. But pupils must be trained not to translate from their own into the foreign language before speaking.

Experiments showed that a certain type of visual helped young children to learn new words and another type helped adults to talk about a situation using abstract terms, but little positive effect accrued when one type was applied to the other group of subjects. A further experiment revealed that older pupils have a more analytic approach to language learning, whereas with the younger ones it is more synthetic. Seven-year-olds tended to learn a given phrase as a whole and could not model other phrases from it, whilst eleven-year-olds could. These results suggest that to encourage the desired direct link between thought content and the forms of the foreign language studied, pictures should be carefully graded to suit the learner and that the material presented should take account of the varying approaches to language learning adopted by learners of different ages.

70-251 Lee, W. R. Speaking together. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 30-4.

Creative linguistic ability must be founded on experience of the language in meaningful use. Repetition must be adequate. In foreign-language lessons, at least in the early years, both teacher and pupils must speak. Collective speaking is essential although it is then difficult for the teacher to detect individual errors of pronunciation, and cover may be given to lazy pupils. Children may drawl or shout. Measures may be taken to counteract these disadvantages. The advantages are that shy pupils are not embarrassed, that oral work is lively and nobody feels left out, that the class is given a feeling of collective effort, that it is easier to keep the full attention of the class, and above all that the amount of speaking time per pupil is raised to a maximum. Collective speaking is most useful in the elementary stages, but can also be used to some extent with advanced pupils who should be discouraged from thinking collective speaking childish. Signals can be used to indicate whether the whole class or a section of it should speak.

70-252 Murakami, Ken. How to develop fluency of conversation. *English Teachers' Magazine* (Tokyo), **18**, 8 (1969), 6-10.

'Fluency' is a term which is often used to imply only a smooth flow of sound and not necessarily grammatical or lexical accuracy. Fluency of conversation implies more than this as a conversation is both audio and visual. Face-to-face situations involve kinesics which often imply more than words. Conducting a successful conversation in a foreign language means understanding and employing the cultural codes of the speakers of that language and it is also a form of expression of an individual's personality.

Rhythm, intonation and even pronunciation of individual sounds must be practised in context. Conversation dialogues will serve this purpose well. Questions, answers and comments on remarks provide pattern drill in syntax and lexicon. Mother-tongue (Japanese) cues can be used, to which the student is expected to respond in the target

language. An attempt to dramatize dialogues will at first hinder good speech, but once students grow accustomed to speaking and behaving at the same time their English will become more natural. Language-laboratory work can hamper conversation in that students are conditioned to working with machines and may develop a psychological block on being confronted with a live person in a natural social setting. Variety of method and an understanding of psychology and anthropology are needed for successful training in fluency of conversation.

70-253 Wharton, A. More classroom conversation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 27-9.

Language-laboratory work is sometimes felt to be remote and excessively standardized. Remoteness can be reduced by careful arrangement of the booths. To combat both remoteness and standardization, colour slides can be used, the students being seated in front of the booths. [The author describes two series of slides, one concerned with daily activities, the other with civic life.] A language-laboratory lesson can be based on them, with situational dialogue, but their best use is outside the language laboratory, with advanced students, to promote free conversation and stimulate oral work.

PRONUNCIATION

70-254 Tataru, Ana. On the specific character of pronunciation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (October) 1969, 26-7.

A 'foreign accent' erects a barrier between a foreigner and members of the native speech-community. Teachers must encourage their students to make their speech socially acceptable and not merely intelligible. A foreign accent includes not only phonemic but allophonic deviations. Neglect of allophones is one of the main shortcomings of language teaching. Allophones must be included among the specific characteristics of a language taught.

INTONATION

- 70-255 **Higgins, J. J. and J. Windsor Lewis.** Teaching intonation in the language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 46-8.

Where a pattern has to be adopted and applied to several utterances, there can be practice in the anticipation mode. The student hears a cue and several responses, then hears the cue again, makes the responses himself, and hears and repeats the correct form. The responses may have a single grammatical pattern, or may feature an area of vocabulary or a pronunciation problem. Recordings arranged in groups of two or three are interspersed by music and sound-effects, providing an element of entertainment which has enabled students to enjoy performing these drills.

GRAMMAR

- 70-256 **Pearce, Brian.** Some more non-rules. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 23-5.

The author deals with the use of *in* and *at* with places, interrogative *what* and *which*, *in* and *into*, and the meaning of *to think of doing something*.

VOCABULARY

- 70-257 **Smith, Paul.** Teaching vocabulary. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 8 (1969), 531-7.

In recent years teachers of English as a foreign language have been persuaded of the importance of structure. Vocabulary enrichment, however, cannot be left till later; there is an immediate need to teach it. Personality and appearance may enable a foreign student to give the impression of having a better command over English than is the case when he is first chosen to study abroad. [There follows a brief review of the kinds of vocabulary test, both academic and commercial,

available in the United States.] English classes for foreign students have to be primarily concerned with the current language, not only printed, but also the language of mass-media. The teacher himself has to work constantly to enrich his own vocabulary and familiarize himself with current events on a global scale. Motivation for the students can be provided by encouragement to attend university functions, plays and films. Suggestions are appended for teaching practical and technical vocabulary.

READING

70-258 Light, Timothy. The reading-comprehension passage and a comprehensive reading programme. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 120-4.

The reading-comprehension passage, taught intensively in the classroom, is usually puzzling to those who have not read the whole from which it is taken, does not give the amount of linguistic repetition needed, and needs explanation and discussion. Because the teacher has to say a lot about it, it becomes a stimulus to aural rather than reading comprehension. It often forms the backbone of reading instruction beyond the beginning stage.

There should be an overall plan for teaching reading from an elementary to an advanced stage. Only where needs differ should the approach to reading differ according to the level of attainment. Material is needed at all levels to introduce new linguistic items through sufficient repetition in the context of familiar linguistic material. Material is also needed below the students' highest linguistic attainment and it should be easily available.

At first reading matter is required which increases the pupils' linguistic competence: this is available in good textbook courses. Extensive reading matter containing no new vocabulary or structures should follow, and is very important throughout the whole of the intermediate stage. The normal reading-comprehension passage should be replaced by intermediate-level material which is an extension of the early material. There should be sufficient repetition of new

linguistic points, and passages should gradually increase in length. At advanced level learners should read only unsimplified material. This can be long and each text should be a whole. New vocabulary and structures must be well practised in exercises.

COMPREHENSION

70–259 **Gez, N. I.** К вопросу об обучении распознаванию речи при зрительном и слуховом восприятии. [The teaching of visual and aural comprehension of speech.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 2 (1969), 27–37.

A contrastive outline of the mechanisms by which the learner receives information through both the visual and the auditory channels leads on to a consideration of the factors which influence the effective teaching of aural comprehension, particularly with relation to reading.

Five major headings are distinguished. (1) Informational overloading must be eliminated. Those adapting texts for aural comprehension should remember that the lexical and grammatical difficulties of the listener are different from those of the reader. For example, the most significant position in the sentence for the reader has been shown to be the final position, whereas for the listener it appears to be the initial position. Also texts should be kept free of literary devices. (2) The tempo of the speaker must be normal from the beginning of instruction to instil correct intonation and natural speech habits. (3) Texts should be free of any grammatical or other formal items hindering recognition. The material should be so constructed as to allow the listener to concentrate fully on the content. (4) Texts should contain reference points: thematic—for instance, ideas involving analogy or contrast in content—and formal—for example, definite pauses, varied intonational contours and striking introductory phrases. (5) The interaction of the visual, aural and articulatory modes of speech should be developed from the beginning of instruction. Practice in reading and talking within the confines of a prescribed lexis and grammar will contribute greatly towards the aural comprehension of the same language items.

The lexical and grammatical units which become established in the long-term memory provide the basis of comparison for visual and aural speech recognition at any given moment. Gradually these units are built up and enlarged as the learner becomes more fluent. [Types of exercise required to assist this development are suggested in rough outline.]

ENGLISH *See also abstracts* 70-233, -234

70-260 **Arabski, Janusz.** Linguistic analysis of English composition errors made by Polish students. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* (Poznan), **1**, 1/2 (1968), 71-89.

Errors made by learners of a foreign language can be interpreted both linguistically and psychologically. Here, interest is limited to mistakes made by Poles studying English, which are caused by linguistic phenomena, and which can be linguistically interpreted. Material for study is taken from the entrance examination papers of the candidates for the English department of Poznan University. Candidates come from a variety of schools and methodological backgrounds. Their mistakes can nevertheless be grouped into homogeneous classes. The study of mistakes is a prerequisite for writing a programmed course where errors must be predicted.

The material consisted mainly of compositions where students tried to use the most familiar constructions. Figures of the relative frequency of different errors and the reasons for them were not given in this case as the sample was limited and did not consist of specially prepared tests. Normally the main source of errors is interference and this can be categorized as (1) external interference: active (negative transfer) and passive (categories non-existent or differently constructed in the native language) and (2) internal interference: false derivations and analogies.

- 70-261 Bowen, J. Donald.** A tentative measure of the relative control of English and Amharic by eleventh-grade Ethiopian students. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language* (The University of California, Los Angeles), May (1969), 69-89.

It is sometimes essential, or desirable, that education should be given in a language other than the students' native tongue. This is so in Ethiopia, where both Amharic and English are second languages in the educational system. Many teachers using English report difficulty in presenting their subjects.

[The author describes in considerable detail an investigation, using cloze-test techniques, into the extent of the problem. Performance scores are correlated with course grades. Self-appraisal scores of reading ability are also given.]

The cloze tests showed the range of performance that might be expected of native English-speaking students. Ethiopian students were behind the Americans in English, and did not do well in Amharic. Teacher and student evaluations did not correlate well. Research is needed to define problems of Amharic instruction.

The gap between the performance in English of American students and that of Ethiopian students should be closed partly by some simplification of texts and partly by remedial language classes.

- 70-262 Dahlström, Axel.** English phonetics for Swedes. *Moderna Språk* (Saltsjö-Duvnäs), **63**, 4 (1969), 346-59.

A comprehensive handbook on English phonetics must meet the needs of university, training college and *gymnasium* students. Such a book, which does not yet exist, should contain an introduction to general phonetics; a detailed description of English sounds and phonemes and a comparison with Swedish sounds; a chapter on vowels, including special treatment of the weak vowels in unstressed syllables and weak forms; a chapter on spelling versus pronunciation; chapters on stress, quantity and intonation; finally chapters on British RP, American pronunciation, and other types of English. Exercises

should be provided throughout, supplemented by ample recorded material. [Existing Swedish books on the subject are compared with this ideal.]

70-263 Dunlop, I. Tests of writing ability in English as a foreign language. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 54-9.

Essays do not provide reliable evidence of a foreigner's competence in English. [The author describes an experiment carried out in Sweden.] In order to eliminate imagination, the pupils wrote a 'report-type' test, based on their reading and on information gleaned from tapes on certain subjects. [The system of marking is described in detail.] The experiment indicates that instructions for writing essays or reports can be given by tapes and written guidelines, that the writing of English can be steered into more factual channels, and that a marking system can be established which any teacher can follow.

70-264 Garwood, C.H. The teaching of English to the non-English-speaking technical student: (1) the context of situation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 107-112.

Appropriate contexts of situation must be identified and constructed, and the language selected, graded, and presented in the best way. One must look at the language used in the situations the technical student meets with in his classes and textbooks. Technical students often feel the English courses they are given to be irrelevant. Science teachers cannot spend much time on a student's English. The average English teacher is at a loss with technical vocabulary. It is possible, however, to identify (and to grade for teaching) linguistic frameworks which can be correlated with varying kinds of situation in technical studies. These include the description of an experiment, simple scientific description and close theoretical reasoning. Opportunities are also provided for calculation, questions and problems on texts, and historical background information. Practice is needed with these identifiable situations and their linguistic frameworks.

- 70-265 Gutschow, Harald.** The teaching of English as a second language in primary schools. *Audio-Visual Media* (London), **3, 4** (1969), 40-3.

A growing number of school authorities have recently been taking an interest in primary-school foreign-language teaching, but these ideas have for many years been practised in the private sector of education and in the developing countries of Africa and Asia. There is a tendency now in Europe and America to emphasize the educational aspect of learning a modern foreign language, and the need to develop more effective methods of instruction. It is essential to develop an approach, not depending so much on the motivation provided by the pupils' environment, as happens in the developing countries whose motivation to learn English is great, but on offering an attractive and stimulating learning experience. [Illustrations are given from experimental work in Berlin schools, and the controversial issues of streaming pupils according to ability, deciding when to introduce writing, and at what age children should learn a second language are touched upon.] In every country the supply of teachers trained in primary-school and language-teaching methods are in short supply. Audio-visual media obviously have their place in early language-teaching courses but the average teacher needs time to grow accustomed to the principles and practices recommended by the modern theory of teaching a second language.

- 70-266 Head, Sydney W.** Improve your English—a pilot radio teaching program. *Ethiopian Journal of Education* (Addis Ababa), **3, 1** (1969), 32-8.

This English language teaching programme, broadcast twice a week since September 1968, is now evaluated in a report, describing the initial mailing of lesson notes to potential students and the details of programme organization. Results so far appear to support the validity of preliminary assumptions. At a later stage it is planned to send out a questionnaire along with study aid materials to obtain more detailed listener reactions.

70-267 Jones, J. Allen. English language teaching in a social/cultural dialect situation (2). *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 18-22.

[Discussing teaching techniques in a West Indian context, the author recommends that pattern drills should take up only a few minutes and suggests lines on which they should be given.] At secondary level, children should be required to put an element of originality into their sentences. Social situations should be created in the classroom. [Various exercises are suggested, e.g. the preparation and enactment of short scenes, the use of appropriate language in semi-formal situations.] There should only be correction of items being practised or already taught. Written work should consolidate the oral practice and lead to controlled composition. Reading material will be chosen to reinforce the work of the language lessons. [The author outlines a scheme for putting these principles into practice in the first term of the secondary school, so replacing 'grammar' teaching. All the situations suggested involve group-work and dramatization.]

70-268 Knapp, Donald. Using structure drills to teach cultural understanding. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), **4**, 2 (1969), 43-8.

The cultural information provided with English language teaching is usually *outside* information rather than an integral part of the language itself. But the English used for normal social intercourse is full of specific cultural references and assumptions, some of which are omitted from courses in an effort to limit vocabulary. It would be feasible to include in drill sentences the foods associated with different meals, salaries for different jobs, phrases for leave-taking and so on. Foreign university students are eager to learn an English which enables them to communicate in situations they find themselves in. They are clearly aware of cultural misunderstandings and easily frustrated. [Examples given of structural drills conveying cultural information.] The necessity for conscious choice based on cultural information will help to mask the repetitive element in drills which bores adults and

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student remedial classes. This kind of drill is also open-ended in the sense that mechanical control can be reduced gradually until the students are freely producing communicative sentences using the same patterns.

70-269 McIntosh, Lois. Three paths to literacy. *Workpapers in English as a Second Language* (University of California, Los Angeles), May (1969), 21-4.

Even middle-class, English-speaking children in the first grade at school have to acquire more language if they are to read well. This kind of pre-reader needs help with more than vocabulary, word attack, and phonics. First-grade children who speak a dialect of English need to close some gaps before they can compete on equal terms with children speaking standard American English. Those who have spoken a different language for six years need to acquire the basic sentences in standard English before they can join the other two groups.

Time is wasted in early childhood programmes because some people are unwilling to accept that children benefit from disciplined, constructive activity. Carefully sequenced and programmed language work is desirable. [A study made in New Mexico is cited.] We must make sure that the language drills we give bilingual learners are the vehicle of concepts.

All three groups of pupils need meaningful, oral language-practice in certain matters of syntax before they can read effectively, and all pre-readers must talk a great deal.

70-270 Murphy, K. Sector analysis and the English teacher. *English in New Guinea* (Boroko), 1 (1969), 12-17.

A grammar can contribute an overall view of written language and economy in language teaching and learning. Sector analysis is a grammar of function and form. The function and position in the sentence of a word or word-group is established first, and then the form is analysed. Each position is itself harder or easier than others,

and the groups that can fill those positions also show a range of difficulty. Proponents of sector analysis do not advocate sentence analysis by children, or the definition of grammatical terms. Grammar is only one aspect of lesson planning. [The author examines from various viewpoints the teaching of question tags.]

70-271 Radford, W. L. The blackboard composition. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 49-54.

In the second year of the secondary school English course in Kenya the emphasis is shifting from the remedial work of the first year towards the development of free composition skills. [The author describes in detail a blackboard composition technique used with these pupils. He describes two 'trial' lessons.] The pupil must be able to draw on a reservoir of structures mastered earlier. The teacher must guide and stimulate without rigidly conditioning the pupils' responses.

70-272 Rogers, John. Why not abandon English teaching in the elementary school? *Ethiopian Journal of Education* (Addis Ababa), **3**, 1 (1969), 24-31.

English is not sufficiently well taught in four years of primary schooling to make satisfactory English-medium teaching possible in the seventh grade. Teachers are often insufficiently advanced themselves and aids such as in-service training, radio and television are not available to all in sufficient quantity. It is suggested that an intensive course in English lasting some seventeen weeks in Grade 7 would be much more effective and provide as much training as is now spread over four years. Reading material would as soon as possible cover other subjects in simple language. Peace Corps Volunteers and selected Indian and European teachers would provide this intensive teaching. Classes would be smaller at this stage and progress would be faster for this reason and also because less time would be available for forgetting and revision.

- 70-273 Stephenson, Lynne.** Self-expression—my method and their motive. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 16 (1969), 10-19.

A collection of examples of free composition produced by children in an Israeli school, shows their enthusiasm for self-expression even in the foreign language. Some poems were attempted, though the children at first protested they could not write poetry even in their own language. The finished compositions may be full of mistakes but it is more important for the writer as a person and for his English to write organically and incorrectly than to spend all his time learning tenses and drilling empty sentences.

- 70-274 Theivananthampillai, K.** The crucial syntactic role of the English auxiliary verb and its implications for teaching. *MST English Quarterly* (Manila), 19, 2/3/4 (1969), 5-11.

[Following a brief description of their function, the author discusses how to teach the use of auxiliaries so as to overcome Asian students' difficulties. He recommends the elicitation of syntactic rules, using grammatical terminology.]

- 70-275 Womack, Thurston.** An American view of the training of EFL teachers in Britain. *English Language Teaching* (London), 24, 1 (1969), 11-17.

[The article compares American and British programmes for training teachers of English as a foreign language. There appear to be more similarities than differences though each side can learn from the other.]

70-276 Yarmohammadi, Lotfollah. Problems for Iranians in learning English vowels. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), **4**, 2 (1969), 57-62.

Vowel contrasts between a widely used dialect of American English and educated modern Persian are investigated in an attempt to predict the pronunciation errors of Persians learning English, and to classify the errors according to their types.

70-277 Prator, Clifford H. The survey of language use and language teaching in eastern Africa. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 1 (1969), 59-63.

The survey grew out of recommendations made by the International Conferences on Second-Language Problems (ICSLP). It is a study in depth of the total situation as regards language use and language teaching. It covers Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Zambia. Its major concerns are sociolinguistic, and attention is focused on the pedagogical and practical applications of linguistic and sociological research. Its aims are to collect basic data on the use and teaching of the major languages, to stimulate local research, to encourage closer contact among specialists in different countries, and to strengthen language science resources in East Africa. [The author describes the organization, staffing, early activities and publications of the survey.]

FRENCH See also abstracts 70-217, -228, -229

70-278 Everett, Aaron B. A new look for intermediate French. *French Review* (Baltimore), **43**, 1 (1969), 72-80.

During the year 1969-70 a Minnesota school is carrying out an experiment. Over 100 second-year students will meet for an hour a day on five days a week and will be able to choose the language skill they will practise each day. Opportunity for practising reading, writing, speaking and listening will be offered [details given].

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Tests on grammar will be given every two weeks and these and any other written work can be handed in anonymously. A final grade will be arrived at through a personal interview with each student. This system should provide a structure which can be modified to meet the changing needs and interests of the students.

GERMAN See also abstract 70-243

70-279 Droescher, W. O. German verb types. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **24**, 1 (1969), 19-32.

The analytic systems of both tagmemic and transformational schools demand a great deal of the linguistic practitioner. In the field of language teaching a reaction has begun, emphasizing semantic aspects along with formal ones at a much earlier stage in the description. In German, discussions are well under way along these lines and are at the moment concerned with the valency of verbs. By analysing the whole range of verbs a limited number of basic types is obtained based on their respective valencies. [Details and charts.] A grammar based on verb types is easier to manipulate than a grammar in tagmemic or transformational notation, as a system of concrete verbal structures thereby becomes available. The verb becomes the anchor of syntactic analysis and the lexicon the place of reference for the syntactic structures 'belonging' to the verb.

70-280 Iwanowa, A. P. Zur Verbindung von Verben mit dem objektiven Infinitiv. [On the linking of verbs with an object infinitive.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **6**, 3 (1969), 169-74.

English, French, German and Russian all have the phenomenon of verbs linked with an object infinitive. There is a lack of explanation of this particular phenomenon in German and in view of the increasing interest in the valency of verbs a description is offered in this article, making comparisons with English and French and Russian constructions of a similar kind.

- 70-281 Löschmann, Martin.** Zur Einführung und Einübung des erweiterten attributivisch gebrauchten Adjektivs und Partizips unter dem Aspekt der Entwicklung des unmittelbar verstehenden Lesens. [Teaching and practising the extended attributive use of adjectives and participles by untranslated reading.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **6**, 3 (1969), 217-21.

An automatic grasp of grammatical structure is essential for rapid reading. One of the most difficult points for learners of German to grasp quickly is the extended attribute and this construction is very common in written scientific and advertising literature. [Suggestions are made as to how to work over grammatical material in order to develop a more rapid grasp of meaning, and how, on the basis of model sentences, syntactic structures can be introduced in such a way that they are automatically understood.]

RUSSIAN *See abstract 70-222*

SPANISH *See also abstract 70-241*

- 70-282 Dalbor, J. B.** Temporal distinctions in the Spanish subjunctive. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **52**, 4 (1969), 889-93.

The subjunctive has fewer tenses than the indicative and so certain temporal distinctions are lost in noun and adjective clauses. While it is agreed that in subordinate clauses the present subjunctive must serve for both a concurrent and a subsequent action, there is no such agreement on how a past action after a present main verb is expressed. In the case of past verbs many textbooks over-simplify and affirm that the past subjunctive must serve to express concurrent, subsequent and prior action as well as to express doubt in the present about a hypothetical action.

Ramsey gives examples of the present perfect subjunctive, but only to translate the present perfect from English, and never the

simple past. Nearly all the examples given are based on literary, not spoken usage.

A survey was conducted using fifty native speakers from about fifteen Spanish-speaking countries. On the left of a page were forty sentences based on eight patterns, containing noun or adjective clauses in the indicative. On the right were similar sentences except that the main clauses now contained an expression normally requiring the subjunctive. The informants were asked to supply the correct conversational form of the subordinate verb. No grammatical terms were discussed.

The perfect tenses of the subjunctive were preferred to the simple tenses, when expressing prior actions in both the present and the past. The simple past subjunctive was preferred for a subsequent action in the past. The present subjunctive was preferred when expressing a subsequent action in the present and a hypothetical action in adjectival clauses after a present main verb. The simple past subjunctive was preferred when expressing continuous action in either the present or the past, for a concurrent action and for a subsequent or hypothetical action in the past only.

Informants from the Caribbean preferred the simple past subjunctive to the present perfect subjunctive if the original indicative tense was the simple past. The evidence for a prior action in the past is not conclusive because only adjectival clauses were used.

For teaching purposes students should perhaps be taught to transform the subjunctive clause verb back to the indicative form it would have had if the subjunctive were not required, this would then be compatible with general usage as indicated by this survey. [Examples are given throughout. Results with percentages and a diagram of preferred patterns are shown.]