

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

70-309 Clark, John. The learner and learning process. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 7, 3 (1969/70), 154-64.

From observation of the way in which a child learns its mother tongue, implications may be drawn for foreign language teaching. By means of a demonstration lesson in 'Newspeak', the elementary processes of learning a foreign language and the confusion which can be caused by ambiguity are illustrated. It is essential to ensure that correct sounds and meaning are learnt and that the right grammatical hypotheses are drawn. This can be done by good presentation but must be backed up by continual checking. Creation must take place and mistakes will inevitably result which can prove useful in the learning process.

70-310 Gloyn, K. B. Grammar and Russian teaching in schools. *ATR Occasional Papers* (Bradford), 3, 2 (1969), 1-4.

Teachers of Russian are in a special position in the present climate of linguistic unawareness in our schools. Agreements of adjectives and nouns in the various cases bewilder the pupils who are unaware of sentence structure. Even with enthusiastic audio-visual teaching the pupils have little chance of learning structures merely by listening, repeating and answering because they are unable to draw the necessary analogies. Grammatical terminology has to be introduced and explained in English and this impedes lively oral work. It is difficult for language teachers, who have never worked in a linguistic vacuum, to realize the pupils' problems. Teachers of the second foreign language used to be able to draw on the pupils' knowledge acquired in the first but with the increase of methods involving little gram-

matical exploration, the carry-over from one language to another is not likely to be great.

Reasonable mastery of the native language without grammatical knowledge is more easily achieved in this country than elsewhere. In other European countries no shame is attached to serious attention to the grammar of the native language in school. Basic grammatical knowledge provides a short cut to the understanding of new structures and frees time for lively oral work.

A 'general language studies' course is proposed for the first year of secondary school, when grammatical terminology can be deliberately taught and some time given to the development and comparison of languages. This could engender linguistic awareness which would be useful wherever precise understanding and use of language are required.

70-311 Hawkins, E. W. Intensive courses—some possible patterns. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2857 (20 February 1970), 44-5.

Forty-minute language lessons at school in competition with a full day of work and play in the mother tongue, subject the pupils to much 'interference'. Experimental intensive courses have been provided for university students, sixth-formers, and third-year secondary modern pupils. [Details given.] Twenty English teachers of Spanish were paired with twenty Spanish teachers of English for a fortnight. A one-week intensive remedial course was organized for fifth-formers who had fallen behind in their French studies. This course was taught by post-graduate students on a ratio of one to five. Intensive courses in English for Asian pupils of secondary school age are arousing interest in some local education authorities. Even primary-school pupils learning French have been offered residential stages of two or three days in Hertfordshire. The success of such courses is difficult to assess—only one had a terminal examination—but they can be enjoyable, and concentrated teaching is economical in terms of expenditure of materials and effort. All require a great deal of cooperation and preparation. Adaptations

of intensive course techniques might allow pupils to make more mature decisions about their language needs. [Information from those who have experimented with intensive courses is welcomed by the author.]

70-312 Johnson, Francis C. The failure of the discipline of linguistics in language teaching. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 19, 3/4 (1969), 235-44.

Linguists have persuaded us that language is virtually the only variable in language teaching. Adequate criteria to determine what linguistic items should be included in a language course have not been developed. Such criteria should be based not on language but on language acquisition. Data supplied by linguists should be examined for the contribution it makes to the acquisition of language communication skills. The sentences introduced when a language is begun should be useful in communication: for instance, a request pattern causes individuals to interact. Teaching the contrastive use of *a* and *the* is not worth while, as it is not crucially significant for communication. Extra-linguistic criteria must also influence gradation.

The belief that language-teaching methodology is based on linguistic theory is dangerous. The advice given by linguists often fails to allow for the fact that the most efficient learning process may be from superficial to more complex and that there may be considerations other than the structure of language itself which influence teaching and learning strategies. We must not fail to understand the difference between 'acquisition' and 'explanation', between 'competence' and 'performance', and between a system of symbols and a system of communication.

By emphasizing language interference rather than language facilitation, problems rather than facilities, competence in manipulating symbols rather than performance in communication, we have designed a teaching strategy where the learner's built-in failure is assured. The linguist provides one of the sources of raw material but this should be scrutinized and used in conjunction with the raw material of associated disciplines.

- 70-313 Kersten, Caesar S.** How relevant is your foreign language programme? *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 1 (1970), 9-13.

Vocabulary teaching and conversation on football, transistors and the purchase of make-up are of more interest to pupils in secondary schools than a discussion of the affairs of the Dupont family in France. Phonology and spelling have to be directly taught but can be practised through a good poem. Grammar study is a matter of making observations not of learning rules and the student needs to synthesize many sentences illustrating points of grammar. These sentences need to relate to everyday happenings. Once the pupil is able to express himself briefly but freely in French he should be asked to read his composition to the class and oral questions to the student and his teacher about the composition may be permitted. Reading material can more profitably be taken from *Readers' Digest* and *Paris Match* than from works of literature which might be difficult even for a native reader to appreciate. Those who opt to study a language at college can read literature when they are themselves more mature. The others need a grasp of everyday language which will enable them to communicate when they go abroad as exchange students or on holiday. Two years' study is not sufficient to achieve facility in speaking in the target language.

- 70-314 Lamendella, John T.** On the irrelevance of transformational grammar to second language pedagogy. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 255-70.

It is a mistake to look to transformational grammar or any other theory of linguistic description for the theoretical basis of second-language teaching or a theory of language acquisition. Problems of linguistic competence may be approached in three ways: by means of neurophysiological and biochemical description, through formal descriptions of languages and a theory of linguistic description, or through development of a cognitive theory of language within the field of psycholinguistics. Only this last can be used to develop a

theory of language acquisition. Descriptive linguistics should not be confused with the attempt to understand human language as a psychological phenomenon. A cognitive theory of language should be concerned with describing people rather than languages. It is not clear that a transformational grammar can be regarded as a theory of how knowledge of a language system is structured in the mind. Chomsky's transformations are not processes but merely statements of the conditions holding between two tree structures. Such structures are incapable of formally representing the structure of linguistic knowledge in the mind. The distinction between a theory of competence and a theory of performance has given transformational grammar an aura of cognitive significance while allowing it to ignore questions of cognitive structure and processes. Transformational theory is an extension and formalization of the concerns of structural linguists, and its goals should be taken as those originally expressed by Chomsky: to separate grammatical from ungrammatical sequences. The aspect of language given least consideration by transformational grammar is that of meaning and semantic representation. A theory of semantics must be part of a theory of human cognition.

Neither standard transformational grammar nor the neo-transformationalist generative semantics make hypotheses concerning the mental structure of linguistic knowledge. Little has been contributed by transformational grammar to the development of teaching materials. Theories of linguistic description are relevant to language teaching only insofar as they form part of the data which can be used in constructing a cognitive theory of language. [Bibliography.]

70-315 Long, Ralph B. Linguistic universals, deep structures, and English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 2 (1969), 123-32.

The work of teachers of English as a second language should be carried on from the point of view of the student whose language and way of life are distinct from those of the monolingual speaker of English. Because of this approach an extended investigation of linguistic universals is welcome. A generally accepted universal grammar

with a generally accepted terminology would be of value to all students of language, and ideally it should be based directly on meaning. Such a grammar cannot be based on English alone. Any set of linguistic universals must be acceptable to serious students of language all over the world. The principal justification for deep-structure analysis of English is that in combination with deep-structure analyses of all the languages of the world it can serve as a basis for a defensible universal grammar. However, in English teaching we shall be wise to teach an intelligent updated traditional surface-structure grammar. [Further consideration of deep-structure grammar is based on the work of Jacobs and Rosenbaum.] Grammar can be taught most simply in the as yet unsurpassed traditional terms without transformations.

70-316 Rivers, Wilga M. From skill acquisition to language control. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 1 (1969), 3-12.

For a small child, a single word may carry a number of meanings and go far beyond its apparent lexical content. Later, elementary syntax develops. In second-language classrooms, vocabulary teaching has been superseded by the teaching of syntactic patterns on a basic vocabulary. This skill-learning approach was largely drawn from the experiments of Skinner and is basic to programmed learning. The weakest feature of Skinnerian conditioning as applied to language learning is a naive faith in generalization. The student may fall into error because his knowledge of the language is insufficient for him to recognize the limits within which analogies can be made. Nevertheless this type of practice does enable students to produce acceptable syntactic patterns within a circumscribed situation but not participate freely in conversation. Chomsky has attacked the view that language is a habit structure, saying that ordinary linguistic behaviour involves innovation, formation of new sentences and new patterns in accordance with intricate rules.

In the classroom, learning dialogues by heart and role-playing are important as a step towards free speech. Visual cues keep the

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student alert and force him to think for himself. An element of humour or surprise in a drill retains interest. Practice in selection is not a separate activity for advanced classes. It should be included in classwork from the very first lessons. The student must be kept continually aware of the relationship of what he is learning to what he knows. The teacher's reward comes on the day when he hears his students using the second language without prompting to communicate their own concerns.

70-317 Wardhaugh, Ronald. TESOL: current problems and classroom practices. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), **3**, 2 (1969), 105-16.

Given some agreement by the linguists on what language and grammar are, there is still disagreement as to whether language use is a skill or a creative ability. Regardless of the present state of linguistics, students have to learn structures and correct pronunciation and they have to do this by practice and dialogue learning, involving the learner in creative though guided activity.

The findings of psychologists are not directly relevant to language teaching. However, certain data on the learning process have special interest for teachers. Students from certain linguistic backgrounds make predictable mistakes. Psychology reminds us that emphasis should be less on the teacher and the course and more on the student himself.

Pedagogy is even less well understood than linguistics or psychology. There is evidence that it is an art but it can be studied scientifically. Teachers may become interested in equipment or techniques rather than in the content to be taught. They should take inspiration from new ideas on teaching and new insights into the language-learning process, as good teaching is based on good theoretical understanding in the first place, supported by a knowledge of modern hardware and techniques.

70-318 Za'rour, George I. and Thomas Buckingham. Some factors affecting improvement in proficiency in English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 1 (1969), 37-50.

The American University of Beirut runs a University Orientation Programme to help potential students each year whose English is inadequate though their school records indicate their probable success in university study. No student is allowed to follow this course for more than an academic year and, if it proves necessary, the following summer.

The students come from many different language backgrounds, which precludes contrastive studies as the basis for a programme. No single purpose can be determined except to acquire English as an academic tool. The students are learning in a non-English environment. English will remain the language of instruction only. The language proficiency requirement varies between the four faculties.

An attempt was made to uncover the various factors which operated for or against the student in his language learning, as recognition of such factors could affect the materials, methods, selection processes, testing and underlying philosophy of the programme. Numerous investigations were carried out to test hypotheses associated with these factors, such as the value of a mastery of French or other language related to English, the possibility that certain tests favour the speakers of certain languages, that women learn languages more easily than men and young students more easily than older students. The investigations were based on student records over four years. Though the results did not indicate a need for large-scale alteration of programmes they pointed out areas for further investigation and showed directions which possible changes might take.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

70-319 Spolsky, Bernard. Attitudinal aspects of second language learning. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 271-85.

There is much greater variation in the level of proficiency reached by second-language learners than in the level reached by first-language learners. Teaching method is not the only variable that can be controlled, and its influence cannot be measured unless other factors are measured too. It is generally recognized that the age factor is important. There has been a low measure of correlation between language aptitude and success. Parental attitudes to a language affect children's achievement. Teachers' expectations affect pupils' success. Peer groupings are also important. Of the two classes of motivation for language learning, instrumental and integrative, the latter is necessary for success at advanced level. [The author describes an investigation, using direct and indirect questionnaires, to discover attitudes towards speakers of a foreign language in which the subjects had some proficiency. Results suggested that people learn a language better when they want to belong to a group speaking that language.] [Bibliography.]

70-320 Zimnyaya, I. A. Индивидуально-психологические факторы и успешность научения речи на иностранном языке [Individual psychological factors and the successful teaching of foreign speech.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), **1** (1970), 37-46.

After a discussion of the links between memory, thought and speech, the views of leading Soviet psychologists are taken as a basis for experiment on the operative, short-term memory and hypothesizing with respect to possible word-combinations in a foreign language. These are seen as two major components, whose operations may reveal individual psychological factors apparent in the successful or unsuccessful learning of a foreign language.

Besides the nature of the learning processes themselves, the

nature of the changes in them during learning is also investigated. Two proposals are tested concerning the cognitive activity of verbal thought: first, that there is a positive correlation between the operative memory and the facility for forming hypotheses on the linguistic probability of word-combinations; second, that positive changes in the operative memory must correlate with successful learning, while negative changes must correlate with the lack of, or only partial, success in foreign-language learning.

[The second proposal proved to be wholly valid, while the first was mainly but not entirely upheld.]

It was also noted that teaching brings about an improvement in the operative memory and in the facility for forming hypotheses on the linguistic probability of word-combinations in more than 50 per cent of cases. The leading component with respect to individual psychological factors affecting the success of learning a foreign language is operative memory, while hypothesis-forming can be looked upon as an important but not determining component at the level of learning investigated. [Tables and a discussion on them are included.]

TEACHER TRAINING

70-321 Pillet, Roger A. Teacher education in foreign languages: an overview. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 1 (1970), 14-19.

The last decade in the United States has seen considerable improvement in the training of foreign-language teachers. Greater emphasis has been placed on competence in the language since more teachers have the opportunity to teach a language full-time. Theory and practice are more closely related now and attempts are made to increase articulation between theories of education as they relate specifically to the foreign-language methods course. Videotape as a tool in micro-teaching has given the student a chance to observe his own problems and teaching practice in the class often begins earlier than was formerly the case. Teachers are prepared to handle tape

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recorders and language laboratories and an increasing array of other mechanical and electronic devices. Training is also given today to technicians, and to those who revise curricula and develop materials. Research necessary to foreign-language development is carried on and training is given in this field also. In-service training is encouraged though it is not always available to sufficient numbers of teachers. Administration must provide staff with opportunities for sabbaticals and summer grants and provision should be made in the teaching workload for reading, visiting and thinking, consultation and planning between staff.

70-322 Bartley, Diana E. Micro-teaching: rationale, procedures and application to foreign language. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 7, 3 (1969/70), 139-44.

Micro-teaching, which originated in Stanford University, California, is a teaching exercise in which the lesson may last from five to twenty minutes and one particular skill is taught to an average of five pupils. Immediate reaction from pupils and supervisors guides teacher trainees. Once the critique is given, the same lesson is immediately retaught to another set of pupils. At Stanford teacher trainees are subjected to the technique five days a week before doing teaching practice and videotapes are used. Trainees are able to teach heterogeneous groups of pupils whose abilities, ages and competence vary. Preparing, teaching and re-teaching one lesson per day affords increased amounts of practice and continuous opportunities for guidance from qualified supervisors. Formal evaluation has been eliminated from micro-teaching to reduce anxiety. Eventual transfer to the real classroom situation is easiest when the training conditions are as similar to the classroom as possible and when plenty of practice has taken place. The greater the understanding of principles the greater the likelihood of positive transfer. Trainees are taught to view the teaching skills as part of the whole methodology and the theory which underlies it.

- 70-323 Janeczek, J.** Réflexions sur la pédagogie de la formation. [Thoughts on teacher-training methodology.] *Voix et Images du Crédif* (St Cloud), 2 (1969), 1-4.

Some of the problems faced by Crédif in establishing in-service courses on audio-visual methods are described; such as the balance and linking of theory and practice, the amount of specialization in linguistics, phonetics, etc., and the advisability of giving teacher trainees lessons, by audio-visual methods, in a language quite unknown to them to make sure that they are aware of the problems involved. The question of providing students with some kind of certificate according to their performance both during training and in the concluding examinations is discussed.

- 70-324 Marquardt, William F.** Preparing English teachers abroad. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 1 (1969), 31-5.

The recent establishment of two large international organizations to help teachers of English as a second language suggests that teachers and their trainers feel that the gap between theoretical knowledge, technology and classroom needs must be bridged more quickly.

There are few places today where English is taught which are not multi-lingual communities and today's teachers of English have to be trained to work within them. Multi-lingualism in one locale can be vastly different from another in terms of the behaviour it exacts. Nevertheless certain indispensable elements in the training of English teachers can be identified. A few such items are: attitudes, understanding, skills and habits [details given]. Once there is a profile of the ideal teacher of English as a second language, the building of curricula, staffing of schools and colleges and equipping of classrooms can proceed systematically.

TEACHING METHODS

70-325 Grittner, Frank M. A critical re-examination of methods and materials. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 7 (1969), 467-77.

The 'systems' approach to teaching can be described as 'common sense by design'. It structures the learning process into a pattern of convergent thinking. Creative performance, however, cannot be reduced to measurable overt behaviour, it cannot be tested, and cannot be taught by the systems approach. Unless more training in routine behaviour is accepted for foreign language teaching, the systems approach can only provide a partial solution to instructional problems. Purpose and course content need critical re-examination. [The question of teaching foreign languages for humanistic or utilitarian purposes is discussed.] In the United States at present there is pressure in higher education to drop or reduce the foreign-language requirement. The college or high-school programme is unlikely to produce either a great number of bilinguals or literary scholars, but the course content at school needs to be such that it is satisfactory for those who do not pass an elementary stage and adequate preparation for those who go on to advanced work. [The role of the textbook and of methodology and research are discussed.] On the question of rote learning, it is observed that psychological findings indicate that generalizations persist in the memory while verbal chains fade rapidly. Innovations in methodology often limit the teacher by confining him to techniques prescribed by the experiment. The traditional teacher has no such limitations. The intuitive judgement of the competent perceptive classroom teacher remains at present the most reliable means of judging the efficacy of a given instructional technique.

CLASS METHODS

70-326 Boulter, Hugh. What's the use of language drills? *English for Immigrants* (London), **3**, 2 (1970), 14-18.

Language drills are often maligned because they are misunderstood.

Achieving plenty of practice without incurring boredom is difficult. Drills are not intended as a means of teaching but only to provide practice material. Some artificiality is inevitable but, reinforced with visual aids and treated as a game, drills can be fun. They can be choral, giving practice to everyone and enabling the shyer child to join in. [Examples given of drill with visual aids, and question and answer drill on the past tense with a story.] It is worth pre-recording drills rather than reading them off a sheet. The tape recorder sets an inexorable pace and cannot be interrupted like a human being.

70-327 Brown, T. Grant. In defense of pattern practice. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 191-203.

Behaviourism cannot explain first-language acquisition and the concept of syntactic patterning has been undermined by transformational grammar. The theoretical basis of pattern practice has been shown to be unsound.

The fact that the notion 'interference' is conceptually inadequate does not alter the fact that second-language learners show traces of their first language when speaking the foreign one. [The writer discusses the views of Jakobovits.] The only effect on interference and habit theory is the redefinition of terms to agree with recent developments. There is nothing about transformational grammar which is incompatible with pattern practice, and foreign-language learners still require oral drills to overcome first-language interference.

70-328 Horne, Kibbey M. Optimum class size for intensive language instruction. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 3 (1970), 189-95.

A class of ten students is regarded in America as the maximum size for language training under intensive conditions, though some have attempted groups of up to fifteen students. Progress is thought to be more rapid in small groups than with individual instruction.

Although small classes have traditionally been judged to be the

most effective the reason is solely one of available speaking-time for the student, though repetition in chorus may marginally increase speaking time in a larger class. As, however, individual instruction is not considered ideal it seems that language, as a process of social communication, should be taught within a small group and available speaking-time will determine the upper rather than the lower limit of the classes. Boredom through overlearning can take place in a very small group unless material has been specially designed for it. Inhibitions about producing foreign sounds and making mistakes may be more easily overcome in a group-sized class. Enough members are needed to provide for role-playing with dialogues. There are acoustic limitations to a learner's ability to discriminate certain sounds if seated where he cannot clearly see the teacher's mouth. A student needs to hear a foreign language from three to five times more distinctly than his native tongue in order to understand it. This will limit the number of students to those who can sit in a single row within an arc of about 120° in front of the instructor. 'Social distance' has been defined as four to seven feet. 'Public distance' starts at twelve feet.

70-329 Pilleux, Mauricio. The dialogue: a useful tool in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 3 (1969), 203-10.

A dialogue is a natural conversation to be presented, practised and drilled in class. The essential principles of colloquial usage can be attained in this way. Basic speech structures can be effectively taught if dialogues are carefully graded. Subjects can be general or specifically oriented to the culture represented. Explanations of customs can be worked into the lesson. They are interesting to the students and provide relief from the drills. Strict control can be kept over the vocabulary taught, and material learnt earlier can be kept up by reintroduction into dialogues. Dialogues offer an opportunity of speaking the language and can be practised in pairs or groups.

Basic requirements are: (1) three to ten exchanges, (2) memorable length of utterances, (3) illustration of new vocabulary or grammar

while strict control over new items is exercised, (4) consideration of content and style for the age and interest of the students. [Discussion and illustration of question-and-answer dialogues, substitution dialogues, situation dialogues, and free dialogue for more advanced students.]

70-330 Rathmell, George. Homolinguiistic vs. heterolinguiistic TESOL classes. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 1 (1969), 51-3.

While the goals are the same for both homolinguiistic and heterolinguiistic English classes (students from the same mother tongue and from a variety of language backgrounds), the means of achieving those goals require more attention. Contrastive analysis will be useless as a basis for teaching a very mixed group of students. Most materials and techniques are designed with homolingual classes in mind. A teacher of a mixed class will, of necessity, have to improvise and keep himself informed about new material and experiments. This may be frustrating but will also help him to remain professionally competent. Cultural differences among students can cause difficulties and disputes but these can also lead to a learning situation in which emotions force the students to use the language they are learning as the only means of communication between them. Students of mixed nationalities will have different learning problems and hearing each other's errors will help to make them more aware of correct and incorrect items.

The teacher should be alert to the students' problems and record them when possible. He should plan activities so that the students will have to talk to one another, and be ready to discuss in class any 'international incidents' and cultural differences which arise.

70-331 Richards, Jack. Songs in language learning. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 2 (1969), 161-7.

Songs are a welcome change from the routine classroom activity in learning a language. They may hinder if they establish irregular

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sentence or stress patterns which have to be corrected if used in conversation, but they can also help to establish sounds, rhythm and stress, polite formulae, syntactic items and general vocabulary. Children will enjoy archaic and dialect words but many teachers will have reservations about taking time to teach irregularities. One solution is to modernize the words of, for example, *Auld Lang Syne*. It may be possible to use the music of songs which the children know in their mother tongue and write English words to them.

Before using a song in the classroom it is important to know that the words and sentence patterns in it have already been taught. Teach the rhythm by underlining on the blackboard words carrying stress and clapping the rhythm. The music can be taught by singing the song to *la*. Finally the class will learn to fit words and music, a line at a time, until they can sing the song with confidence.

70-332 Shaw, A. M. How to make songs for language drill. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 125-32.

Teachers can make their own songs for language drill. The songs must provide repetition, be easy to learn, make the pattern meaningful and appeal to the students. [The author gives numerous examples.]

CONVERSATION

70-333 Klin, George. Content and methods in conversation courses. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **43**, 4 (1970), 641-7.

As time available for conversation classes is limited it is not sufficient to talk at random. Common expressions of feeling, such as *je suis d'accord*, should be taught. A language is a reflexion of national psychology and many expressions in common use are untranslatable and can only be matched by something used in the other country in a similar situation. *Faux amis* should be drilled and words which change according to the situation in which they are used. Grammatical explanations are desirable since grammar, far from being divorced

from conversation, is the codification of language and a short cut to better speech. Controversial material does not always stimulate conversation as it imposes a double burden on the student of expressing a point of view and of marshalling arguments in the foreign language in its support. Basically the work should be imitative and programmed, and the use of a textbook is recommended. In some cases, the reading and paraphrasing of plays is useful. The teacher leading the class needs to be not only fluent, but aware of the difficulties English-speaking students will encounter. A sense of humour will prevent students from becoming nervous and tongue-tied. Fluency cannot be expected in a short time and the most gifted students will make glaring mistakes. A conversation course can only teach the easy handling of basic expressions and elementary constructions.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

70-334 Desselmann, Günther. *Zur Gestaltung und Verwendung von Tonbildreihen im Deutschunterricht.* [On the making and use of synchronized sound and transparency aids in German teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), **6**, 5 (1969), 369-75.

Series of transparencies are one of the most useful visual aids to language teaching and can be even more valuable if a tape-recorded commentary is added. Careful linking of sound with picture is a valuable aid to comprehension and the whole forms a basis for drill and conversation. Some experimental work done with such a series in a language laboratory revealed the following points: (1) the pictures must be clear and their meaning obvious, (2) the pictures must be aesthetically pleasing to avoid a negative effect on the learner, (3) special signs and symbols added to hand-drawn pictures can give additional information, (4) special colour codes may also be used to emphasize the relevant portions of a picture, (5) a series of pictures overcomes the static effect of one transparency and at the same time is more useful for teaching than a moving film. The tape should

synchronize with the pictures in such a way that about seven seconds elapse in silence first of all, so that the learner can take in the picture content, and a further four seconds after hearing the spoken item so that he has time to relate the sound and the picture. [A specimen series is illustrated.] It may be necessary to have the series of pictures in printed form if the pupils are working individually in a laboratory.

70-335 Linard, Monique. Sur quelques problèmes de l'audio-visuel dans l'apprentissage des langues vivantes dans l'enseignement secondaire. [Some audio-visual problems in learning foreign languages at secondary school.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **63**, 6 (1969), 53-7.

As the number of teachers using audio-visual methods increases so the problems inherent in these methods become clearer. Children of low ability who were expected to profit most from audio-visual methods have done worse than with traditional teaching and the brighter pupils have profited. This is probably because audio-visual methods are based on the supposition that everyone forms concepts in the same way. But if grouping children with others of the same ability does not help everyone to progress at the same speed, then there must be qualitative differences in the power to absorb information and individual differences in the way of forming abstract concepts. Another presupposition has been that if a picture and an utterance are put together understanding will follow, without the analytical phase which predisposes the student to translate. In fact, silent translation takes place as the learner attempts to sort out the flow of sound, and this leads to cutting up the sound and assuming that each part corresponds to something in the mother tongue. Without some analysis, it would be impossible for a student to generalize and transfer structures to other situations. There is also the problem of the ambiguous picture. Superimposing partially understood words on to a partially understood picture can lead to much confusion. A good pupil will be quick to establish hypotheses and check them by some indication in the picture or a gesture from his teacher. The slow pupil will not achieve this, he will parrot a phrase but will be unable to recog-

nize its elements in a different situation. As others learn to produce utterances of their own based on those they have learnt, the slow pupil will become more and more lost.

This is not the fault of audio-visual methods and there is no question of returning to traditional methods and giving up the definite progress which audio-visual methodology has made, but of improving what exists. Suggested improvements are a change in the established order of presentation, practice and dramatization, so that structures are first presented and practised with a flannel-board until the underlying structure is grasped. Writing could be introduced very early as many pupils are helped by seeing the written words. After this practice the filmstrip and tape could be used. This should enable everyone to isolate, recognize and predict the underlying rules governing the flow of sound from the tape. The picture will then help to dispel any lingering doubts. Once the foundation is laid there is no reason why one should not return to the normal order of audio-visual teaching.

TEACHING MACHINES

70-336 Keil, R. D. Elektronische Datenverarbeitungsanlagen im Dienste der Sprachausbildung. [Computers in the service of language teaching.] *Sprachmittler* (Mannheim), 7, 4 (1969), 129-37.

Computers can be thought of as an aid to learning as in the American CAI (Computer-assisted instruction). Cost would prohibit widespread use of this system at present. Limited success only has been experienced with computer translations. In the preparation of teaching materials they can, however, save an enormous amount of human time. Where a language must be taught rapidly and efficiently it is essential to build teaching materials on word- and structure-counts and in the immediate future this is one of the most important fields where computers can help.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

70-337 Coltharp, Lurline H. Expanding the use of the laboratory. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 3 (1969), 211-14.

The language laboratory can be used to help foreign students make the transition from special to regular classes. A research project on this transition was set up at the University of Texas. Tapes of fifteen minutes running time were made by professors from the English and Modern Language departments and by one outside visitor. Students were asked to listen to the tapes and then make notes on the subject-matter. The notes were collected and checked and compared with notes on the same tapes made by a control group of English mother-tongue students. The foreign students were encouraged to find that some of the difficulties they experienced were shared with their American fellow-students because these originated from the subject-matter or the delivery rather than from the language. Specimens of good notes were afterwards shown by overhead projector to the foreign students. A second experiment was made using commercial tapes and the students were given a questionnaire on the value of the project for them. The aims appeared to be fulfilled of training the students to listen to different voices and to increase their skill in note-taking and getting the gist of a lecture in English.

70-338 George, H. V. Small language laboratory design. *English Language Teaching* (London), 24, 2 (1970), 133-7.

In a language laboratory each individual is working for himself and cooperation is not promoted. There is social acceptance of 'listening in' once students are accustomed to being monitored. Directional microphones are making booths unnecessary, and there should be no obligation to eavesdrop. The small 'package' language laboratory is not a good investment. Laboratory practice may reinforce mispronunciations. A tape recorder can be used for listening practice, 'structural drills', and oral comprehension exercises and tests. [The author describes in some detail an ideal language laboratory design.]

70-339 Hocking, Elton. Technology in foreign language teaching. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 2 (1970), 79-91.

Teachers in charge of the earliest language laboratories in schools and colleges were forced to produce their own materials, which were often amateurish and usually based on textbooks unsuited to that type of work. Early in the 1960s expertly prepared courses came on to the market. While the work was still experimental it was frequently boring and this led to damage to equipment by students. Progress with the new audio-lingual methodology came gradually but the students from these courses were then found to be lacking in the reading practice and translation skills required at the university. Their speech was more fluent than accurate, more colloquial than literary. Summer schools were established in America to train teachers in the use and maintenance of language laboratories among other skills and knowledge about modern pedagogy. Even these did not always encourage the use of the new equipment and the learning materials devised for it. Today the influence of the *NDEA* Institutes (summer schools) is declining and rather more specific training in teaching modern languages is beginning to be given in the university. Remaining institutes are concerned with the teaching of English as a new language or dialect for certain segments of American society. Concentrating on the hardcore problems of language learning they have the potential to make fundamental changes in the theory and practice of language teaching. Technology, in the form of films and television, is used for the transmission of culture and for primary school foreign-language teaching. Elementary school teaching may not lead to mastery of the language, but the cultural content for children may outweigh and even justify the linguistic learning. The best television programmes are supplemented by disc or tape recordings, activity books for the children and sometimes demonstration films for the teacher. Difficulties may arise in the reception of clear sound or clear pictures. Television and films are not used at elementary level. The colleges have made very little use of them. A fusion of language teaching and culture, leading to language learning and use, should

eventually overcome the American tradition of a little foreign language learning in order to pass entrance and graduation requirements.

70-340 Izaković, V. Die zwei Grundanwendungen des Sprachlabors und die verschiedenen Labortypen. [The two basic uses of the language laboratory and the various types of laboratory.] *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), **22**, 6 (1969), 596-601.

It is surprising how many teachers of foreign languages remain ignorant about the different conceptions of the language laboratory and of the associated teaching methods. Laboratories are often bought according to budget and the advice of the supplier rather than according to individual needs as assessed by the actual language teacher. It is important to decide whether a laboratory is intended primarily for private practice or for communal instruction although it must be understood that in both cases the laboratory can fulfil only an auxiliary role, ancillary and subordinate to the normal classroom. A whole series of language-laboratory installations is available, each one geared to particular needs. Firstly there is the mobile console using only one tape recorder but having a small number of headsets. Operation of this type of facility is dependent on good team-work and community spirit on the part of the students. Secondly there is the console and 'listening post' facility where students do not have their own tape recorders but do work individually. Third comes the 'language master' installation, which is an attempt to introduce the visual element into language learning. Fourthly there is the all-purpose laboratory, which is the most popular type of installation and the most useful for older learners. A number of refinements and extras are available for work in this type of installation. There are also some literally 'wireless' laboratories using small radio transmitters and receivers, but installations of this type have some disadvantages. Returning to the question of the choice between individual and group work in language laboratories it can be seen that only the all-purpose laboratory installations can accommodate both aims. Teaching programmes can easily be selected accordingly, and this advantage should always be borne in mind.

PRIMARY PUPILS

- 70-341 Schuh, Hermann.** Deutsch als Fremdsprache im Kindergarten der Auslandsschule. [German as a foreign language in infant schools overseas.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1**, 1 (1970), 35-42.

Spoken language is the only variety that a kindergarten child can learn. Mime and gesture will enable children to understand a command or question in a limited situation and they will soon learn to imitate foreign speech if it catches their interest. If it does not they will merely occupy themselves with other things. Listening to stories and repeating them can develop one kind of speech, but the most vital is communicative speech in which the melody, intonation and situation will all contribute to understanding. Spoken utterances are short as the partner may cut in or react in some other way. Language taught should be restricted to patterns which the children will want to use frequently. [Examples taken from the first three weeks with Spanish children.] Brief items can later be built into longer utterances and everyday speech in a familiar situation will allow new vocabulary to be easily introduced.

- 70-342 Sardini, Elsa.** Notes on a teaching experiment in modern languages in elementary school. *Scuola e Lingue Moderne* (Modena), **8**, 1 (1970), 11-14.

From 1961 to 1963 the author was in charge of teaching French in a school in Pisa. The children, of differing ages (4-12) and backgrounds, were grouped together initially and later separated when the younger children's capacity for spontaneous repetition was noticed and the older children's skilful association between sounds and words. Thereafter they mixed only for games.

A method of total involvement in the language was used, without the intermediary process of translation. Repetition of perfect sounds was insisted upon and both the live voice and tapes were used. An atmosphere of spontaneity was maintained with visuals (blackboard, posters, cards), games (including a variety of objects, colours and

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sounds), mime, imitation and stimulation of interest in the country concerned. Fantasy proved to be one of the essential qualities in language teaching. Each item taught bore a definite relationship to real situations, such as telephoning, snack-time, the station. Learning began with involvement in the atmosphere of the country and its language (emphasis was laid on oral use from the start), and progressed later to written expression. Use of subjects with which the child was familiar ensured a greater sense of security and mastery of the language.

SECONDARY PUPILS

70-343 Alt, Heinrich. Möglichkeiten und Grenzen fremdsprachlicher Bildung in der Realschule. [Possibilities and limitations of foreign-language teaching in the six-year secondary school.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 19, 2 (1970), 79-91.

The student choosing the six-year secondary school is examined, compared with his counterparts attending other types of schools, and found to be on the whole brighter than the student at the four- or five-year secondary school (*Hauptschule*) but less capable than the student at the nine-year grammar school (*Gymnasium*) which leads to university. Compared with the grammar school student he has considerably less time available for his language studies, and therefore a course designed for him has to be much less ambitious, particularly with regard to the second foreign language, the study of which is optional.

In some German *Länder* ministerial guidelines for this type of school are either non-existent, inadequate, or unrealistic, with North Rhine-Westphalia and Hesse being notable exceptions. Ideally this type of school should aim at giving the student a solid, basic, and largely practical knowledge of the language or languages studied. Grammar and spelling, though important, should never be taught for their own sake and in isolation.

The use of modern teaching aids and programmed courses is

highly desirable. Personal contact with native speakers of the language is invaluable and should be intensified, also the student should be encouraged to correspond with English- or French-speaking contemporaries. There are two ways of becoming a teacher at a six-year secondary school. These are described in detail. The training of future language teachers would be more effective if they taught for a year at an English or French school and if better instruction were given in the use of modern teaching aids.

TERTIARY STUDENTS

70-344 Castigliano, Luigi. La preparazione universitaria dei futuri insegnanti di lingue straniere. [The university preparation of future foreign-language teachers.] *Scuola e Lingue Moderne* (Modena), **8**, 3 (1970), 94-108.

At present modern-language courses are somewhat unevenly dispersed through Italian establishments of higher education and are usually studied in combination with another subject such as economics, mathematics or modern history. A simplification of administrative structure and programmes would enable more effective use to be made of capital, equipment and personnel. Existing courses need fresh assessment and their highly literary content needs to be tailored to the requirements of a future teacher. [In an appendix a suggestion for a language student's time-table is given with the examinations to be sat and the total number of hours to be spent on the various divisions of the work.]

70-345 Haile, H. G. Learning about language: introduction to the study of foreign language for college freshmen. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **54**, 2 (1970), 120-5.

The view that language is a form of behaviour, most effectively taught as such, has resulted in less thought in class *about* the subject. Soon we may be able to justify language requirements from elementary school to college only in terms of a total educational experience and

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not as the learning of a skill. [The author has conducted experimentally a one-semester introductory course for university students of German, composed partly of lectures on linguistics, philology, literary criticism and language-teaching methodology since medieval times, and partly of discussion groups led by the students themselves. Cultural and historical topics are most profitable for the discussion groups.] The study of language as documentation of man's cultural development and as a medium for the creative personality are fascinating for the beginner. With such a course the student feels that more is required of him than the assimilation of facts or proficiency in skills.

LESS ABLE PUPILS

70-346 Mayer, Frank C. Reaching and teaching the less able student in the foreign language classroom. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md) **43**, 4 (1970), 624-9.

'Intelligence' in children is frequently related to their socio-economic status and to some extent has to be accepted as a selective hereditary factor. As to whether less able students should be in foreign-language classes, this can only be answered according to the individual student's interests, values and goals. If the language is relevant to the individual and it is presented in such a manner that he can learn then it is defensible and to be recommended. Even mentally retarded children can compete fairly successfully so long as language activities remain aural and oral with emphasis on mimicry and memorization. Too often a school subject is taught through abstract reasoning which is beyond the reach of these children. Many of them find it difficult to look ahead and invest their efforts in the possibility of intangible rewards at a later date. They will need much guidance to enable them to choose and continue with courses which demand such perseverance.

IMMIGRANTS

- 70-347 Hanson, Caroline.** Tenses at secondary level: (4) the present perfect. *English for Immigrants* (London), 3, 2 (1970), 21-5.

The many colloquial uses of the present perfect make it difficult to define in relation to other past tenses. The most helpful rule refers to time not completed. Lists of adverbs with which the present perfect is used are rarely complete and sometimes in casual speech the adverb is only implied. The immigrant in London gets little help with this tense from listening to the speech of English neighbours, who frequently confuse *have* and *has* and construct irregular past participles wrongly. [Suggested practice material using horse-racing, a nagging mother, unsympathetic advice, and 'fantastic boasts' are illustrated.]

SPEECH

- 70-348 Gez, N. I.** Система упражнений и последовательность развития речевых умений и навыков. [Systematization of exercises and sequencing the development of speech skills and habits.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 6 (1969), 29-40.

Exercises to encourage good speaking habits are considered as a vital link in the chain of language-learning procedures. Factors influencing the construction of a system of exercises are discussed with reference to both western and Soviet psychological theories. Soviet studies in the pathology of speech provide evidence for understanding the basic stages inherent in the perception and generation of speech.

[It is suggested that attention should be paid to types of speech utterance as well as to the careful sequencing of steps involved in the production of each type, when constructing exercises.] Admissible exercises will respect two important factors as they proceed by stages: first, transformation, since it is concerned with the learner's understanding of the relationship between the given model and its derivative

examples; and, second, construction, as it involves the creation of examples analogous in structure.

Two basic forms of speech need to be met by exercises: prepared (i.e. associative) and unprepared, spontaneous speech. [The types of features upon which exercises in these two forms of speech should concentrate are listed and the main points of the whole article are summarized fully in tabular form.]

PRONUNCIATION

70-349 Malmberg, Bertil. Probleme der Ausspracheschulung. [Problems in teaching pronunciation.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1**, 1 (1970), 2-12.

Structural linguists distinguished between the content of linguistic signs and their expression. This 'expression' should be studied in both the spoken and the written languages but in this article only the spoken language is examined. Phonetic research carried out in the last half of the nineteenth century brought a new interest in speech to language teaching. Before this, pronunciation was learnt by imitation only. Saussure distinguished between form and substance. Both these aspects of the spoken language are important for teaching, but they belong to different levels and require different teaching methods and practice exercises. Some points of the phonological system have to be learnt consciously and others, more subtle, will be learnt unconsciously.

If the foreign language has a different phoneme distribution from the mother tongue a syntagmatic difficulty arises. Pupils learning a foreign language frequently have difficulty not in producing the right sound but in using it in the right place. Sentence stress and intonation also belong to the system of expression of a language. Like the segmental details, these vary from language to language. If they seem particularly complicated this is only because they have not been carefully enough described. A text for beginners should contain the simplest phonetic patterns. Only when the pupil has a basic understanding of intonation patterns and can use them correctly should he

attempt original sentences coloured with the intonation with which he wishes to convey personal experience.

As far as methodology is concerned, it is impossible to begin with phonematic considerations in isolation and later to study the sounds in normal speech or vice versa. Both have to be studied together.

Correct prosody can be more important than the accurate production of segmental phonemes. Ordinary people unskilled in linguistics frequently have great difficulty in understanding foreigners whose prosody is inaccurate.

There has recently been criticism of the value of frequency counts for establishing the vocabulary of textbooks but there is no doubt that, with regard to phonology, progression should be strictly observed from easy and frequent to the complicated and rare sounds. Teaching a phonetic script can be very helpful for learners of English and French, where the sounds vary considerably from the written language. For other languages the aid of electronic devices for repetition and correction may make a phonetic script unnecessary. Specialists have shown that effective listening has to be learnt and a phonetic script may help students to learn what to listen for. In any case advanced students need to be able to read phonetic script in order to look up pronunciation in a dictionary.

Present day mechanical equipment can be of great help in the hands of a skilled teacher, but a pupil can learn nothing from it before he has been taught how to listen and before the material used with the machines has been carefully prepared with an eye to the various levels of the learners.

70–350 Scovel, Tom. Foreign accents, language acquisition, and cerebral dominance. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **19**, 3/4 (1969), 245–54.

Young children can master the pronunciation of a second language, whereas adults can never rid themselves of a foreign accent. Most linguists and psychologists have taken the view that environmental differences between child-learning and adult-learning account for children's superior ability. Interference theory does not explain why

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children but not adults are able to overcome first language interference. Children can acquire a good accent even when they are taught in the same way as adults. Language acquisition is in childhood a trait, in adulthood a skill.

[The author quotes evidence to show that children's ability can be accounted for by cerebral dominance or lateralization.] The left or dominant hemisphere of the brain controls speech. Where the dominant hemisphere is damaged, speech is relocalized in the right hemisphere in children up to about twelve. Ability to master a foreign language without accent before twelve is probably related to the fact that lateralization has not become permanent. Syntax is less affected, perhaps because sound patterns are directly initiated by neuro-physiological mechanisms.

WRITING

70-351 Pincas, Anita. For the young teacher: writing in paragraphs. *English Language Teaching* (London), 24, 2 (1970), 182-5.

A paragraph is not simply a sequence of sentences. [The author analyses information paragraphs, and mentions other types.] Pupils should be helped to write well-arranged groups of sentences from the beginning. A pattern should be given, and jumbled sentences arranged in the same way. [Short bibliography.]

TEACHING LITERATURE

70-352 Coste, Daniel. De la langue à la littérature ou l'initiation progressive des textes d'auteurs dans une classe de langue. [From language to literature or the progressive introduction of literary texts into a language class.] *Voix et Images du Crédif* (St Cloud), 3 (1969), 1-4.

The written language should not be confused with the language of literature. The one is a means of communication used within a situation, the other is an artistic medium endeavouring to express

something unique. In teaching, the accent is now on the spoken language, which may be elliptical in expression and supplemented by gestures. The writer, confined to words, has to set his scene, describe his characters and create his own world, which may well be linked with reality but remain independent of it. Teachers are endeavouring to inculcate a norm so that their students' speech will conform to the habitual expressions of native speakers. The author is trying to create an individual style which will distinguish him from his fellows. For a long time literature was restricted to a certain lexis and registers. Even today a direct and immediate appreciation of literature is not accessible to beginners. They must first have some considerable experience of the language. Solid foundations in the spoken and written language are essential before proceeding to further discoveries.

ENGLISH See also abstracts 70-315, -318, -324, -331

70-353 Arnold, L. M. An experiment in second language teaching in Swaziland. *Teacher Education in New Countries* (London), **10**, 2 (1969), 156-64.

The experiment included forty-six schools, in which English was made the medium of instruction. Extra time was found for English. The methods used were based on the principles of enjoyment (which provided an immediate incentive), contextualization, and development of a love of reading. The activities included rhymes, songs, song games, walks, stories, situational playlets, story dramatization, demonstrations, and free play. Walks, demonstrations, and free play were discontinued at the third year, and crosswords, codes, and miming were later introduced. Coloured picture-books were provided for the first year; in the second year there were simple sentences below the pictures, and in the third year silent reading was started. Every teacher was given a short training course.

Difficulties arose from lack of money, frequent transfer of teachers, and the influx of pupils from schools not in the scheme. Evidence of success was derived from the impressions of teachers and visitors.

70-354 Breitenstein, P. H. That simple verb 'to have'. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 161-4.

Have as a full verb is normally followed by a direct object, and there is no corresponding passive. There is a pattern with a passive infinitive. *Got* can be used where *have* denotes possession. A similar point applies to the use of the continuous form. [Differences between American and British English are mentioned.]

Have also helps to form the *perfect* tense. It is also used as an auxiliary in forming orders and requests. Drilling for productive control should be reserved for the passive pattern. Auxiliary *have* is also used to express something experienced. (*I've never had that happen to me.*) It is used after *will* and *would* to mean *suffer* or *allow*. (*I won't have you saying such things.*) It is sometimes followed by a prepositional infinitive.

70-355 Carroll, John B. What next in English language teaching in Japan? *English Teachers' Magazine* (Tokyo), **18**, 11 (1970), 26-30.

Although Japan is spending 200 billion yen per year on English teaching there are still too few Japanese who can speak, understand and write English easily. English is difficult but not impossible for Japanese to learn well and modern audio-visual aids can assist non-native teachers. Better teacher training might effect considerable improvement and textbooks could be considerably updated. There is also a lack of inexpensive reading material in English at present. University entrance examinations affect the teaching in secondary schools and Japanese examinations at present require written translations consisting of unusual vocabulary and expressions. They are designed to reject students rather than to offer them a reasonable goal. The Japanese Association of College English Teachers has recently put forward proposals for revised entrance examinations.

- 70-356 Doss, Latif.** Teaching English in the United Arab Republic. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 169-72.

The author gives details of the teaching of English in the UAR in various types of school. Teaching techniques have changed, except in secondary schools. Reforms introduced in the preparatory schools are being extended to the secondary schools. The aural-oral approach, successful with younger children, is now being adopted for older children. Difficulties inherent in the language itself are being tackled. The examination system is being reformed. Classes are large and there is a shortage of teachers of English. Help has been received from English-speaking countries. Textbooks, formerly produced locally, may come more and more from abroad. More mechanical aids are needed, and teachers who have been to English-speaking countries.

- 70-357 Farrokhpey, Mahmoud.** Scientific English for Iranian students. *TEFL* (Beirut), **3**, 3 (1969), 1-3.

English is begun in the secondary school. Eighty-four per cent of all upper secondary school students take science or mathematics as their major subject. Two-thirds of the literature on engineering is in English and students must be able to read scientific texts. A list of technical terms and phrases must be compiled. Iranian students learn some of these terms through Farsi texts, but not many in their English classes. Specialized reading materials are needed for the upper secondary school. Technical vocabulary should be taught mainly through examples and illustrations. Texts should be related to the topics being studied in the science course. Supplementary reading must be available. Structures common in scientific writing should be emphasized, and forms used exclusively in literature should be eliminated from the English course.

70-358 Imhoof, Maurice. An aspect of the English language programme in Afghanistan. *English Language Teaching* (London), 24, 2 (1970), 179-82.

As part of the effort to make education universal in Afghanistan in the 1950s and 60s the Kabul University programme aimed to provide Afghan teachers of English as quickly as possible. It also aimed to train leaders or supervisors for in-service work. Professional leaders needed the kind of training which emphasized language principles applied to a variety of special problems. The Afghan situation has a number of universal characteristics. [Enumerated.]

Emotional attachment to one's own language may be in conflict with official support of another language. Linguistic issues have become political problems. Adoption of an international language may remove some of the emotional fervour and many emerging countries need English as their international language. Non-native speakers of English will increasingly form the majority of the teachers. A culture-bound viewpoint should be avoided in preparing language materials; language universals should be emphasized, writing should be simple, and aids should be provided to assure reading comprehension.

70-359 Pattison, Bruce. The present perfect again. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 2 (1969), 151-6.

The simple present perfect and the present perfect continuous are two of the most troublesome tenses in the English verb system. Context is the only safe guide to the selection of a particular verb form. [The author comments on Walker's article on 'Teaching the present perfect tenses' in *TESOL Quarterly* 1, 4 (1967), finding points to approve or criticize in his treatment of this problem.]

- 70-360 Pittman, G. A.** Advanced vocabulary development—the bring-come nexus. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 147-54.

For advanced students intensive work on the commonest English words is needed. These two verbs *bring* and *come* appear in many phrases involving abstract nouns and attached prepositions. There are other and almost equally important pairs, but for frequency and variety of expression *bring* and *come* require special consideration. Substitution drills can be worked on a sentence such as 'this brought the facts to mind' with advanced students who are wide readers, and tense and voice manipulation can also be practised. [Examples and suggestions are provided in detail.]

- 70-361 Rees, Alun L. W.** English in the Peruvian educational system. *English Language Teaching* (London), **24**, 2 (1970), 173-8.

[The author gives a brief survey of the background and of the place of English in the secondary school system. He discusses standards of proficiency and the causes of shortcomings. He gives an account of teachers and teacher training, referring to the universities, the training colleges, in-service courses, and foreign help.]

- 70-362 Sako, Sydney.** Writing proficiency and achievement tests. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), **3**, 3 (1969), 237-49.

A description is given in this article of suitable test items designed to measure listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. The use of these different items will depend upon the objectives of the training course. Teachers of English to speakers of other languages will play a vital role in checking these objectives and needs and finally in constructing the proper instrument for evaluation.

70-363 Schmitz, Albert. Technisches Englisch an der Volkshochschule. [Technical English in the Folk High School.] *Englisch an Volkshochschulen* (Munich), 23 (1970), 371-6.

Distinction has to be drawn between scientific, technical and engineering English. Technology is not an independent science but consists of the application of principles established in the various physical sciences to manufacturing processes. When faced with a group of adult students wishing to learn 'technical' English it is essential to know from what trades and occupations they come and consequently what their needs are. A language teacher with some technical knowledge will probably be of more use to these students than a technician or engineer with some knowledge of languages. Students do not expect to be taught the specialized vocabulary of their own branch. Most recognize that they have to work at this themselves with a good dictionary. They do, however, need to be made aware of words belonging to everyday vocabulary which acquire a special technical meaning (i.e. *seize, governor*), and of words very close in meaning which are used in restricted fields (*motor/engine/machine*). Students will need to be divided into an intermediate and an advanced group. The study of texts may well involve translation as students will often in practice need to translate. As far as possible, classes should be conducted in English. Some practice should be given in conversation for those students who will come into contact with overseas visitors. Themes of a popular kind related to technology should be chosen as no deep technical discussions will be possible among students from different fields [topics suggested]. For advanced students technical journals will provide useful reading matter. In oral work students can be encouraged to explain a particular process or problem in their own fields.

All possible cooperation between teachers in this field is advantageous. [Bibliography.]

70-364 Yarmohammadi, Lotfollah. English consonants and learning problems for Iranians: a contrastive sketch. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 3 (1969), 231-6.

Consonantal contrasts between modern American English and 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.

70-365 Yorkey, Richard. Which desk dictionary is best for foreign students of English? *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 3, 3 (1969), 257-70.

Looking first at West's *New Method Dictionary* and Hornby's *Advanced Learner's Dictionary* the author surveys the dictionaries available to foreign students of English in America. A student needs to be taught what a desk dictionary contains and how to get most value from it. Seven special needs of foreign learners are listed: (1) pronunciation symbols, (2) guidance in hyphenating words, (3) definitions that are clear with plenty of examples, (4) definitions of student slang and colloquialisms, (5) definitions of common idioms, phrases and two-word verbs, (6) guidance in the choice of language registers and American *v.* English usage, (7) biographical, historical and literary information. Dictionaries examined under these headings are: *The American College Dictionary*, *Funk and Wagnall's Standard College Dictionary*, *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*, *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, College Edition*, and *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*.

FRENCH See also abstracts 70-313, -342

70-366 Terry, Robert M. 'Faut-il' or 'est-ce qu'il faut': inversion versus 'est-ce que'. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), 43, 3 (1970), 480-2.

The results of frequency studies on the use of *est-ce que* and the

inverted question form are recorded, showing that *est-ce que* cannot be regarded as an easy option for the question form. The frequent conversational form *il est malade, ton père?* using anaphoric repetition, is also noted. The situation in which a question is asked and the expectation of a particular type of response, rather than syntactic functions, determine the manner in which a speaker forms a question. Inversion has weak interrogative intensity and is mostly used for rhetorical or exclamatory questions, or where curiosity is not great. Instances of *est-ce que* are less numerous apart from preponderance in first person singular questions and questions of the type *qu'est-ce que?* Contextually *est-ce que* gives maximum intensity to a question and is used to express surprise. There is no clear-cut system for determining interrogative constructions, yet the choice is not arbitrary and a conversationally oriented textbook should not be based on what ought to be done but on what *is* done.

GERMAN *See also abstracts 70–341, –345*

70–367 Behrens, Ernst. Deutsch als Fremdsprache in Radio und Fernsehen. [German as a foreign language on radio and television.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 1, 1 (1970), 42–5.

The British and French have been broadcasting language courses for German much longer than Germany itself. The Goethe Institute, Munich, prepared German language programmes for speakers of a number of different mother tongues from 1966 onwards and these were also available on tapes. These courses were for beginners. Two series followed, each with thirteen interpretations of modern literary texts. There is now a demand for refresher courses for those who already have some knowledge of German. The German radio and Goethe Institute are now cooperating on a programme which it is hoped will be complete, with an accompanying book, by the end of the year. The television course *Guten Tag* produced by Bavarian radio and the Goethe Institute, Munich, has been used successfully in Goethe Institutes in many countries. It has also proved useful for seasonal labourers coming into Germany chiefly from Italy. A second

part to the television course is now being prepared and should be ready and available to foreign television networks at the end of 1971.

- 70-368 Littmann, Arnold.** Novitäten in der deutschen Aussprache: 'gemäßigte Hochlautung' als Norm für den Deutschunterricht. [New trends in German pronunciation: 'moderated' articulation as the norm in the teaching of German.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **18**, 5/6 (1968), 165-76.

Two dictionaries have appeared which attempt to define variations in pronunciation: Siebs' *Deutsche Aussprache* and the *Wörterbuch der Deutschen Aussprache*. A distinction is made between 'pure' (the ultra-correct) pronunciation and 'moderated' articulation (that usual in everyday speech).

Various trends are noted: the tendency towards apocope of *-r*, of *-e* after a vowel, after nasal or liquid consonants of *-j*. Reductions of *-el* and *-em* are also noted, as are reductions of some consonantal groups. Instances where glottal stops are not reduced are quoted. Classifications of 'moderated' and 'pure' do not cover all levels of speech—dialect, language affected by dialect and standard everyday speech—but the compilers of the 1969 edition of Siebs are aware of this. They give Swiss and Austrian variants, where the *Wörterbuch* concerns itself more with general trends.

Both books are valuable for German spoken-language study, but they pay scant attention to style and are overburdened with foreign names. There is still a need for a comprehensive dictionary.

- 70-369 Nickel, Gerhard.** Bericht über Ergebnisse der kontrastiven Analyse sprachlicher Phänomene im Deutschen und Englischen. [Report on the results of contrastive analysis of phenomena observed in the English and German spoken languages.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **18**, 5/6 (1968), 140-52.

Contrastive linguistics is only a small branch of linguistic study but

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it has had a significant influence on foreign language teaching. It shows the need for different textbooks for teaching pupils of different mother tongues, and for foreign teachers to know something of the mother tongue of their pupils. It has helped to reveal causes of linguistic confusion and show how these may be eliminated; it has highlighted differences in idiom, and shown the stylistic acceptability of expressions. Compilation of dictionaries has been improved. [Details are given of the points of comparison between German and English undertaken by PAKS—Project for Applied Contrastive Linguistics. So far work has been done on adjectives, adverbs, relative clauses and lexicology. When the work has been completed a reference grammar is planned for German and English to provide a basis on which to construct teaching materials for various levels.]

RUSSIAN *See also abstract 70-310*

70-370 Vasil'eva, A. N. Глагол в разговорной речи: (3) индикатив. [The verb in conversational speech: (3) the indicative.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1969), 40-6.

Colloquial speech is characterized by 'time-shifts', that is, the use of forms properly belonging to one time plane to denote activity in another.

Three tenses are investigated. The present tense is used to denote activity in the immediate, near or distant future in order to give a proposal a greater sense of reality, or activity in the immediate past with a view to lending it a graphic quality; and to express polite imperatives.

The simple future is used to record activity in the present in order to express immediacy or modal force (desire); to convey the sense of a lack of activity in the past and present, which is likely to continue into the future (especially with the negative); to communicate the speaker's intention (first person only), the worthiness of an activity or the suddenness of a past action; and to denote commands or requests.

The past tense—and predominantly the perfective past—is used

to express readiness or intention to carry out an activity, the repetitive nature of a series of activities, and the sufficiency or possibility of an activity. It is also employed in the sense of an imperative, where immediate action is expected, and in a graphic sense, conveying the idea that some future activity is seen as already inevitably completed.

Two leading factors in this phenomenon of 'time-shift' are the use of the perfective aspect and the speaker's tendency to actualize an event mentally in subjective terms. [All three divisions are documented with examples and there is an appendix of exercises based on the article.]