

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

72-20 Mueller, Theodore H. Could the New Key be a wrong key? *French Review* (Baltimore), **44**, 6 (1971), 1085-93.

Enrolments in foreign-language classes in the United States are dropping. Severe criticism has been levelled at New Key (audio-lingual) methods and a comparative study of the audio-lingual and cognitive code learning theories was made with classes both using the programmed text *Basic French* by Mueller and Niedzielski. The results were measured by MLA Cooperative tests in listening, reading and writing. Results from the cognitive code learning courses were superior to those obtained from the audio-lingual course. The withdrawal rate from the cognitive code learning courses was smaller than from the audio-lingual course. Some features of cognitive code learning also seem to influence motivation and this type of course appealed to the academically superior student. Nevertheless the various aspects of the cognitive code learning theory need further investigation and better means of implementing them in the teaching and learning process need to be developed. [Some exercises are suggested as possible moves in this direction.] Programmed instruction, if it is merely a means of implementing the audio-lingual theory, will not improve student performance but it can also be the tool of other newer language learning theories.

EPQ ED 973

72-21 Nemser, William. Approximative systems of foreign language learners. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **9**, 2 (1971), 115-23.

Contrastive analysis is at present attempting to explain the behaviour of a pupil confronted by two languages by examining resemblances and differences in an attempt to discover an adequate teaching methodology. The pupil is likely to develop a transient approximative

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language system of his own. Such an approximative language has its own system which is recognizable for instance in the accent of a group of nationals speaking a particular target language. Stable varieties are also found in immigrant speech. Another sub-group of approximative language is the kind of *ideolects* spoken by people with frequent but circumscribed contact with native-speakers (such as waiters and hotel reservations clerks). These learner pidgins may be preserved in the language-types designated as pidgins and creoles. Classroom teachers, though aware of general patterns in learner behaviour, have rarely attempted comprehensive studies of these regularities within a linguistic framework. Such a study is necessary in addition to contrastive analysis, which is limited in its approach because learner behaviour cannot be exhaustively described without reference to the approximative system.

EPQ ED

72-22 Oller, John W. Language use and foreign language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 9, 2 (1971), 161-6.

The theory of transformational grammar has been concerned with *how* linguistic units are put together without giving sufficient attention to *what* information is being coded. This failure has carried over into theories of second language learning and methods of second language teaching. An adequate theory of language teaching must be based on a knowledge both of complex linguistic forms and complex sets of extra-linguistic information. The current trend among some leading transformationalists is to move away from language as a self-contained system towards language as a medium of communication. It has been shown that sentences are learned more readily when placed in a meaningful sequence. One of the most important problems for further research and experimentation is the relative importance of syntactic, semantic and pragmatic factors in second language learning.

EPQ ED

- 72-23 Orton, Eric.** Twenty questions on the precarious state of the revolution in language teaching methods. *Visual Education* (London), June (1971), 15-17.

Insufficient information is being obtained as to how new language-teaching methods are working out. Queries remain on the efficacy and extent of present fundamental research; much more needs to be known on such points as the use of the printed text in modern audio-visual and audio-lingual courses, the adequacy of pictures provided with audio-visual courses, the use of bilingual vocabularies, the amount of grammatical and phonetic information to be conveyed, the place of cultural elements in future language courses. Testing techniques need re-examining in the light of modern methods being used. Much diverse information has been obtained from the linguists but no scientifically founded, clearly conceived new method has been evolved.

EPQ ED

- 72-24 Parr, Betty.** A modern language for the majority. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 9, 1 (1971), 7-12.

Nearly all children should have the chance of studying a language at school. Until the last decade the development of modern language studies in Britain has been slow. Since 1963 there has been a national experiment in teaching French to children of 8-13 years. Many slow children get great satisfaction from language learning.

Mixed ability groups are one of the main problems. A daily lesson is necessary in the early stages, and frequent contact with the language is desirable even later. Better methods of assessing and recording progress are needed. Study of the everyday language and of the country itself are relevant for all pupils. Direct links with Europe, especially by means of links between schools, are being developed. If the first foreign language is well taught, boys and girls are the more likely to want to learn a second one. The learning of a foreign language can give confidence to below-average pupils.

EPQ ED

- 72-25 **Corder, S. P.** Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 9, 2 (1971), 147-59.

The learner of a foreign language develops a dialect which deserves study. This kind of idiosyncratic dialect is regular, systematic and meaningful but it is unstable, as is the idiosyncratic dialect of the infant learning his mother tongue. It is misleading to refer to the idiosyncratic sentences of either of these groups as deviant or erroneous. The only sentences which could be called erroneous are failures in performance, such as slips of the tongue which are normally correctable by the speaker himself. Idiosyncratic sentences involve no failure in performance and cannot be corrected by the learner because the rules of the target language are not yet known.

Child language is considered worthy of study because it is assumed that certain features of one child's language are common to all children of that age. The situation appears to be similar in the case of the learner of a second language. This belief is inherent in the notion of 'teaching a class'. Until longitudinal studies of second language learners are undertaken there will not be much headway with finding out how people learn languages. The habit formation theory of learning has maintained that correct habits are formed by intensive drilling. Mistakes indicate only that the learning process is not complete. The alternative view is that making errors is a necessary and inevitable part of language learning. The teacher needs to know the hypotheses which lie behind the errors in order to provide the pupil with information which will enable him to form a more adequate concept of a rule in the target language.

EPQ ED ADN AMD

- 72-26 **Slama-Cazacu, Tatiana.** Linguistique appliquée et méthodologie des langues vivantes. [Applied linguistics and methodology for modern languages.] *Contact* (Aarau), 17 (1971), 17-24.

The term psycholinguistics came into being after 1954 but is not always used with a clear understanding of the meaning. It does not imply a branch of psychology or of linguistics but an interdisciplinary

area with its own aims and methodology. Psycholinguistics concentrates on the messages conveyed by language, in order to establish a link between them and the causes which determine the attitudes of the speakers. It investigates why different people learn second languages in different ways. It can shed light on the best age for beginning to learn foreign languages and on various questions associated with bilingualism, teaching methods, psychological problems of learning, and considerations of method and age in conjunction with testing, the role of the teacher as an element in the whole scheme of communication and as intermediary for the teaching method, and the preparation of teaching materials for the foreign language. [Details developed.] Contrastive linguistics can analyse the relations between two language systems but the most important factor is the encounter of these two systems within the human being who is learning a language and this is where psycholinguistics can help.

EPQ ED AG

CULTURAL BACKGROUND

72-27 Weiss, Gerhard H. The language teacher – an interpreter of culture. *Die Unterrichtspraxis: for the teaching of German* (Philadelphia, Pa), 4, 1 (1971), 36-42.

Language teaching only makes sense if it is closely allied with a presentation of the civilization and culture of the area whose language is being studied. Such a presentation must not concentrate on folklore and picturesque ceremony to the exclusion of modern architecture, current advertising and a comparison of small details of day-to-day living in the home country. Geography should be integrated with language learning and concepts of social behaviour can be discussed. Good teaching can help to overcome misconceptions, prejudices and stereotypes. Later glimpses of literature, the arts, philosophy, history and political science can broaden the spectrum. Such teaching is difficult but if cultural background is added to language teaching the students will realize that they are dealing with a living force and may come to realize the relativity of their own world.

EPQ EFG

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

- 72-28 Taylor, Linda L., John C. Catford, Alexander Z. Guiora and Harlan L. Lane. Psychological variables and ability to pronounce a second language. *Language and Speech* (Teddington), 14, part 2 (1971), 146-57.

This study tests the hypothesis that the ability to speak a second language like a native speaker is related to an individual's sensitivity to cues in interpersonal situations. Twenty-eight students at the University of Michigan formed an experimental group. A test of empathy was given by showing three thirty-second sequences of film of a woman in an interview. The students recorded each change in facial expression which they noticed. In addition a language was taught which was new to all the participants. All the tests were taped and the pronunciation judged by native linguists. Results indicated differences in speaking skills which were related to independent personality characteristics. An empathy dimension, defined by four variables (tolerance to anxiety, intelligence, involvement in emotional experiences, and perception of emotional expression) was related to correct pronunciation of specific details, while an intuition dimension was related to general authenticity of pronunciation of repeated sentences. Fluency of pronunciation and facility in mimicking, both consistent with intuitive skills, aid in the impression of general authenticity. [Bibliography.]

EPQ EG AJ

TESTING

- 72-29 Brière, Eugène J. Are we really measuring proficiency with our foreign language tests? *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 4, 4 (1971), 385-91.

Definitions of 'achievement' and 'proficiency' in foreign language performance are given. The development of different methods of teaching foreign languages and the tests related to each method are reviewed and discussed. Current attempts to measure 'proficiency'

in foreign languages are considered inadequate. A plea is made for increased interdisciplinary experimentation in all areas of language testing.

EPQ EHP

- 72-30 Clark, John L. D.** Foreign language testing in the United States. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **9**, 1 (1971), 39-45.

The basic categories of testing are: aptitude, classroom achievement, school entrance or placement, teacher certification, special purpose, and miscellaneous.

[The author gives examples of what is available in the United States in each of these categories.] Multiple-choice techniques are widely used. Active production tests of reading and writing have also been developed. Electronic aids are widely used. Language competence has been divided into discrete areas: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

EPQ EHP 973

- 72-31 Oller, John W.** Dictation as a device for testing foreign-language proficiency. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 254-9.

Evaluation of an ESL placement examination revealed that dictation scores correlated more highly with those of other parts of the test than did any other part. Dictation seemed to be the best single measure of the English-language skills tested. It provided a more comprehensive sampling of the integrative skills involved in understanding complex English structures than the more isolative and analytical objective tests.

Both Bloomfieldian and Chomskyan linguists have treated language as if it were a self-contained system. If language cannot be explained apart from its use as a medium of communication, analytical tests which remove linguistic units from the meaningful contexts in which they occur are less valid than integrative tests, which are more relevant to communication skills. In dictation, a student is tested for his

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ability to discriminate phonological units, to decide on word boundaries, and to translate his analysis into a graphemic representation. [Bibliography.]

EPQ EHP

72-32 Robinson, Peter. Oral expression tests (2). *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 260-6.

The test situation must be motivating and real, so that the subject speaks freely and so that his production is representative of his general capacity to speak in most situations. The test should be divided into two sections: interview and discussion. Since oral expression involves both question-and-answer and narration, both sections are necessary. The interviewer's subjective impressions should not be neglected. The criteria of comprehensibility and acceptability should underlie any evaluation. [The author illustrates problems of evaluation and gives examples of test items.] The analysis of oral production should be standardized, and student record-cards drawn up.

Too much attention has been given to non-participating (objective) tests. Research should be concerned with analysing and assessing language production, and with the most effective test situation to encourage such production. Non-participating tests evaluate the subject's passive knowledge of the language. The administrative convenience of non-participating tests conceals their limitations. The most effective means of discovering how much a student has benefited from an oral language programme is to place him in a situation where he has to communicate. [Bibliography.]

EPQ EHP ATD

72-33 Truchot, Claude. Les tests de langue: réévaluation critique [Language tests: a critical reevaluation.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 2 (1971), 103-12.

The problems which are raised in composing tests are the same as those posed by language teaching methodology in general and the application of linguistics and psychology to teaching. Care has to be taken that the test measures exactly what it is intended to measure.

The essential quality of a test is its validity. Diagnostic tests include progress and achievement tests; proficiency tests are prognostic. Aptitude tests can have a certain value but one may wonder to what extent they judge what has already been acquired rather than what may be acquired. Structural analysis has proved useful in test composition because it has enabled language to be analysed but such a system is limited because it represents the elements of an abstract system. Testing a knowledge of structures presupposes that structures can be isolated and taught separately, that they can be memorized by the repetition of correct responses. The linguist, however, should not be expected to compose a pedagogical method from his discoveries. He can only supply hypotheses which the teacher can verify in practice.

It is really only tests of comprehension which can be evaluated objectively. Where creative powers are being tested one can only attempt to establish rigorous criteria for a subjective evaluation. The problem would be simplified if we knew to what extent the measurement of language comprehension could be used to predict mastery of expression. Some recent experiments show a high correlation between a comprehension test and a 'scored interview'. Psychologists have drawn our attention, as far as foreign-language teaching is concerned, to the role of attention and short-term and long-term memory. Linguistic analysis of utterances has revealed a number of variables; syntactic, morphological, phonetic and prosodic complexities; lexical semantic and even rhetorical difficulties. Advanced oral tests can introduce more complex variables such as pauses, hesitations and dialectal variations. Progress tests are simplified in that they are constructed from a corpus. A proficiency test is more complicated. [Details of suggested procedure.]

Evaluating written language is a different technique but can still consist in multiple choice questions on a text. Such a test will have to be based on the lexical, syntactic and stylistic variables which enter into comprehension of a text. Traditional techniques of translation and essay writing are skills in themselves and as a means of evaluating knowledge of a language can only be subjective. One might go so far as to say that there cannot be a method unless there is a reliable, scientific and objective evaluation of its results.

EPQ EHP

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- 72-34 **Zierer, Ernesto.** The test of aural perception in foreign language teaching from the standpoint of information theory. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 9, 2 (1971), 125-30.

Although it is generally accepted that the correct production of the sound segments of a language presupposes their correct recognition, the reverse is not true. Suitable recognition tests have been elaborated by various scholars. A standard aural test of perception in a certain language for students of a different language background is usually obtained after a repeated try-out with a homogeneous group of students. The results obtained, expressed in values of information theory, may help to determine the quality of the test.

EPQ EHP AJK

TEACHER TRAINING

- 72-35 **Rees, Alun L. W.** A direct questionnaire for the language teacher. *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 38 (1970), 16-23.

The teacher must be able to gauge such things as the students' attitudes to what they are learning and whether he is teaching in the way he thinks he does. [The author describes a multiple-choice questionnaire used at the University of Trujillo.] The questionnaire pinpoints specific aspects of teaching and strengthens motivation. [A complete questionnaire is given.]

EPQ EKF EL

TEACHING METHODS

- 72-36 **Beaudot, Alain.** Propositions pour une psychopédagogie des méthodes audio-visuelles intégrées. [Proposals for a psychopedagogy of integrated audio-visual methods.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), 65, 1 (1971), 39-45.

It is surprising that psychologists are not more closely involved in working out a method for foreign-language teaching as it is necessary

to know to what extent intelligence and personality are involved in language learning. Interdisciplinary problems are great yet it is only through cooperation between psychologists, linguists and teachers that useful work can be done. The concept of creativity should prove a useful meeting ground for these three. Psychometricians have investigated and analysed the concept, which should permit an analysis of the creative abilities of an individual. Linguists, including Chomsky, are also interested in 'creativity'. Chomsky distinguishes two kinds: one which obeys rules and one which changes rules. The creativity of 'parole' interests both the linguist, who is concerned with performance as much as competence, and the psychologist, who is concerned with the dynamics of intelligence.

An audio-visual method of foreign-language teaching will produce some hypotheses illustrating a concept of creativity. Of the four phases of presentation, explanation, repetition and exploitation the creative phase of exploitation presents the greatest difficulties. This is not surprising to a psychologist because he sees here the juxtaposition of two very different modes of thought. It is certain that the creative ability of a pupil will be greater or less according to whether his perception of the information provided is broad or narrow. The pedagogical implications are that information provided verbally and visually needs to be in large chunks rather than atomist in its presentation. Work is needed on the production of exercises which will help the less creative pupils to modify their mode of perception so that they can get the best advantage from audio-visual methods. The very fact that there are so many words describing the exploitation phase shows the uncertainty which surrounds it.

Little is known about the influence of audio-visual methods on creativity. Silent films may encourage pupils to personal expression in the foreign language, but which films? Tape recordings allow pupils to hear conversations in which familiar structures and lexis are used in a variety of ways. Sets of transparencies leading outwards from lesson situations can lead pupils to express themselves in sentences which they have never heard. Other means are possible but it is essential to start from a clear understanding of the problem.

EPQ EL

72-37 **Butzkamm, Wolfgang.** Aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit. [An enlightened monolingual approach to language teaching.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 18, 1 (1971), 40-55.

Little attention has been paid up to now to the bilingual method developed by C. J. Dodson, although he calls for a drastic re-thinking of language-teaching methods. His ideas were tested in the classroom at all levels, from elementary to adult. The experiments involved Welsh pupils learning German and French. Dodson discovered that pupils learn new words faster if these are introduced together with the printed word equivalent. [A detailed description of how to avoid undesirable interference is provided.] Other authors, who have come to the same conclusion, are quoted. Dodson's experiments also revealed that the use of the native language during the acquisition of meaning has a number of advantages: a translation takes less time than an explanation in the foreign language or via pictures. It also ensures the elimination of misunderstandings inherent in other methods of conveying meaning. When he knows the exact meaning the pupil can concentrate on the other aspects of word acquisition and retention. Dodson uses pictures at a later stage, during the drill phase, as an additional source of stimuli. The ideal text for the acquisition of new words describes a course of events and should involve dialogue.

The author points out that in Germany the monolingual approach is universally accepted and used in language teaching. The theoretical basis goes back to the controversy about the direct method versus the traditional method emphasizing grammar and translation. However, the results obtained by the monolingual approach have not appreciably improved and criticism is growing. [Some facts and arguments quoted.]

The native language cannot be suppressed even if its use is not allowed in the classroom. It is ever-present in the pupil's mind, and even if a meaning is given non-verbally he will automatically link it with the equivalent native-language concept. The author therefore advocates the use of the mother tongue for conveying meaning and for certain drills, at least in the initial three years.

In conclusion, Dodson's analysis of the learning process and his ideas on how to improve the intake of information are discussed.

EPQ EL

72-38 Famiglietti, Michele. Sperimentazione sulle prove grammaticate di costruzione guidata. [Experimentation with grammar tests following lessons which use guided construction.] *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata* (Rome), 3, 1 (1971), 29-53.

The tests were carried out in the scholastic year 1969-70 on a group of twenty-five boys, aged between eleven and twelve. The students were from a southern Italian working-class background, whose families were attempting to establish middle-class urban roots and habits. Their normal speech was a neapolitan dialect; the national language was heard through the mass communication media and was used only in official situations; the majority were unable to express themselves fully in it. Intelligence tests indicated that they were a normally able group, and corresponded in cultural and intellectual ability to their national and American counterparts.

'Guided construction' is a type of grammatical exercise based on the following precept: the student is asked to compose a linguistic sequence according to the specific demands of a grammatical order, using the basic expressive elements given him. For example: Maria, to approach, friend, street, becomes 'Maria approached her friend in the street'. A varied scale of examples of guided construction can be developed from the initial module.

As it is possible to demand from the student variations of construction in grammatical order, likewise the provision of expressive elements offered to the student can be varied: these can range from simple expressive words to those related to an abstract concept or a situation, or even proceed to other fields of perception, eliminating words and substituting photographic images.

The plan of the tests was to start from syntax and move towards an analysis of morphology, phonology and other linguistic elements as functional parts of the sentence. The forms of the tests reflected,

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where possible, structures with which the students were already familiar, and were carried out during the year simultaneously with normal work in Italian. The objectives were to measure the didactic value of guided construction; to delineate a typology for guided construction; to determine its functional aspects; to determine the efficacy of each of these types and their values in relation to other types of grammatical exercise; and to develop linguistic and expressive powers.

Results indicated that students performed better on tests of simple construction, in both written and oral free composition. Tests based on photographic rather than verbal stimulus gave more rewarding results than those based on word/situation or word/concept, which in turn showed better results than those based on lexical features. This implies that the freer the student is in his mode of expression, the greater become his powers of reflection and expression. The author suggests that guided construction could usefully be used for tests and courses on syntax.

(450) EPQ EL

72-39 Finocchiaro, Mary. Myth and reality in TESOL: a plea for a broader view. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington), 5, 1 (1971), 1-17.

An eclectic, integrated approach, one which combines non-conflicting and mutually supporting theories from several disciplines, is the most productive. Too much attention has been paid to linguistics and too little to psychology, anthropology, and sociology.

The aural-oral period which precedes the learners' introduction to print does not need to be long. Various factors should help to determine the period of deferment. Dialogues should be meaningful to the learners and should not be parroted. There should be no hard and fast rule about the placing of dialogue study in the lesson. The learners' interests, motivation, and welfare should be taken into account before placing restrictions on vocabulary growth. They should be helped to talk about their own native culture in the new language. Occasionally a learner should be permitted to help another in the native language they both speak.

The teacher should help the pupil to eliminate the intermediate translation step as quickly as possible through a variety of planned and brisk drills. Perception of structure facilitates its acquisition, and a conscious awareness of it should precede drills and activities. Both the habit formation and the cognitive code theory should be applied in language teaching. Pattern practice is more meaningful if the learners are aware of the items being drilled. Too much time should not be devoted to the manipulation phase. Pupils should be encouraged to use the new items in normal and relevant activities. Too early an insistence on mastery is discouraging. Instead, the movement towards the terminal behaviour desired should be marginal. Some learners will never be able to eliminate a foreign accent. The teacher is the most important variable. [The author lists the knowledge and skills a language-teacher needs to develop.]

Pupils will have various strategies for learning, helpful and unhelpful. Teachers should make it possible for learners to satisfy goals *they* consider important. They must be helped to retain pride in their native way of life. Both instrumental and integrative motivation should be fostered.

[The author comments on a number of aspects of methodology and of language-teaching techniques; for example the teaching of pronunciation and of grammar, the presentation of new items, the choice of vocabulary, the trial and error method, the correction of errors, and transformation drills, dialogues and reading comprehension.]

EPQ EL

72–40 Müller, Richard Matthias. Was ist ‘situational teaching’: ein Vorschlag zur Systematisierung. [What is ‘situational teaching’: a suggestion for systematization.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **18**, 3 (1971), 229–39.

There are no criteria by which a teaching item can be recognized as belonging or not belonging to ‘situational teaching’. A text may be linked to a classroom situation or to a situation quite outside the didactic situation. When texts for teaching purposes are compiled it is

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advisable to see that these are suitable for situational teaching. A fully situational unit needs four qualities: (1) the content must contain suitable points for teaching, (2) the unit needs to be complete in itself, though it may be part of a longer scene, (3) a suitable oral teaching situation may arise spontaneously from an incident which occurs in the classroom or it may be contrived artificially by the teacher; (4) situational teaching must lead eventually to a certain degree of spontaneity of speech as the learners' abilities increase, though at first it will be carried out simply by the pupils learning their role by heart.

Finally, on the psychological level, the pupils must identify themselves with the situation. This is an individual psychological factor which is most important for the success of situational teaching. A good choice of situation for the class in question will facilitate this identification. Learning correct intonation and gestures will also help with identification. Inhibitions about role-playing have to be broken down. Whether this can be done successfully will depend on the teacher-pupil relationship. The pupils must not be afraid of the teacher's criticism, nor of the ridicule of classmates.

EPQ EL

72-41 **Norris, Robert.** Language through description. *English for Immigrants* (London), 4, 3 (1971), 14-17.

At a stage of language teaching when pupils have acquired an elementary knowledge, the teacher has a choice of three basic and interdependent modes: formal, in which words and structures are graded and then worked through; thematic, in which the subject-matter is as important as the language practice; and functional, in which attention is directed to the use of language in intellectual areas such as time, position and direction, comparison, and cause and effect. [The author describes in detail a 'functional' method (symbol-drawing in accordance with instructions given from behind a screen) which should help children to describe things more efficiently.]

EPQ EL

- 72-42 **Richards, Jack C.** A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. *English Language Teaching* (London), 25, 3 (1971), 194-219.

Not all errors are caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue. Intralingual and developmental errors reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage and illustrate some of the characteristics of language acquisition. [The author tabulates and classifies errors made by learners of various nationalities.] Where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language, he is generalizing. Over-generalization is associated with the reduction of redundancy. Certain types of teaching increase the frequency of over-generalized structures. Closely related to over-generalization is the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. Analogy is a factor in the misuse of prepositions and articles and some pattern exercises encourage this misuse. Sometimes rules are incompletely applied. Comprehension of distinctions in the target language may be faulty.

Contrastive-based teaching is characterized by excessive attention to points of difference at the expense of realistic English. Constant attempts to contrast related areas of English can have different results from those intended. A safer strategy is to minimize opportunities for confusion by selecting non-synonymous contexts for related words, by treating them at different times, and by avoiding exercises based on contrast and transformation.

EPQ EL

- 72-43 **Heuer, Helmut.** Über die Beziehung zwischen Satzlänge und Imitationsleistung. [On the relationship between length of sentence and imitative ability.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 20, 4 (1971), 178-84.

The length of a sentence which can be imitated by a learner is controlled by several variables within the material in use. Investigations into length of memory in the field of the psychology of learning are sometimes conducted with nonsense material. For language teaching such investigations must be conducted with meaningful

material. The hypothesis put forward here is that memory can easily be impaired by a number of recognizable factors other than sentence length. Phonology, semantics, and syntactic structure will affect the memory. The effect of syntactic structure is particularly complicated and some work on this has been done during research connected with *information theory*. [The investigation described here was carried out in Dortmund with 140 children between eleven and thirteen years of age.] Certain results were obtained which showed the older children to be able to remember slightly longer sentences than the younger ones. Performance drops, not in a gradually falling curve, but after a clearly perceptible break. Seven to nine syllables, covering known lexical and syntactic items, could easily be remembered by all. If part of the material is unknown retention is likely to drop to about five syllables. Retention does not improve greatly after one repetition. This latter point would have bearing on the efficacy of four-phase drills. Other points to be borne in mind in such investigations are intelligence, language aptitude, language achievement and motivation. It might then be possible to determine whether the capacity to imitate is a function of different variables or whether it is limited by a physiological barrier.

EPQ EL EGV

72-44 **Lübke, Diethard.** Die Rolle der Muttersprache beim Vokabellernen. [The role of the mother tongue in learning vocabulary.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 20, 4 (1971), 169-77.

Learning vocabulary consists of five stages: hearing the new word, learning to pronounce it, learning to read and write it, learning the meaning, learning to use the word in a sentence (*a*) grammatically, (*b*) stylistically. It is the fourth stage, learning the meaning, which is of interest here. Translating the word or expression from the foreign language into the mother tongue is not a guarantee that the pupil will understand; the mother-tongue expression may be unfamiliar to him, or a word used may not be part of his normal vocabulary. The attempt to avoid the use of the mother tongue by means of pictures, gestures and so on may also fail because the pupil may not be sure he

has understood correctly and will try to check the meaning by saying the word in his mother tongue, thus defeating the attempt to by-pass it. The idea that a child can learn a second language 'directly' as he learned his mother tongue is patently false. Learning the mother tongue is linked with concept formation. By the time a second language is learnt the concepts are already formed and it is unnecessarily time-consuming to attempt to avoid the mother tongue. The exception to this is learning a language from a very different culture where concrete objects and abstract concepts may differ considerably.

EPQ EL ADF AL

72-45 Scovel, Tom. A look-see at some verbs of perception. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **21**, 1 (1971), 75-84.

Linguistic theory can only contribute to the development of useful language-teaching material if language is viewed in terms of how grammar and context are related and how form and function are interdependent.

Verbal aspect is reflected in both grammatical form and semantic function. The distinction between stative and active verbs is important. The former rarely occur in progressive forms, the latter often do. The distinction belongs to the intrinsic meaning of the verb itself. The subject-agent is consciously involved with the verbal action in activities, but not in states, which are non-voluntative. States tend to be transitive while activities tend to be intransitive. States imply the attainment of a goal. [The writer compares and contrasts the ten verbs which are found by applying the categories of 'state' and 'activity' to the five senses of eyes, ears, nose, tongue, and touch.] The states/activities dichotomy can be used to categorize many verbs in many languages. [Examples are given for Spanish, French, Thai, and Chinese.] There is also a set of five resultative copular verbs (*look, sound, smell, taste, feel*) which occur with adjectives and correspond to the five senses.

EPQ EL AK

72-46 **Schneider, Bruno.** Kritische Anmerkungen zu den audio-lingualen Übungstypen im fremdsprachlichen Unterricht. [Some critical remarks on audio-lingual exercises used in the teaching of foreign languages.] *Praxis des neu sprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 18, 1 (1971), 56-66.

Oral practice in classroom teaching and language laboratory work mainly consists of exercises based on substitution and transformation.

Pattern practice developed from the linguistic models of early structuralism and the ideas of Skinner on the psychology of learning. The language laboratory courses that were intended to replace grammar lessons proved to be rather primitive and artificial. It was not until the ideas of transformational generative grammar had gained ground that scepticism and criticism were voiced. Transformational grammar permits the best possible analysis of language, but in applying it a clear distinction should be maintained between linguistic description and didactic aspects of language.

Programmed instruction concentrates too much on results that can be verified in tests. Language is treated as if it were an accumulation of facts rather than personal ability and skill. The principle of dividing a problem up into small steps when presenting it in programmed instruction does not seem to be suited to language where functional complexes and structures have to be taught and transfer presents particular difficulties. [Examples to show how structural drill cannot prepare pupils adequately for dealing with idiomatic use and concrete situations.] Dividing a linguistic phenomenon into too many small steps also interferes with contextual and situational redundancy. [Examples given to illustrate how drills could be improved.]

Habit formation drills are on the whole too formal and artificial. Instead of trying to establish automatic speech habits the phenomenon to be learnt through these drills should be consciously taught and acquired.

The authors of structural drills are trying to overcome the weaknesses of the method by means of elaborate contexts and situational backgrounds. The author believes that this will not provide a basic

improvement. [Detailed exposition of what situational drill should be like.]

Pattern drill alone cannot be relied on for imparting a knowledge of grammar; occasionally rules have to be taught directly.

EPQ EL ATD

CLASS METHODS

72-47 Denham, Patricia. Remedial work with multilingual students. *Kivung* (Boroko), 3, 3 (1970), 188-96.

One cannot assume that all the students in a remedial group will have the same linguistic background and difficulties. In Papua and New Guinea little is known about some of the students' native languages. At university level the students speak fluent but inaccurate English. About one-fifth have been to boarding schools in Australia. The work is based on the errors the students most frequently make. However, what is a problem for one group is not necessarily a problem for another.

There is a case for preparing lessons on tapes, for the students to select from as necessary. [The author explains with the aid of diagrams the difference between linear and branched programming.] In programming for remedial work the students need not complete each unit. Students notice most readily mistakes in word order, verb endings and negation, while they overlook phonological errors. Material which draws the students' attention to stress, rhythm, and intonation improves their ability to correct such errors.

EPQ ELD 995

72-48 Jarvis, Gilbert A. and William N. Hatfield. The practice variable: an experiment. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 4, 4 (1971), 401-10.

Language practice need not be a specific activity but the drilling aspect of it has received considerable attention recently. A test was

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made of the effectiveness of drills with and without a context. While little difference was noted for the receptive skills, the contextual group was notably more successful with the productive skills. Differences were most pronounced in the ability to write sentences describing pictures, to give picture-cued answers to oral questions and to describe orally a series of pictures.

EPQ ELD

72-49 Kalivoda, Theodore B., Genelle Morain and Robert J. Elkins. The audio-motor unit: a listening comprehension strategy that works. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **4**, 4 (1971), 392-400.

The audio-motor unit is approximately a ten-minute lesson involving visual, auditory and motor skills. It may prove to be an effective device for the teaching of listening comprehension. Visual and audible stimuli are used to elicit physical responses. Later visible stimuli are dropped and students rely only upon oral command. [Example given.] The audio-motor unit can teach the recognition of a rich supply of affective nouns (*sigh, giggle, etc.*). It can provide verbs such as *wince, clutch*. It can link culture to language in a way which makes the cultural phenomena obvious. Sampled student reactions to these units varied but the majority of teachers reacted positively towards the method.

EPQ ELD

SEMANTICS

72-50 Hill, L. A. From syntax to semantics. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 229-38.

Although transformational-generative grammar places more emphasis on semantics than structuralism did, it still concentrates on formal distinctions. The analyses produced cannot be an exclusive guide to the selection and grading of what is to be taught. Teachers should not become tied to one school of dogma. Once linguistic considerations are allowed to outweigh children's nonlinguistic

classroom activities, the teaching is adversely affected. The course should be built round interesting activities.

Analysis based on semantics rather than syntax will bring language theory closer to the teacher's classroom needs. Language should be taught as communication. Meaningful material is easier to retain. Drills should be contextualized from the beginning. Formal drills, mim-mem, etc., are boring.

Semantic analysis breaks down situations into their semantic elements, and sees how language represents them. Transformationalists pay a lot of attention to ambiguity; but this does not arise if one teaches situationally. Different utterances sometimes represent almost the same semantic elements. [Example.] Semantic synthesis and analysis would have to start from very simple situations and build up to complex ones. It would rely heavily on contrast. It could be used to examine how a child learns his mother tongue, to compare languages with one another, to help in translation, to prepare a semantically graded programme for teaching a foreign language and to make readers more aware of the ways in which authors use language for various purposes. Idioms fall into place naturally in a semantic approach.

Too much influence is exercised on language teaching by the theoretical linguist, who concentrates on the formal side of language, since it is easier to analyse into tidy models. Research should start from the classroom. We should not try to force every new theory into our service.

EPQ ELD ADF AKN

GRAMMAR

72-51 **Wright, John T.** Writing contextualised drills. *TEFL* (Beirut), 5, 2 (1971), 4-5.

Too much emphasis may have been put in the past on language as a skill and too little on the uses for which the skill is developed. A language skill is more complex than mere muscular coordination as in learning to ride a bicycle or to swim. Communication in its widest sense is the aim. Context-based drills are an attempt to make

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learning more interesting and therefore easier. As it is difficult to find suitable literary passages to use, the answer is to write one's own passages based on the items to be introduced or reviewed. Pitfalls can then be ironed out in advance of the teaching. [Six stages in preparing such drills are suggested with examples.]

EPQ ELD AK

VOCABULARY

72-52 Harrington, Clifford V. Some thoughts and research on vocabulary teaching. *ELEC Bulletin* (Kanda), 34 (1971), 21-30.

Students will gain little from encountering many words in the course of their reading unless they are guided. A survey at the University of Hawaii's English Language Institute showed that most pupils thought they acquired more words from reading than from conversation, though there is no conclusive evidence that the active teaching of vocabulary has produced better students of English, either native or foreign. Differences of opinion arise over the selection of words to be taught, the timing and method of teaching them. Students are usually interested to learn new words, and communication is better achieved with a good knowledge of vocabulary and a less sound knowledge of structures. There has been insufficient scientific investigation on the teaching of vocabulary but some systematic teaching using a variety of methods seems to be needed. [Suggestions.]

EPQ ELD ALD

72-53 Kohls, Siegfried. Zum Verhältnis von mündlicher und schriftlicher Sprachausübung bei der Erstvermittlung lexiko-grammatischer Einheiten. [On the relative value of oral and written practice for the introduction of lexico-grammatical units.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 15, 6 (1971), 293-7.

The question of whether to introduce new vocabulary by sound or by sight is of particular importance when teaching beginners. Experi-

ments have shown that the absorption of information is far higher through a combination of stimuli. Hearing alone supposedly gives 20 per cent retention, seeing gives 30 per cent retention and a combination of sight and sound will give 50 per cent and more, while sight, sound and repetition will give 70 per cent and more. The supporters of purely aural methods overlook the neurophysiological and psychological knowledge available by trying to teach foreign languages exactly as the mother tongue was learnt. For adults a purely imitative oral method is unsuitable as it fails to take into account the psychostructural laws of the personality of adults. An adult learns more readily through logical-discursive methods and a steady build-up of information. The basis for this lies in his strong inner model of the outer world and in his stable behavioural system which cannot easily be adapted to a pre-school imitative type of learning. [The author experimented with two groups using a combination of aural and written work in a ten-day intensive course for adult beginners in Russian. Two control groups used only an oral course for the same intensive work. The results clearly indicated that the combination of sight and sound and repetition was the most helpful.]

EPQ ELD ALD

72-54 Löschmann, Martin. Zum Aufbau eines Übungssystems zur Entwicklung des selbständigen Erschließens unbekannter Wörter. [Building up a system to practise intelligent guessing of unknown words.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Dresden), 8, 2 (1971), 93-8.

Vocabulary can be systematically taught only to a limited extent. Meaning constantly changes and new words are created. With advanced pupils, the majority of mistakes occur because of the misunderstanding of words. Any exercises designed to increase the understanding of words must teach the conditions under which this can be done and then make the process automatic. Such exercises will depend on both objective and subjective factors. The difficulty is increased if the student's mother tongue is constructed very differently from German. The most difficult words to guess are (1)

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abstract words only partly guessable from the context, (2) compounds whose meaning is only partly revealed by the items compounded, (3) words prefixed by particles which can carry very different meanings, (4) analogous words with similar spellings, (5) words made up of several elements, only one of which is known, (6) idiomatic expressions. Word guessing has to be based on a thorough knowledge of the normal grammatical form and meaning of words in compounds. All exercises designed to increase ability to guess intelligently will be of the passive, receptive kind and will be directed either to grammatical points or to context study. Suitable exercises will involve completion of sentences from a choice of unfamiliar words. Practice can be given with polysemes and with words differing only by their prefix. Exercises can be given involving both listening and reading. [Illustrations.]

EPQ ELD ALD

72-55 Lübke, Diethard. Die Rolle der Muttersprache beim Vokabellernen. [The role of the mother tongue in learning vocabulary.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 4 (1971), 169-77.

When the meaning of words in a foreign language is taught through straightforward translation into the mother tongue the so-called equivalents are not always found in the everyday language of the pupils. They are often old-fashioned, literary or unnatural, and pupils learn to translate out of the foreign language, not speak in it. When vocabulary is taught through explanation in the foreign language, the mother tongue still intrudes. Many pupils translate the explanation silently to find the correct word in their own tongue. Concepts are closely bound up with certain words in the mother tongue and the teacher has to build on these. Even when vocabulary is taught through visual elements, a picture of an object will call to mind the mother tongue word for that object before the foreign language word is given. So long as teaching is concerned with known concepts the mother tongue will intrude. The aim must be to associate the foreign word as closely as the mother tongue word with the known concept.

EPQ ELD ALD

- 72-56 Preibusch, Wolfgang and Heidrun Zander.** Wortschatzvermittlung: auf der Suche nach einem analytischen Modell. [Vocabulary teaching: a search for an analytical model.] *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 9, 2 (1971), 131-45.

Many foreign-language teachers use a predominantly monolingual approach to vocabulary teaching which takes no account of the learner's acquired stock of semantic components. The results of an experiment conducted with twenty-six children from the fifth class of a primary school indicate that a monolingual approach is not a particularly relevant factor in the teaching of vocabulary. Future tests should emphasize: (1) the design of the experiment and sampling of the vocabulary, (2) the method to be used in semantic operations, (3) the psychological features of the pupil. Paired associates learning has little relevance for the practice of language teaching and is therefore unable to make a useful contribution to the problem of vocabulary teaching. [Bibliography.]

EPQ ELD ALD

WRITING SKILL

- 72-57 Hawkins, Lee E.** Immediate versus delayed presentation of foreign language script. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 45, 5 (1971), 280-90.

There is no widespread agreement as to how long the pre-reading phase of instruction should be. Such a phase is advocated because it is the 'natural' order of language learning and because the learner is inclined to attach native-language values to the target-language script. Various arguments have been advanced by those in favour of an early introduction of reading. Most of the arguments for and against a pre-reading period are contradictory and have not been based on research findings. The efficacy of delayed introduction may depend on the degree to which the sounds of the language are predictable from the script. Differing results may also be due to differing experimental conditions or evaluation procedures. [The author describes his own

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research into the teaching of French, German and Spanish to beginners of two age-groups in Indiana.] In French, males performed better when reading was introduced from the beginning, while both age-levels scored higher with simultaneous presentation. In German, both males and females had higher scores when speech and reading were introduced simultaneously. In Spanish, there was no significant difference.

EPQ ELD ASG ASP

READING

72-58 Cooper, Malcolm. Extensive reading. *English Language Teaching Broadsheet* (Kaduna), 4 (1971), 2-6.

In Nigeria and other countries where English is a second language it is necessary for the pupils to read widely in English and also necessary for them to read under the teacher's guidance so that understanding may be deepened. Extensive reading includes reading for gist and reading for required information, and training is required for both. Training can be given in reading for gist by setting extracts to be read in class in a given time and then asking pupils to answer orally or in writing a few questions which focus on the main points. When reading for required information, the pupils must know in advance the questions for which they require an answer. Project cards can be used for reference work in dictionaries, atlases, encyclopaedias, etc. If information is to be gained from the textbook pupils can be told to find the relevant chapter or page from the index as this is good training in reference skills.

EPQ ELD ASP 966.9

ORACY

72-59 Rees, Alun L. W. Get them to ask the questions. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington), 9, 4 (1971), 27-30.

The pupils need practice in asking as well as answering questions. Personal requests, comprehension questions, grammar questions, and

general questions are all possible in the classroom. [The author suggests how the pupils may be given adequate practice in using each type.]

EPQ ELD ATD

COMPOSITION

72-60 Mieth, Christopher. Arbeits- und Übungstechniken der Bildgeschichte. [Class-work and practice techniques with picture stories.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 6, 2 (1971), 33-40.

Pictures may be used to tell a story in themselves or to illustrate a written text. They may be studied by means of questions in class and the pupil left to finish the story himself. Interest in finding an ending provides a strong motivation for free composition. [An illustration is taken from Byrne's *Progressive Picture Compositions* with examples of questions taken from the accompanying teacher's manual.] Pupils can be given the opportunity to play the teacher's role and ask the class questions about the pictures. This can also be done with prepared question-and-answer cards. Listening comprehension can be practised with pictures: the pupils indicate the picture which corresponds to sentences spoken by the teacher or respond to a statement made with 'right' or 'wrong'. Exercises in composition are suggested for the weaker pupils who may be asked only to provide the correct verb form in a descriptive sentence, and for more advanced pupils who can be asked to join short statements into complex sentences. Finding titles for the pictures also forces concentration on the detail. Dictation can be used as reinforcement for oral work on pictures and the situation can be varied by asking pupils to tell the story from the point of view of one of the characters within it.

EPQ ELD ELS ATG

TEACHING LITERATURE

- 72-61 **Nist, John.** Teaching the esthetic dimensions of poetry. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), 9, 1 (1971), 21-5.

The art of poetry is primarily in its expression, not its content, and the expression tends to be lost when the poem is translated. There is a basic distinction between the language of formation and the language of information. In the former the immediate 'how' is always more important than the mediate or the ultimate 'what'. Asking what a poem means turns attention away from expression to content.

Young children can speak English without a foreign accent, and the expression of a poem in English can be taught to them. 'Code noise' of two types - prosodic and phonesthemic - interferes with older learners' appreciation. The esthetic dimensions of an English poem are best taught by bringing into the foreground features of English that contrast with corresponding features of the native tongue. The teacher should first choose poems that have something in them of the principle of organization of the students' own language. [Examples given.] He should then make clear the organic relationship between the semantic, grammatical, and phonological components of English, producing abstract metre, specific cadence, and actual rhythm. [Example from Pope.] Students must be shown the relationship between argument and rhythm. Knowledge of linguistics increases the teacher's appreciation of the importance of phonesthemes. [Examples from A. E. Housman.] Phonesthemes in a poem achieve the 'esthetic inevitable', and this is the poetry teacher's ultimate concern. The expression *is* the content. **EPQ ELD AVL**

VISUAL AIDS

- 72-62 **Morley, H. Joan and Mary S. Lawrence.** The use of films in teaching English as a second language. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor), 21, 1 (1971), 117-35.

[Part 1 describes a programme developed at the English Language Institute, Michigan, for the use of documentary films to improve

aural comprehension, speaking, writing, and reading. Part 2 discusses the writing aspects of the programme.]

Films can be an almost limitless source of material for English-language practice with advanced students. Direction, choice, and planning are essential. The film is a stimulus to the exchange of ideas and opinions. It is an active experience. It is not an extra-curricula item, but part of the instructional programme. The programme is intended to broaden the student's horizons with a short course in contemporary affairs. It also provides the students with opportunities of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The criteria used in selecting the films are relevance, sequence continuity, quality, intelligibility, organization, and vocabulary. [Examples of the films are given.] In presenting each film, five steps are followed: advance preparation for aural comprehension, aural comprehension and class discussion, advance preparation for writing, composition exercises, and supplementary reading.

The programme is based on the assumption that advanced students should be involved cognitively in the learning process and in the content of the lessons, and on the conjecture that students may communicate better in a non-native language if they are working with new information.

Films are a way of enlarging the student's passive vocabulary, but students should be given an opportunity to choose to use new words meaningfully in writing. Certain films are helpful in developing the skills of summary and paraphrase. Films can be adapted to the teaching of traditional rhetorical methods of organizing writing.

The total writing programme is based on a cognitive and semantic approach to writing. Films are shown after forty to fifty hours of writing instruction. From the beginning of the writing programme, the student is asked to formulate questions about the data given, and emphasis is placed on the formulation of inferences. Composition and listening comprehension are closely coordinated.

EPQ ELD ELS

- 72-63 Orton, Eric.** Funktionen visueller Elemente im Fremdsprachenunterricht: eine kritische Auseinandersetzung. [Functions of the visual element in the teaching of foreign languages: a critical analysis.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **20**, 5 (1971), 246-52.

Early audio-visual courses in England neglected the exploitation stage of language learning and postponed reading for one or more years. Now it is realized that communication is a social human act that can only be programmed in part, a balance must be sought between grammar, structural grading and natural situations. The visual elements can be used effectively as stimuli for follow-up work, as preparation for reading or to reinforce the meaning of a structure. The pictures should be clear, uncluttered, unambiguous and preferably without symbols. On the socio-cultural side little thought has been given to realistic portrayal of life. Most courses depict middle-class families, perpetuate national clichés and emphasize so-called typical aspects. The cultural or human side is at least as important as the linguistic side of an audio-visual course.

EPQ ELD ELS

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 72-64 Fabre, Claudiane.** De quelques essais d'expression écrite et orale à partir des structures acquises en laboratoire. [Some attempts at written and oral expression [for adults] beginning with structures learnt in the laboratory.] *IUT Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy), **15** (1971), 64-9.

All adult students want to be able to speak and understand the foreign language in a short time. They do not want to know rules about the language but be able to use it. In the language laboratory they will need the reassurance of seeing in print what is being repeated. Young students who are more used to analytical exercises seem to have less difficulty in discriminating between structures recently learnt in the laboratory and using them creatively to express their own thoughts.

Only an analytical understanding of the foreign language will enable the business-men and technicians who come to evening classes to express themselves with precision in their fields of work. The time factor is crucial and adults have inhibitions which cause difficulties when dialogue is attempted. The projection of pictures will help them to concentrate their thoughts and formulate their own phrases while the dark will make them less nervous of other members of the class.

EPQ ELD ELY EMV

72-65 Pill, Geoffrey. How to use the language lab without actually feeling guilty (in second year courses and above). *NALLD Journal* (Athens, Ohio), 5, 4 (1971), 35-42.

Laboratory work seems to be too limited in its use. If it is an extension of the teacher, offering opportunities for individual exercise, it should be available to students after their second year in the form of more challenging and individual exercises than the drills performed hitherto to establish habitual responses. Unless the teacher progresses in an orderly way through the textbook, confusion arises with the laboratory work being carried out with commercial tapes under the supervision of a laboratory director. Self-contained laboratory work could be complementary to but not dependent on whatever was being done in class. If laboratory tapes are to some extent unpredictable in their content, students, working at their own pace, will have to listen very carefully to every inch of the tape to be sure what is required of them. [The author made thirty-two tapes covering dictations, comprehension exercises, diction and phonetics which constituted a self-contained programme without necessary connection with the work done in the classroom.] Written work done in the laboratory is corrected by the teacher. Students were invited to comment on the tapes which helped in the later process of revision.

A fourth-year course in poetry gave the students practice in reading aloud various types of verse-form. Later this was followed by an increasing amount of appreciation and explication. These tapes were also collected and graded by the teacher.

EPQ ELD ELY

- 72-66 Riley, Pamela M.** Variations in structural drills. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 250-4.

Taped structural drills should be varied. Laboratory drills are most useful if they last no longer than fifteen minutes, and are related to the material of the lectures and to written work. [The author describes and exemplifies a number of drills suitable at tertiary level.]

EPQ ELD ELY

PRIMARY PUPILS

- 72-67 Gavora, Peter.** K problematike vyučovania angličtiny v mladšom školskom veku. [Problems of English teaching at an early school age.] *Cizi jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **14**, 6 (1970/71), 180-3.

A qualitative assessment is made of the progress in the first three years of learning English by young Slovak children who started English as the first foreign language in the second grade (age seven plus) of a special elementary school in Bratislava in 1969. There were about twenty pupils in the class. They were selected on grounds of performance in the first grade and on their intellectual potential and their phonetic-imitative talents. They had an average of five periods of forty-five minutes per week. The early start of a foreign language in school is theoretically justified by the child's outstanding phonetic-imitative ability, by his excellent mechanical memory, by his great spontaneity in speaking, by his minimal prejudice against learning a foreign language. The practical observations fully proved the theory. If proper methods are employed fully exploiting the young child's ability, very good learning results are achieved. The pupils' rather faulty pronunciation in the third year was chiefly due to insufficient systematic drills. (The teachers relied too much on imitative ability.) The young child's special abilities quite evidently recede with age. There was a definite decline in the spontaneity of speaking in the third year. This may be partly due to the decreasing motivation and interest in learning the foreign language at this later stage, when

the rather playful approach of the early stages gives way to more serious study. Neither a positive nor a negative impact of early study of foreign language on the child's overall mental development as compared with other children of the same age groups was observed. It seems evident that the earlier a child begins to learn a foreign language in school the better, if he is to have a good command of it in later life.

EPQ ELD EMR 943.7

72-68 Lee, W. R. Vyučování dětí cizím jazykům: proč, co a jak. [Teaching foreign languages to young children.] (*Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **14**, 7 (1970/1), 238-45.

More and more countries are beginning to teach foreign languages from primary school level. It is difficult to find grounds for excluding a foreign language from a basic education. In some ways children, especially young ones, are quicker and better at foreign-language learning, if they are appropriately taught, than adults are. Furthermore, languages take a long time to learn and so an early beginning needs to be made. But it is difficult to compare results obtained in teaching young children with results obtained in teaching older pupils, since the materials, methods, and teachers will probably be different.

Courses for young children should be based on their experience and interests and this affects vocabulary selection and to some extent the choice of syntax. Motivation has to be immediate: it is given by the lessons themselves. Presentation in the early stages should include not only portions of the language but what they refer to. In teaching a language to young children, it is the situation, the 'experience', which matters most.

Liveliness is essential. Several types of picture should be used. Action includes miming, which leads on to dramatization. Gesture and movement are important in dialogue-speaking. Dialogues need to be adaptable.

Explanations are often incomprehensible to young children, and grammatical terminology has to be avoided. Frequent changes of procedure are essential, and the children must be given opportunities

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of moving about. Repetition must be meaningful, and the language must be used in communication with others.

EPQ ELD EMR

IMMIGRANTS

72-69 **Derrick, June.** Listening to language in the infant school. *English for Immigrants* (London), 4, 2 (1971), 17-22.

Many infant teachers are not convinced that their immigrant pupils need special help with language, and many are out of touch with current thinking about the education of immigrant children and education in a multiracial society. The Infant Section of the Schools Council Project at Leeds has to convince people that the needs of infants are not being met, that specific action can be taken to help teach English to young children, and that this action need not conflict with infant school aims.

Teachers made recordings of themselves talking with immigrant and non-immigrant pupils. The most useful recordings were of conversations between a teacher and two or three children about some specific activity or interest of theirs. Some difficulties, however, inevitably arose. Often the teacher does not sound as if she is listening to a child. It is hard to understand from the tapes what many children are trying to say. The teachers ask a lot of questions, but many of these do not elicit language. Children persist when they have something to say. Interest must be given high priority. The practising of patterns can take place in an informal and lively situation. [Extracts from the conversations are given.]

EPQ ELD EMP ENT

72-70 **Garvie, E.** Second language acquisition. *English for Immigrants* (London), 4, 2 (1971), 22-6.

The immigrant pupil may acquire more language-learning clues outside the teaching situation than within it. The teaching of infants in Britain is geared to 'discovery method'. Many infant teachers in their 'child-centred' approach seem to be unaware of a language problem. There is a dichotomy in the English-teaching scene: on the one

hand, special classes where direction by the teacher is important; on the other hand, normal placement situations where discovery by the pupil is emphasized.

There has been a recent tendency to see second-language learning as a creative process similar to first-language learning. Types of error made, and the order of learning, are similar to those of English-speaking children learning their own language. Apparently immigrant children do not achieve linguistic parity with British co-pupils by being 'immersed' in a discovery situation. The teacher's role is to present samples of the language which contain all the necessary clues, to make sure that the learner picks up the clues, and to provide opportunity for the use of these clues to become habitual.

EPQ ELD ENT

ENGLISH *See also abstract 72-62*

72-71 Afolayan, A. Contrastive linguistics and the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 220-9.

[The author's starting-point is the target-language text produced by the second-language learner. He compares this with the text produced by the native speaker of the target language. He summarizes the attitudes to contrastive analysis taken by Palmer and Haas, Palmer seeming to suggest that it is not practicable and Haas that it is indispensable.] Classical contrastive analysis is essentially a static approach which isolates each potential problem without necessary integration and without reference to real language-learning situations. The second/foreign-language learner of English is faced not only with bilingual problems but with problems inherent in English, those that the English child learning English also has.

Classical contrastive analysis glosses over the intricate relationship between the linguistic and non-linguistic problems of the second/foreign-language learner. Problems are predicted that never materialize. Various linguistic differences are assumed to give equal diffi-

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culty. Wholly different structures cause fewer problems than partly different structures. Both the linguistic theory adopted and the type of linguistic description affect contrastive analysis.

The local form of English (in this case Yoruba English) should form the basis of a contrastive analysis. A successful analysis can become a powerful tool for the new methods of teaching of English as a foreign or second language.

420 EPQ AYF 496.4

72-72 Brumfit, C. A. Second language teaching in the secondary school – some principles. *Bulletin of the Language Association of Tanzania* (Dar es Salaam), 3, 2 (1971), 18-25.

The language situation in Tanzania is changing rapidly as Swahili is introduced as a medium of instruction in all primary and secondary schools. Little thought has been given to the principles of second-language teaching specifically in the secondary school. Those who reach the secondary level and continue to learn English there will probably speak a fluent but inaccurate variant of English. Work will therefore have to be largely remedial and classes are large. Most course books do not start with the situation as it is and few are adaptable to group activity. A basic list is needed of common errors in written work. The aim is to give complete control of the linguistic equipment over which the student had incomplete control when he left primary school. The context of the work will be the real language which the student is going to need in order to understand other subjects and express his ideas in the kind of essay which he may need to produce at a higher educational level. [A critique is appended of controlled composition and the author welcomes further discussion of how to organize the secondary school second language English course.]

420 EPQ ED 967.8

72-73 Coe, Norman. Few/a few – little/a little. *English Language Teaching* (London), 25, 3 (1971), 267-70.

The choice between the two is not solely determined by the external situation, but more by the speaker's attitude. *Few* and *little* have

negative emotive meaning, whereas *a few* and *a little* have positive emotive meaning. [The author offers a number of schemata as a basis for practice sentences and diagnostic tests.] [Bibliography.]

420 EPQ AK

72-74 Debyasuwarn, L. M. Boonlua. Frustrations in English instruction. *Bulletin of the English Language Center* (Bangkok), 1 (1970), 52-65.

All European languages are difficult for Thai students. Culturally a host of ideas are foreign. The sounds and grammar of English are very different from Thai. More thought and training are needed for methodology of English teaching. University English departments need to be more realistic and prospective teachers need to study various types of English, not only the literary variety. There are many frustrations, amongst which is a lack of suitable teaching materials.

420 EPQ EL 959.3

72-75 Eskey, David E. Comprehending written English. *Bulletin of the English Language Center* (Bangkok), 2 (1971), 77-92.

The 'traditional' approach to reading, being based on a confusion between reading and understanding, does not teach students to read. They are not provided with a means of getting at the meaning on their own. With the 'linguistic' approach, reading is a means of reinforcing the students' command of patterns already acquired orally. It is largely limited to the first stage of learning to read.

The vocabulary problem is an obvious one, and the best approach to it is to find the students' level and begin reading there. More use should be made of vocabulary development courses. The syntax of unsimplified written English is much more complex than that of the spoken language. There is also a cultural problem of subject-matter. Furthermore, the logical structure of pieces of writing varies from culture to culture. For comprehension to be full, English rhetoric has to be taught.

420 EPQ ASP

- 72-76 **Heuer, Helmut and Egon Heyder.** Das Lernen neuer Wörter in Beziehung zur Vokabelanzahl, zur Darbietungsmethode und zur Altersstufe. [The learning of new vocabulary viewed in relation to the number of words presented, the method of introducing them, and the age of the pupils.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 18, 1 (1971), 21-7.

The article describes a series of tests which were performed with the aim of establishing the following: the relationship between the number of new (English) words introduced and the percentage of these that is remembered after various intervals (up to six weeks); the relationship between the percentage of words remembered and the unilingual or bilingual method of introducing them; the effect that the age of the pupil has on word retention. Reference is made to other research in this field.

A detailed description is given of the method of presenting the word lists and texts used [these are shown] and also of the four subsequent performance checks. Lists of results are provided in absolute figures and percentages.

The main conclusions are: with younger pupils (age 10) performance is better if the new words are introduced without the use of the mother tongue. Performance declines as the number of new words introduced increases. With older pupils (age 13) the method of introduction does not make an appreciable difference. Their performance is in most respects better than that of the younger pupils. The use of the mother tongue in introducing new words affects the recall only marginally. The optimum number of new words introduced at any one time seems to be six.

420 EPQ ELD AL

- 72-77 **Johnson, Keith.** Problems resulting from the use of English as a second language medium of instruction. *Kiwung* (Boroko), 3, 3 (1970), 203-10.

In countries where primary education is conducted in English, it is often found to be a precarious means of communication for most

pupils at the end of their primary school course. The pupils develop no adequate learning habits in the primary school. The majority do not continue into the secondary school. The 'ever-onward' 'ever-upward' western educational system is unsuited to the needs of underdeveloped nations who have put their resources into primary education. School leavers are generally too young to get jobs and may remain in their villages, losing their hold on the English they have learnt.

Policy-makers should look again at the possibility of using vernacular languages or a *lingua franca* as the medium in primary schools and for adult education. Children are not being prepared for their future roles in society. If a content-orientated course were to replace the present language-orientated course, the age at which schooling begins should be raised, so that the primary school leaver will be old enough to gain the maximum benefit from his training. **420 ELD 995.3**

72-78 Kanchanasita, Siriporn. Consonant clusters in English: a learning problem for Thai students. *Bulletin of the English Language Center* (Bangkok), 2, (1971), 42-76.

[The author summarizes, with quotations from American linguists, the theory of first-language interference, with particular attention to phonological interference. She lists the consonant clusters of Thai and English, and compares the two systems.] Thai has many fewer clusters than English and no final clusters. Affixation is absent from Thai. [The errors made by Thai speakers of English are described and classified.] **420 EPQ ATD 495.91**

72-79 Levine, Helene Faith. Linguistic and paralinguistic changes in Spanish-speakers learning English. *English Language Teaching* (London), 25, 3 (1971), 288-96.

Delayed auditory feedback and cloze procedure are likely to become effective means of measuring foreign-language learning. [The author describes experiments conducted to test their usefulness as instruments for measuring changes in the pronunciation and grammar of

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Spanish-speaking adults learning English.] Although the subjects' pronunciation improved during the semester, it appeared that their command of grammar had weakened. [Bibliography.]

420 EPQ EHP

72-80 **Lewis, David.** Problems of bilingualism in Papua and New Guinea. *Kivung* (Boroko), 4, 1 (1971), 21-9.

[The author compares the educational problems of bilingual Canada with those of Papua and New Guinea.] French-speaking schools in Canada operate only in Quebec. French-speaking children elsewhere are absorbed into the English-speaking community. In Papua and New Guinea the Australian administration works towards universal primary education and literacy in English, which provides access to almost any information and is the chief language of trade and assistance. Most Papuans and New Guineans are bilinguals in their vernacular and one *lingua franca*, and use English only when another *lingua franca* is not common to the two speakers.

Research perhaps indicates that where cultures are contiguous bilingualism need not impede growth of intelligence or scholastic progress. In Canada, the cultural correspondences between English and French culture are numerous, and bilinguals can achieve a high degree of communication. In Papua and New Guinea there are few opportunities for the child to practise English and few good models. Pupils become unresponsive to attempts to improve their English. Outside the towns the vernacular is used in a home context and English in a school context; but in this situation of coordinate bilingualism, performance is inferior to that of the compound bilinguals in the towns.

Indigenous languages being numerous it is impossible to achieve literacy in the vernacular before the second language is begun. It is doubtful whether Melanesian Pidgin could be used as the medium of instruction.

The French Canadian problem is to achieve the parity of French with English outside Quebec.

Paradoxically, where the economic and cultural disparities between

the two languages and cultures are great, and where competence in the foreign language is essential from an economic and social point of view, this language may present the individual with a serious psychological and intellectual handicap. **420 ENW 995.3**

72-81 Lewis, J. Windsor. The American and British accents of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 239-48.

The two accents of English taught outside English-speaking countries are General American and Received Pronunciation.

They are mutually intelligible, and most people have an exaggerated idea of the differences between them. [The author describes in some detail the phonetic, structural, and distributional differences between GA and RP.] **420 EPQ ED AJT**

72-82 Pullum, G. K. Indian scripts and the teacher of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **25**, 3 (1971), 278-84.

The author describes the main characteristics of scripts commonly in use in India and compares them with English script. He traces errors of spelling, letter shapes, and capitalization made by Indian and other pupils to the differences between their scripts and that of English.

The chief value of contrastive study in this field lies in the understanding provided as to where certain types of error originate. Contrastive linguistics cannot say anything about how the teacher should teach, and should not suggest that points of contrast need to be emphasized. **420 EPQ ASG 954**

72-83 Schröder, Konrad. Britisches und amerikanisches Englisch im Elementarunterricht. [British and American English and the teaching of beginners.] *Englisch* (Berlin), **6**, 3 (1971), 70-4.

British English is usually taught in the German schools but in their free time the students hear American English on the radio, on records

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and in the cinema. It is quite possible for British English to be taught but for the students to be made aware of the differences from American and to be taught to accept both as correct. For European purposes British English is the most acceptable. Beginners however should be taught one form or the other, whichever is most natural for the teacher. It is best if a change of teacher can be avoided, but if this becomes necessary great care should be taken at first and in the second year the pupils should be made consciously aware of the differences between the two varieties of English. A certain level of knowledge must be reached before both forms can be used.

420 EPQ AMR 943

- 72-84 Smithies, Michael.** Capitalising on the expendable: the use of pop songs in the English class. *Bulletin of the English Language Center* (Bangkok), 2 (1971), 24-41.

Several modern songs make excellent teaching material at school and higher levels. [The author examines 'Sergeant Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band' in detail from the viewpoint of tense usage, lexis, phonology and social and cultural background.]

420 EPQ ELB

- 72-85 Stanley, George E.** Linguistic relativity and the EFL teacher in South Africa. *English Language Teaching* (London), 25, 3 (1971), 284-7.

South African junior-school pupils are educated in their own tribal languages. Education in South African high schools has to be conducted in both English and Afrikaans. There has been recent controversy about the quality of the teaching of and in the official languages and about the preparation and qualification of teachers. Better teacher-training will not necessarily solve the problem. Students learning one or both of the official languages do not understand the formal systematization of either English or Afrikaans. Any official language programme in the area of Bantu education must take linguistic relativity, the relationship between language structure and mentality (or thought) into account. An understanding of linguistic

relativity calls for an understanding of the problems of semantic transfer. It is doubtful whether the official language can express 'things of everyday life' from the vastly different Bantu cultures.

420 EPQ ED 968

72-86 Wolff, Ruth. An approach to teaching English to children damaged by their environment. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 21 (1971), 2-7.

There are many homes which do not give children the basic trust which is the foundation of a well-balanced personality, and such children do not develop a satisfactory relationship with the outside world. They come to school socially, emotionally, and intellectually unprepared. They soon come to consider themselves failures.

The author describes a new approach she made to such children. She changed the lesson activity every few minutes, and arranged for maximum pupil participation. Collective speaking, pair drills, chain drills, and short dialogues were used, as well as games, songs and competitions. She used coloured felt pens and squared paper to teach them print-script. The setting of homework was abandoned. The result was that the pupils took more interest in their lessons and made progress. Unfortunately they returned every day to the conditions which had damaged them.

420 EPQ ENJ

FRENCH

72-87 Debyser, Francis. L'enseignement de la civilisation: contenu culturel du niveau 2. [Teaching cultural background: the content for the intermediate level.] *Bulletin de la Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Français* (Morlanwelz-Mariemont), 2/3 (1970/71), 77-82.

It is essential that there should be some cultural content to the teaching of a foreign language at intermediate level as pupils will rapidly tire of a language which does not open up a new field of interest for them. Communication with native speakers is often only a remote

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possibility. The choice of cultural content will depend on the teaching aims and time available but some coherent impression of French civilization is generally needed, and by that is meant the contemporary attitudes, outlook and specific traits which give a people their particular position in the world. Contemporary everyday objects are of interest – a photograph of Chartres may well also be of interest because it shows a 2 CV Citroën car. Clichés and stereotypes can be very useful as they project images of a people in a way in which historical facts do not, though some grasp of the historical background, even if presented in such lively stories as *Astérix*, will enable a student to get a better understanding of contemporary France.

440 EPQ ELD EFG

72–88 **Norrish, Norma.** Teaching techniques and primary school French in the language laboratory. *Babel* (Melbourne), 7, 1 (1971), 17–23.

A class of twelve eleven-year-old volunteers from a primary school were taught French by a trained teacher and observed by New Zealand graduates taking an MA option in language laboratory techniques. The students were required to observe, prepare dialogues and drills at different levels, and undergo some extra training in diagnosis of mistakes in pronunciation. Console techniques were also studied by the students, all of whom were intending to teach. The theoretical content of the students' course was covered during a weekly tutorial. Samples of audio-visual courses in use were evaluated and compared. Concepts of teaching and learning discussed in seminar groups were tested with the children. Problems of how and what to teach were discussed, covering the value of phonetic symbols, first steps in prosody, auditory discrimination, structural exercises, listening comprehension and testing. It was found that much more help could be given to the pupils when language laboratory facilities were used. Pupils' difficulties were more obvious because the brighter children were not masking the slower ones. Conclusive proof of good teaching can be seen through good learning in the laboratory.

440 EPQ ELY WMR 993.1

72-89 Tomme, John Carlin. The imperfect teaching of the imperfect. *French Review* (Baltimore), **44**, 6 (1971), 1100-5.

The imperfect tense in French seems to be the most difficult to teach to beginners, not because of its formation but because its use does not correspond to English. The description of the tense as 'continuous' in its broadest sense helps to dispense with excess terminology; refinements can be added later to that basic description. The use of the imperfect in 'si' clauses of conditional sentences and special uses with *depuis* or *voilà...que* also have to be taught separately. Exercises on the use of the imperfect are frequently unsatisfactory because they present sentences out of context where an imperfect or perfect tense might be chosen according to meaning.

440 EPQ AK

GERMAN See abstract 72-14

ITALIAN See abstract 72-38

RUSSIAN

72-90 Aksenova, M. P. Употребление союзов 'и', 'а', 'но' на начальном этапе обучения языку. [The use of the conjunctions 'и', 'а' 'но' in the initial stages of language learning.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **2** (1971), 32-9.

Learners' mistakes in the use of these conjunctions usually stem from a failure to discriminate sufficiently between the different meanings of *и* and *а* and of *а* and *но*. A four-stage approach with beginners may help to avoid these errors. The first stage introduces all three conjunctions but with limited meanings: conjunctive *и* – as used between the last two items of a list containing uncontrasted items, and in joining together two simple sentences which mention activities containing common features of time and direction; contrastive *а* – as used with the negative in simple sentences where similar items or

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activities are contrasted, and in joining together two simple sentences which contrast activities containing common features of time and direction; and contrastive *HO* in simple sentences only, where qualities of a certain item or activity are contrasted and where one quality does not exclude another.

The second stage expands on the uses of these conjunctions: of *u* when a certain activity is undertaken at different times, and when one activity results from another – in both instances the second part of the sentence may contain a subject which is either the same as or different from that of the first part; of *a* when the subject undertakes one activity or various activities at various times; and of *HO* in the complex sentence, when a certain activity leads to an unexpected result, often expressed by a negated verb.

The third stage treats of two particular uses of *HO*, often encountered with modal verbs, when the second part of the sentence gives the reason for the non-fulfilment of the activity mentioned in the first part, or tells of the compensatory activity undertaken.

The fourth stage discusses the synonymous uses of *a* and *HO*. Where they are interchangeable, however, *HO* has a more neutral tone, while *a* tends to assume an emotive force and to be conversational in style, as opposed to the bookish *HO*.

Finally, tables and exercises illustrate the differences between the three conjunctions as found in conversation. Tabular examples provide the basic teaching material and exercises follow all four stages.

491.7 EPQ AKN