Language learning and teaching

75-251   Aid, Frances M. Semantic universals in instructional materials. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 1 (1974), 53–64.

In contradistinction to materials grounded in formal contrastive analysis, a model is proposed to take into account speakers' intent and the content of their messages, following Chafe's view that any adequate theory of language use must be semantically based. A case grammar with five deep noun cases and a number of verb 'relational features' is employed. The latter constrain the selection of nouns. The model is exemplified and applies to Spanish–English verb comparisons where both languages share deep case features and surface clause functions (*lavar* 'wash'). Verbs with shared case features and disparate surface clause functions are then studied (*faltar* 'need'). It is suggested that learners will find it useful to perceive similar deep case functions underlying surface functional disparities. Pedagogical grammars have, like contrastive analysis, tended to over-emphasise such disparities at the expense of similar semantic structure. [References.]

75-252   Bailey, N., Madden, C. and Krashen, S. D. Is there a 'natural sequence' in adult second language learning? *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 235–43.

The Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay & Hernandez, 1973) was administered to 73 adult learners of English as a second language in order to investigate accuracy of usage for eight English functors (grammatical morphemes). It was found that there is a highly consistent order of relative difficulty in the use of the functors across different language backgrounds, indicating that learners are experiencing intra-language difficulties. The adult results agreed with those obtained by Dulay and Burt (1973) for 5- to 8-year-old children learning English as a second language, indicating that children and adults use common strategies and process linguistic data in fundamentally similar ways.

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75-253   Dulay, Heidi and Burt, Marina. A new perspective on the creative construction process in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 253–78.

A new perspective on the creative construction process in second-language acquisition is outlined. (1) An attempt is made to use Brown's notions of semantic and linguistic complexity to account for differences between first- and second-language acquisition orders. (2) The notions 'learning complexity' and 'learning strategy' are clarified. (3) An alternative to rank order analyses of acquisition sequence is presented, along with some findings on L 2 acquisition. (4) The outline of a framework for research in second-language acquisition is presented.

75-254   Komorowska, Hanna. Non-experimental and experimental designs for research on foreign language learning. *Glottodidactica* (Poznan, Poland), **8** (1975), 53–70.

Two basic types of research on foreign-language teaching and learning are defined as reporting research projects (non-experimental designs) and innovative research projects. In the first type, the aim is to describe existing realities, and research can be divided into the following stages: stating research objectives, identifying variables, stating indicators for each variable, deciding on the type and size of the sample, constructing and validating research instruments (tests, questionnaires, etc.), and quantitative analysis of the data obtained [discussion, with reference to research on FL speaking skills at secondary level].

   Innovative or experimental designs are used to test ideas for new materials and methods. The stages of designing such schemes are the same as for reporting research projects, except for the stage of variable analysis. Additional difficulties connected with internal and external validity are discussed. [Nine experimental designs chosen for their wide applicability are described: some are for the use of qualified researchers, others for teachers or textbook writers.] [References.]

75-255   Stern, H. H. What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **31**, 4 (1975), 304–18.

The strategies of good language learning are identified in the context of a theory of language learning [discussion of 'competence', the learning process, problems of interference, communication and learning methods]. They are: (1) positive learning strategies, (2) an active approach to the learning task, (3) a positive attitude to the target language and its speakers, (4) sufficient linguistic know-ledge about how to tackle a language, (5) ability to draw inferences and discover

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rules, (6) constantly searching for meaning, (7) willingness to practice, (8) willingness to try to communicate in real situations, (9) self-monitoring, and (10) developing the target language as a separate system and learning to think in it. [References.]

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING   *See also abstracts* 75–237, –253

75–256   Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. Motivation and second-language acquisition. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **31**, 3 (1975), 218–30.

A research programme was begun in 1974 to study motivational variables associated with the acquisition of French as a second language in Canada, and with the effects of 'incentive programmes'. [The importance of integrative motivation is stressed, particularly in circumstances hostile to the learning of the second language.] Despite increased emphasis on bilingualism the percentage of secondary school pupils studying French is decreasing [figures].

Sixteen motivational characteristics are presented in four categories: group specific attitudes, course related characteristics, motivational indices and generalised attitudes [discussion]. Measures of language aptitude were independent of attitudinal measures though both were related to achievement, i.e. both can lead to success in learning French. All the variables were found to be closely related to each other, together making up the integrative motive. Students who continued in French had significantly more positive attitudes towards French people than those who dropped out of French programmes (achievement was also higher but less significantly so) [graphs of results]. Motivation is more easily modifiable than aptitude and therefore incentive programmes such as bicultural excursions are recommended to teachers, as they tend to promote favourable attitudes. [References.]

75–257   Krulee, Gilbert K. and Schwartz, Homer R. Scanning processes and sentence recognition. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **4**, 2, (1975), 141–58.

An experiment was designed to study the disruptive effects on immediate recall of interfering with the ability to scan ahead. Sentences were printed on paper tape which was pulled through a window, the size of which could be controlled. There were two exposure widths, three rates of tape movement, and three types of material which varied in length: equational and transitive sentences as well as random strings of words. Errors increase as the exposure width is decreased, and the magnitude of the disruptive effect is most marked for the longer sentences and the faster rate of presentation. A possible explanation is advanced

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emphasising the likelihood that subjects store information in a sensory register and scan that register in order to segment sentences into phrases, phrases into words, and words into smaller functional units. As one limits exposure width, one interferes with the transfer of information into the sensory register and with the processing of information after it is stored in the register.

75–258 McDonald, Peter F. and Sager, J. C. Beyond contextual studies – considerations of language aptitude and motivation in advanced language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **13**, 1 (1975), 19–34.

Teaching strategies should be adjusted to students' expectations and needs, which are examined. [Research on attitude, aptitude and achievement, in particular by Carroll, Pimsleur and Jacobovits, is briefly discussed.] The personality factor is considered under the headings: articulateness, perceptiveness, stylistic awareness, catholicity of interest and maturity. Motivation is a process rather than a state, and should be constantly exploited by the teacher in his choice and presentation of material. [Criticism of the description of motivation as instrumental or integrative – all initial motivation is instrumental and must be subdivided according to the skills the learner most needs.] Other motivational forces can be divided into practical, cultural and intellectual motivation [discussion, with suggestions as to how teachers should respond].

The role of the native language is important, particularly in contrastive studies, i.e. positive exploitation of already existing knowledge in any one language. Likewise, subject study in the foreign language should be the cornerstone of all advanced language work because of its practical motivating effect. [Table shows the interactions and traditional activities of language study associated with the motivating forces.]

75–259 Pearson, P. David. The effects of grammatical complexity on children's comprehension, recall, and conception of certain semantic relations. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **10**, 2 (1974/5), 155–92.

This study was designed (1) to provide an assessment of linguistic variables which affect the way in which children process verbal data when they read, and (2) to evaluate certain explicit and implicit claims emerging from research and opinion in the areas of readability analysis and psycholinguistics. A repeated measurement design for high- and average-achieving third and fourth graders yielded data which indicate that grammatical complexity is often an aid to comprehension and recall rather than a hindrance. The results are discussed in light of the implications they provide for the writing of children's reading

material, further readability analysis, and developing models of performance for language users. [References.]

75–260   Tarone, Elaine. Speech perception in second language acquisition: a suggested model. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 223–33.

In recent work on second-language acquisition, reference has been made to the learner's second-language 'production grammar' and 'perception grammar', since decoding skills seem to be acquired before encoding skills. The postulation of two basically separate grammars for any language can, however, pose problems. A model of speech perception and production is suggested which attempts to account for different rates of acquisition of perceptual and productive skill in the second language, without assuming the existence of two separate second-language grammars. In Neisser's model of speech perception, Stage One could correspond to a 'perception grammar', although it cannot strictly be called a grammar. In Stage Two, the second-language grammar used in decoding the utterance is the same as that used in production of the second-language utterance. The discrepancy between perception and production in second-language acquisition can be accounted for by assuming the existence of a preliminary stage of speech perception, in which decoding is not based upon syntactic rules, but upon a feature analysis and hypothesis formation. Some principles which may be used in analysing the utterance in this preliminary stage are discussed and related to some research findings in second-language acquisition.

ERROR ANALYSIS   *See also abstract* 75–290

75–261   Hellinger, Marlis. Möglichkeiten und Grenzen der Fehleranalyse. [The possibilities and limitations of error analysis.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig, Germany), **36** (1975), 73–83.

Contrastive grammar (CG) has until now been the only link between error analysis (EA) and linguistic theory. The lack of a solution to the problem of equivalence delays the development of a theory of language comparison. CG is of value to EA in determining interference areas and in predicting errors but not all predicted errors actually occur, nor does CG predict all errors; so CG is not a general reference system for EA. Linguistic errors can be intrastructural or interstructural, but there are error categories, particularly quantitative ones, to which CG cannot be applied. EA shows a correlation between the frequency of some errors and the learning stage of the student. Some errors, outside the grammar of L 1 or L 2, suggest that the learner has internalised a separate linguistic system (interlanguage).

Various possibilities are open to a linguistic EA. If a type is productively rich, linguistic factors can be brought into play but not if a derivation pattern has many restrictions. Co-operation is needed between EA and sociolinguistics, and renewed efforts to define the performance components of generative grammar, leading to a description of interlanguage. [References.]

TESTING

75-262   Farrington, Brian. What is knowing a language? Some considerations arising from an advanced level multiple-choice test in French. *Modern Languages* (London), **56**, 1 (1975), 10–16.

The principles followed and techniques used in the devising of an objective test at advanced level are described. The test is used for first-year university students, consists of 90 items and takes two hours. It is marked by computer. Translation is avoided as much as possible. Lexical knowledge is measured by testing knowledge of the collocability of words or their paradigmatic relations [examples]. Syntax and word order are tested by items of rebarbative appearance, which test ability to recall the correct answer rather than merely recognising it. Negative oriented items formed the majority, the candidates having to select the one wrong option from among four acceptable ones, instead of the right form among four wrong. This means the candidates are faced with far fewer unacceptable pieces of French, and are openly encouraged to work by a process of elimination. [Mistakes previously made by comparable students are poor distractors – argument against the conventional five-choice item.]

The Discrimination Index was found to be low for language items compared to other subjects, probably because of the nature of language knowledge which is difficult to define, and most of which at an advanced level has been unconsciously assimilated rather than consciously learnt. Two types of linguistic proficiency at advanced level are distinguished: conscious acquisition, and the ability to generalise or recognise types. Some items failed by penalising the best (i.e. the latter) candidates. [Appendix gives correlation between scores in this test and the usual prose composition examination.]

75-263   Forrest, Ronald. Objective examinations and the teaching of English. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 3 (1975), 240–6.

The effects of introducing objective testing into English examinations for the West African School Certificate were examined by means of a questionnaire sent to teachers in Ghana, Nigeria and Ethiopia (in Ethiopia the School Leaving Certificate Examination is now entirely objective, but in Ghana and Nigeria the

examination is only partly so). [Details of responses as to changes in teaching methods and teachers' attitudes as a result of the introduction of these tests.]

Although half the respondents considered that objective examinations had had a good effect on their teaching, the effects have been very mixed and were in many cases adverse (i.e. too much class time was spent on working at objective tests). More teacher training could help, as it was the better trained teachers who found that the new examinations gave them scope to improve their teaching.

75-264 **Irvine, P., Atai, P. and Oller, J. W., Jr.** Cloze, dictation, and the Test of English as a Foreign Language. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 245–52.

The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was taken by 159 non-native speakers of English in Tehran, Iran. They also took a cloze test and two dictations. The former was scored for both exact and contextually acceptable responses. A correlation of 0·94 between the two methods recommends the exact method for non-native teachers of ESL and concurs with the result of a study by Stubbs and Tucker (1974). Cloze scores correlated with the combined dictations at 0·75. Cloze scored by either method was more highly correlated with the TOEFL total score (0·79, acceptable word method; 0·78, exact word method) than was the combined dictation (0·69). Confirming earlier research by Darnell (1968) and Oller and Conrad (1971), both cloze and dictation correlated better with the listening comprehension than with any other subsection of the TOEFL. This tends to confirm the suspicion that the listening comprehension section, which is a highly integrative and pragmatic task, is more valid than other sections of the TOEFL. On the whole, listening comprehension, cloze and dictation were more highly correlated with each other and with the remaining part scores on the TOEFL than the latter were with each other. This last fact provides strong support for integrative testing procedures. [Tables; references.]

75-265 **Möhle, Dorothea.** Der Einsatz informeller Tests im Französischunterricht. [The introduction of informal tests in the teaching of French.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt), **24**, 1 (1975), 2–18.

It is recognised that some tests are not simply a method of grading pupils, but a positive part of the teaching process. For reasons of time and objectivity, most tests in an orally based course must be written ones. The French language presents special problems because of the abundance of its grammatical forms, even at an elementary level, the interdependence of form and context and the

very different systems of the oral and written languages. It is therefore important that the tests devised should cover specific points, rather than make a global assessment of failure or success. A series of tests of verb, article and adjective agreement is given as an example. In these tests the pupil is asked for productive answers of a strictly controlled nature, ranging from inserting one word in a gap to supplying complete statements or questions. As the degree of difficulty increases, the possible answers are too varied to be marked with absolute objectivity, but at all stages it is valuable to isolate specific elements of free utterance and assess the pupil's proficiency in handling them. [Examples.] [References.]

75-266 **Thomas, R. Murray**. Testing second-language listening skills via television. *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington, DC), **20**, 5 (1975), 24–7.

Instructional television was used in the development of a system for testing English-language listening comprehension among American Samoan pupils in grades 3, 6, 9 and 11. American English is taught as the official second language [background to the language programme, including the provision of an instructional television system in all classrooms]. The need was for group testing of large numbers of pupils in a form which permitted rapid, accurate scoring. Typical problems are the pronunciation of the non-native-speaking teacher and his tendency to give his pupils unwarranted help with the tests. The use of different native speakers has the disadvantage of producing a test situation which is not standardised. Videotape provided the solution – a native speaker in the television studio can present test sentences and the session can be videotaped for broadcasting to the schools. The conducting of the test programme is described: (1) the form of the test; (2) selection of test sentences; (3) planning the layout of test items in the pupils answer booklets; (4) videotaping the oral presentation and accompanying pictorial test items; (5) administration of the tests, and (6) computerising the answers from the booklets and analysing results. [Pictorial test items illustrated.]

75-267 **Pauels, Wolfgang**. Englische Rechtschreibtests in Multiple-Choice-Form in Hauptschule und Gymnasium. [Multiple choice English spelling tests in the 'Hauptschule' and the 'Gymnasium'.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **22**, 1 (1975), 34–41.

Multiple-choice spelling tests may, by presenting pupils with wrong spellings, interfere with the learning process. Moreover, their effect is greater with lower-ability pupils (*Hauptschüler*) than with higher-ability (*Gymnasiasten*). To test these theories, two groups of 200 pupils in first year secondary were

selected, one from each type of school. Each group was presented with the same series of four tests: in test 1 eight English words were tested by dictation; test 2 and 3 tested recognition of the same words by multiple choice answers; in test 4 the same words were to be inserted in the correct gaps in a short test. In tests 2 and 3 the *Gymnasiasten* showed a greater immediate improvement over their own score in test 1 than did the *Hauptschüler*, although only the latter continued to improve in test 3. This may indicate that the *Hauptschüler* take longer to react to visual simuli, but that the effect continues longer. In test 4 the *Gymnasiasten* made fewer extra errors, compared to their score in the two recognition tests, than the *Hauptschüler*, which seems to indicate that the latter were indeed adversely affected by the wrong spellings. On the other hand, the *Hauptschüler* showed a considerable improvement in test 4 over their score in test 1, showing that the visual reinforcement in tests 2 and 3, even allowing for the wrong spellings, still had a considerable effect. This point has relevance to the teaching of spelling to lower-ability groups. [Transcript of tests.]

COURSE DESIGN

75–268   **Antonova, D. N.** О сопроводительном курсе Фонетики и интонации в учебнике русского языка для иностранцев. [A companion phonetics and intonation course in a Russian course for foreigners.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **2** (1975), 59–62.

An introductory course on the phonetics and intonation of a new language must be followed up by a course on phonetics accompanying the further study of the language, as the phonological system and articulatory skills cannot be acquired immediately, and there is always the problem of interference from the phonology of the native language. Many existing methods are inadequate: language-laboratory supplementary exercises often concentrate on the lexical and grammatical points raised by the textbook which they accompany, and courses on phonetics and intonation are not co-ordinated with such material. There is a need for a companion course, concentrating on phonetics, but exploiting the same lexical and grammatical material as the textbook, so as not to distract the learner from the ultimate aim of language acquisition. [Reference to such a course.] The aims of such a course are: reinforcement of automatic articulatory and auditory skills; conscious appreciation of the phonological differences between the native and target language; work on difficulties (e.g. positional conditioning) not covered at the elementary stage; establishment of an orthoepic norm; the phonetics of phrases and sentences as well as words; stress, word rhythm and intonation. Etymologically related words in the native and target language are important material for practice, as phonetic errors are often

observed in such words. Such a course can be general (for all foreigners) or specific (for speakers of a particular language).

75–269 Austin, Michael and Kimber, Kathleen. Birth of a syllabus. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3130** (23 May 1975), 20.

The conception and design of a new French A level syllabus at St Mary's College, Basingstoke, is described. Reasons for the change were that too little importance is given to aural comprehension and speaking in existing examinations; the literature and prose papers were felt to be too unrelated to skills developed on the course (particularly for the 'new' sixth-former who is not aiming at university); and a lack of opportunity for students to pursue individual interests or attain knowledge of France. The aim was to cater for those intending to continue their studies as well as to offer skills of immediate use to those who might need them professionally or socially.

The main aims in designing the course were to use French as the usual means of communication, and to include a wide range of materials from the media to textbooks. Literature was not neglected: the reading of accessible novels and plays could lead on to optional further study. After contacting various examination boards, an examination syllabus was drafted [criteria described; format of the examination discussed.] All the universities approached agreed to accept candidates prepared according to this syllabus which received formal acceptance early this year. It is clear that radical re-appraisals are acceptable, and the existence of a number of examination boards ensures variety.

75–270 Huberman, Gisela and Medish, Vadim. A multi-channel approach to language teaching. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **7**, 6 (1974), 674–80.

A multi-channel language course developed at the American University, Washington, is described. Modern electronics, including television, are used extensively with the main aim of condensing a two-year course (the elementary and intermediate levels) into one year without increasing the number of contact hours. The stages of development were (1) controlled listening by means of the 'added parts technique', 'time-compressed speech' and 'temporal spacing'; (2) addition of the visual dimension (videotape and videotape cassette) to increase motivation and teach non-verbal aspects [use of dramatised dialogues; development of materials].

A multi-channel Spanish course was then constructed [details of format, including 50 per cent of time devoted to videotape presentations, workbooks, selected readings, tests, homework]. The language-laboratory work is an integrated part of the course.

TEACHER TRAINING   *See also abstract* 75–285

75–271   Brumfit, C. J. and Reeder, K. F. The role of language study in teacher education. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **26**, 3 (1974), 251–9.

The methodology of the teaching of English as a mother tongue is becoming more concerned with language work than literature studies. Nevertheless, administrators and teachers should be aware of the complexity of the task, and teachers need some systematic knowledge. A large-scale programme of education and re-education is therefore needed at all levels, and it must be planned. There are at present hardly any helpful texts for the untrained teacher.

It is suggested that provision of a few MA level courses for experienced teachers or college lecturers would help to equip them to design their own language courses in colleges and departments of education. Such courses would introduce them to research on the nature of language, gearing this explicitly to the needs of the mother-tongue teacher. [A proposed MA programme is outlined, consisting of four main courses on linguistic theory, the description of English, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of language learning, and theory and practice of first-language teaching.] [References.]

75–272   Carver, David and Wallace, M. J. Some applications of micro-teaching to TESL. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 3 (1975), 184–90.

In 1971, Moray House Centre for Education Overseas launched a pilot micro-teaching programme to see whether the technique could be applied to their own TESL course (in-service courses for experienced teachers). A similar and more recent programme is described, including skill selection, organisation of tutor groups, briefing periods and teaching sessions. The approach led to a critical examination of certain teaching areas, of which one, comprehension, is discussed as an example. Typical weaknesses in teaching comprehension were established, and specific suggestions drawn up to help teachers avoid them. [Detailed examples.] The technique was felt to be a useful complement to, or even replacement for, traditional teaching practice in schools.

75–273   Foldberg, Egon. The training of English teachers in Denmark. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **7** (1975), 62–70.

[Background history of teacher training and the school system in Denmark]. The aims for English teaching in colleges of education were based on school conditions as they were in 1966. Since then most schools have decided to start English a year earlier (i.e. in the fifth year), increasing emphasis is put on

communicative competence, and there are plans for comprehensivisation of the first 9–10 years of schooling. To keep up with trends set in the schools is almost impossible as the colleges must wait for parliamentary legislation for any changes – one of the disadvantages of a centralised system.

Current proposals affecting English teaching are to make it the first compulsory foreign language for all, German being the second (instead of the first), and to begin it in the fourth year. These could well entail partial integration of mother-tongue and foreign-language teaching. Courses on general linguistics in colleges and on in-service courses would be useful. In order to maintain enthusiasm for English, it should be integrated with other subjects whenever possible.

TEACHING METHODS   *See also abstracts* 75–258, –288, –292.

75–274   Brewer, M. R. Intensive courses better than 'drip-feed'? *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3121** (21 March 1975), 31.

Intensive methods of foreign-language teaching have been widely used in commercial spheres and in higher education, but have not so far been tried out in the state education system. Three experimental three-day sessions were given by the author as part of a university course he attended, one in a primary and two in secondary schools, and these were felt to be enjoyable and successful. In general, however, it is difficult for secondary-school timetables to accommodate intensive courses though they would be valuable time-savers in split site comprehensives, for example. Each lesson would last two and a half days; the teaching process itself being similar to normal, with the proviso that variety is even more important – a change of activity every ten minutes is recommended.

The teaching on the experimental courses included reading and writing as well as oral/aural work; translating meanings and including grammatical explanation seemed justified. What is quickly learnt may be quickly forgotten, but it can be quickly revived. Several languages learnt in this way may be more useful than a laborious attempt to learn only one.

75–275   Magner, Thomas F. The study of foreign languages in China. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **58**, 8 (1974), 384–91.

The aims and methods of foreign-language teaching in China are described on the basis of a visit in 1974. The main aim is political but students also have practical goals, wanting more everyday English and to be of more practical use as interpreters. Foreign languages are taught at all levels in schools, universities and Foreign Language Institutes. English has replaced Russian as the most widely taught foreign language. Chinese is taught as a foreign language to the

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six per cent of non-Chinese minorities. [Problems of dialects and the ideographic script.]

School English classes visited are described – new methods such as greater student participation in class and in course planning and downgrading of examinations in favour of course work are approved in theory but frequently not put into practice: there is still too much reliance on rote learning, choral response and mechanical questions and answers [examples]. An interesting method for utilising real situations is the 'open door' technique where classes are conducted in factories and topics are related to the language needs of the learners. Textbooks are constantly being revised and few materials are available: original texts from the target language are gradually being used to a greater extent and teachers and students revise their own instructional materials. [A university curriculum for Russian is described.] Students work hard and are highly motivated.

75-276   Skljarov, Miho. Jezična zornost. [Linguistic perception.] *Strani jezici* (Zagreb), **3**, 3 (1974), 193–201.

Linguistic perception implies the activation of all the senses. In language teaching this is often taken to mean the activation of the visual and acoustic senses only, but it should involve the thought processes of the learner. One of the main problems is to encourage pupils to think in the target language from an early stage. In this context perceptive language learning is the linking of sense impressions and emotion with the development of thought. Four kinds of perception, based on sense impressions, are identified as relevant to language learning: auditive, visual, articulatory and graphic.

The process of intuitive command of a foreign language is aided by theoretical knowledge of the functioning of its linguistic system. Perception here involves the presentation of material in order to substantiate the rules of the language. Active perception occurs when learners participate in reproducing everyday situations, particularly in the elementary and intermediate stages of language learning. Perception must always be motivated: no picture or object should be presented except in connection with new material, with the development of specific skills. For the best results, perception should: (1) always have a direct linguistic aim, i.e. it must clearly illustrate an act of speech or law of the language; (2) pictures and objects must be selected and shown from their most characteristic angle; and (3) perception increases if accompanied by analytical explanation by the teacher to help learners to compare, generalise and systematise.

CLASS METHODS   *See also abstracts* 75–283, –287

75–277   Damiani, Maria Sticchi. Comunicazione e seconda lingua. [Communication and second language.] *Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata* (Rome), **6**, 3 (1974), 3–13.

Language is one manifestation of the individual's total behaviour in socially organised communicative situations. It is therefore more accurate to speak of communicative rather than verbal behaviour. On this basis the acquisition of a second language can be seen as progressive evolution of an individual's communicative behaviour in a given linguistic community. In a class teaching situation, two distinct but closely related phases occur: the creation of a class community and the integration of this community into a one with different linguistic and socio-cultural characteristics.

The experience of 20 students, average age 22, studying English at intermediate level over one academic year, is described. Problems of accommodation, integration, and status of teacher *vis-à-vis* pupils must be considered in facilitating the creation of the class community. A teacher and volunteer pupil of English mother tongue constituted the second-language, symbolically wider community into which the class was integrated. The pattern of improvement in the language-learning process (first lexical, then grammatical) is described and evaluated, and advice given on methodology and the final aim of personal cultural enrichment.

75–278   Howgego, J. The modern language teacher and mixed ability classes. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **6** (1975), 67–73.

The appropriateness of mixed ability classes for language teaching is questionable, mainly because different pupils can benefit from different approaches and such flexibility is difficult within a large mixed group. A broad banding procedure is the closest to grading on entry to secondary school that can be justified; mixed ability for the first year should allow time for individual abilities to be assessed. Setting is desirable after one or perhaps two years in order to ensure efficient teaching and maximum motivation. Problems arising in the mixed ability year are discussed under the headings: materials, organisation, resources and assessment; suggestions for dealing with them are offered.

75–279   Salfinger, Helmut. Erfahrungen mit der Gruppenarbeit im Englischunterricht. [Group work in the teaching of English – some results.] *Moderne Sprachen* (Vienna), **18**, 1/2 (1974), 37–50.

The importance of communication is felt to justify group work as a method of L 2 teaching, since it considerably improves individual speech participation

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from the average of just under two hours a year. Based on the findings of social psychology, this method which is barely mentioned in most method textbooks aims to develop in the individual communicative skill by using team techniques. It pre-supposes the use of topics with known vocabulary and requires preparatory work. [Description of class methods and the teacher's role. Twelve examples are given for years 1–8, ranging from simple expressions to play reading, newspapers, and discussion of a film.] [References.]

PRONUNCIATION *See also abstracts* 75–238, –268

75-280 Geiger, A. and Winter-Dankmer, G. Zur Wahrnehmung im Englischunterricht: Übungsvorschläge. [Perceptive appreciation in the teaching of English, with suggested exercises.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), **6**, 21 (1975), 22–37.

Both grammar and perception, together with articulation, are needed for communicative skills. Articulation can be learnt by imitation but teaching aids are needed for difficulties in perception due to psychological, physical and regional causes. Beginning with single words in the vocabulary of first-year courses, attention must be given to certain vowels, diphthongs and final voiced consonants offering special difficulty. Ability to discriminate between sounds is a prerequisite of perceptive appreciation and established habits may need dismantling.

Exercises should be done in ascending order of difficulty and with initial use of minimal pairs, on contrasting pairs in L 1 and L 2, contrasts of right and wrong sounds, and possibly graphemic representation. [Many examples of exercises, inter- and intralingual, mostly in two grades of difficulty.] These exercises must be done frequently and early in the L 2 course. Cards, flannel and magnetic boards, drawings, overhead projectors, tapes, records, hand signs, colour symbols and games can be used at various stages. [References.]

75-281 Green, Jerry D. Some principles for the development of remedial pronunciation material for advanced level learners: an individualised approach. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **13**, 1 (1975), 12–16.

Guiding principles for the development of remedial pronunciation material for advanced language learners are recommended. The material is tailored to a specific group of learners (this is what is meant by 'individualised'), in this case Saudi Arabian students. [Examples of teaching methods used with such students.]

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LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES
See abstract 75–293

READING   *See also abstracts* 75–257, –259, –293

75–282   Burke, Elizabeth and Lewis, D. G. Standards of reading: a critical review of some recent studies. *Educational Research* (Windsor, Berks), **17**, 3 (1975), 163–74.

Six studies of the reading standards of British schoolchildren are critically reviewed, special attention being paid to the statistical analysis and evaluation of results. The studies were either normative, i.e. concerned with standards of attainment, or aimed to reveal what concomitant variables (particularly in the categories of 'school' or 'teacher') are associated with high standards. No justification was found for a belief that standards are declining. An increased use of regional surveys is recommended. [References.]

COMMUNICATION   *See also abstracts* 75–235, –279, –287

75–283   Huybrechts, Ingrid and Wildenhahn, Bernhard. Übungen für den Französischunterricht. (Microconversations – eine Übungsform zur Realisierung des Prinzips der Einheit von Kenntnisfestigung und Fertigkeitsentwicklung.) [Exercises in the teaching of French. (Microconversations – a form of exercise designed to put into practice the principle of the unity of knowledge and development of skill.)] *Fremdsprachen Unterricht* (Berlin), **19**, 3 (1975), 140–4.

The problem of how to combine grammatical reinforcement with the provision of communicative skill lies at the centre of modern methodology. Unfortunately, too many drills still demand a purely formal transformation, without any attempt at natural dialogue. The 'microconversation', on the other hand, is one of a number of exercises where the response demanded is a natural conversational reaction to the stimulus. [Description and usage in class.] Most modern course books contain sections of dialogue which can well be adapted to microconversations. Although they drill component parts of conversation rather than conversation itself, they are nevertheless complex exercises which practise grammatical, idiomatic and intonational elements simultaneously. [Many examples.] [References.]

WRITING   *See also abstract* 75–267

75–284   **Edwards, W. J.** A guided composition programme for form I children in Guyana. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 3 (1975), 197–206.

The main problems which Guyanese form I children in secondary schools have in writing compositions are derived from unhelpful primary teaching: their needs in beginning secondary school are (1) to acquire active control over enough SE patterns to be able to speak and write a coherent composition, and (2) to learn the principles of selection, presentation and cohesion. A reasonable approach has been found to be guided composition exercises, which can draw children's attention to imperfectly known forms and provide reinforcement of known ones. [Discussion of this approach.]

A four-phase course is outlined, each phase involving successively less control. Diagnostic tests establish what the children's grammatical problems are; stories are collected and classified according to the teaching opportunities they provide. In phase I the teacher uses as models Nansi stories specially translated: the children are already familiar with these folk tales. By the end of phase II, the children should be prepared to write their own stories: pictures are used in this phase to outline the plot. In phase III, film strips and mime are used to depict visually what the teacher wants them to write; in phase IV the children write a story round a single picture and then simply from a verbally given context. [Details of teaching methods with full examples are given for each phase.] The programme should last for a full academic year. The same approach could be applied to other forms of writing. [References.]

COMPREHENSION   *See abstract* 75–266

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS   *See abstract* 75–270

TELEVISION   *See abstract* 75–266

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

75–285 **Harper, D.** Orientation and attitude formation in the language laboratory. *ELT Documents* (London), **1**, (1975), 13–16.

Factors affecting the establishment of positive attitudes to the language laboratory in teachers and students are examined, as they are felt to be vital to success or failure. The training programme should include those administrators, inspectors and advisers who make the decision to install a laboratory so that they are made aware of the organisational problems and can discuss them. Teachers who are put in charge of a laboratory with no prior consultation or training are likely to develop negative attitudes towards it. Many training programmes aim too low, merely ensuring that teachers can work the laboratory and are familiar with the published materials. More complex programmes aimed at engendering positive attitudes should include materials preparation, which has been found to be highly motivating; such programmes help the teacher to realise the scope of the laboratory in practical terms and the ways in which it can be exploited.

Students also need preliminary training, and this should likewise not be pitched too low. They need to understand not merely how to work the machinery, but the pedagogic implications, aural discrimination and the teacher's role as monitor. [Suggestions for training students to use a laboratory.]

IMMIGRANTS *See abstract* 75–291

ENGLISH *See also abstracts* 75–263/4, –266/7, –271/3, –275, –277, –279/81, –284/5

75–286 **Dordević, Radmila.** Anglistička lingvistika i nastava engleskog jezika. [Linguistics and the teaching of English.] *Strani jezici* (Zagreb), **3**, 4 (1974), 249–57.

The application of linguistics to the teaching of English is examined and contrastive analysis is discussed: initially the identification of the differences between the native and target languages was of prime importance in language teaching. Today less stress is laid on comparison, but it can still be useful: e.g. in the Comparative Serbo-Croat/English Project being carried out in the Institute of Linguistics, Zagreb. The results will be used in composing a pedagogical grammar, selecting and grading teaching material, etc. [References.]

75-287 **Lademann, Norbert.** Kommunikative Orientierung und didaktische Funktionen im Englischunterricht. [Communicative orientation and didactic functions in the teaching of English.] *Fremdsprachen Unterricht* (Berlin), **19**, 2 (1975), 94–100.

The introduction of new curricula for the teaching of English has led to progress in the pupils' ability to communicate in the target language, but the curriculum aims are still interpreted very variously in practice. In particular, the two functions 'reinforcement' and 'utilisation' are often confused. [Two lessons are analysed to show how pupils often have insufficient opportunity to use newly learned structures and lexis in free conversation – they often merely read aloud and answer questions.]

Modern methodology distinguishes these main didactic functions: definition of aims, introduction, work on new material, reinforcement, systematisation, utilisation [*Kontrolle*]. There is much overlap between these functions, but in any given part of a lesson it should be clear which is dominant. [A model lesson is analysed to show, in particular, how the pupils can be given the opportunity to utilise new material in imaginary but authentic dialogues amongst themselves.] [References.]

75-288 **Roberts, J. T.** The 'session libre'. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **13**, 1 (1975), 3–11.

An intensive English course at the Institut Universitaire de Technologie in Nancy, France, is described. The students (studying public relations, information science and librarianship) had already studied English for at least six years. Most tuition is extensive but once a term a *session intensive* is given (20 hours spread over three days). Dissatisfaction with earlier intensive courses arose from failure to adapt teaching methods, so a new type of intensive course was evolved, the *session libre*. In contrast to the previous highly structured teaching programme, a collection of 'linguistic activities' tailored to fit in with the available facilities was envisaged. The six basic activities were films, TV, press, tape library, games and language laboratory. [Minimal constraints, including work schedule and general organisation, are described.] The staff were to supervise and help students but not to teach in the conventional way. Results were encouraging [discussion of theoretical considerations, and the problem of students lacking in self-confidence]. A minimally directive approach such as this is felt to induce independence and creativity. [Application of this approach in schools and further and higher education is discussed and recommended.] [References.]

75-289 **Svoboda, J. B.** An analysis of English learner speech. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 279–86.

Samples of English speech were collected from 15 adult native-Spanish speakers and 15 adult native-Japanese speakers who were at an intermediate proficiency level in English. An analysis of the data revealed recurring patterns of speech, or variants, in the subjects' data. The distribution of these variants indicated that the subjects did not possess a coherent learner language and that individual learner idiolects existed which were composed of subsets of variants. The variants reflected common efforts on the part of the learners to simplify the target language either by shortening sentence structure, overgeneralising verb morphology or omitting functors such as articles and auxiliaries. A universal process of simplification in language learning was postulated to account for the recurrence of the same variants in different learner idiolects. This study shows that any theory of second-language acquisition must recognise that learners employ a simplification process.

75-290 **Takahashi, Noriko and Williams, Susan.** Insights from a college entrance examination. *Modern English Journal* (Ashiya-shi, Japan), **5**, 3 (1974), 201–8.

Types of error made in a non-objective written English college entrance examination by 99 high-school students in Japan are analysed. [Test described.] Students tended to rely on fixed patterns at the expense of meaning possibly because of reliance in schools on word-by-word translation methods. Many errors were made in grammatical material taught early in junior high school; others arose from using complex and stilted constructions when simple forms would be appropriate [examples].

Teachers need to concentrate on helping students to communicate rather than to prepare them to pass examinations. Pattern drills are done in isolation and without sufficient variety. In the senior high school constant revision of basics is still necessary. Colleges should initiate change by revising their examinations and encouraging schools to aim for communication rather than grammatical accuracy.

75-291 Some likely areas of difficulty for Turkish students. *English: a New Language* (Canberra), **14**, 1 (1974), 1–31.

Likely areas of difficulty for immigrants in continuation classes are classified as vowels, consonants, other pronunciation problems, grammar, written and cultural factors. Specific teaching methods are suggested and illustrated with examples of comparative pronunciation and grammatical structures.

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

FRENCH   *See also abstracts* 75–256, –262, –265, –269, –274, –283

75-292   Jones, Barry L. A case for 'French Studies' for less able pupils. *Cambridge Journal of Education* (Cambridge), **5**, 2 (1975), 87–97.

Local and student teachers in Cambridge are undertaking an on-going project to teach less able classes in the last three years of secondary schooling. The aim was to take into account such factors as the pupils' short attention and memory span, inability to produce complex French sentences by analogy, desire to feel that the language contexts reflect their real and not supposed interests, and greater ability to understand than is usually supposed. A small core of language was then defined and considerable supporting material developed. Work in English lessons supplied information about children's real interests, from which themes were selected, such as pop stars, camping holidays, advertisements, entertainment, clothes, sport, cartoons.

Techniques for helping the children to communicate their interests include: (1) small group discussions leading to the writing down of a few sentences, which are later incorporated into a collage with the pupils' own illustrations. These are then discussed by other groups. (2) Video-recordings of each group and its project are made into a programme with a sound track. (3) Production of visual materials and tape commentaries by groups. (4) Establishment of tape links with equivalent French classes. [Description of the establishment of the basic language core, i.e. question forms, verbs, aspects of grammar; choice of materials and their production; assignment cards; further discussion in English of the topics. Examples.] Pupils' confidence to speak has been restored, and interest in French contemporaries aroused. A more systematic two-year project is planned.

SPANISH   *See abstract* 75–270

RUSSIAN   *See also abstracts* 75–268, –275

75-293   Pickard, Madge. Teaching a reading knowledge of Russian to scientists. *Journal of Russian Studies* (Lancaster), **29** (1975), 33–7.

A course of Russian given to fisheries research scientists is described. The aim was to enable them to read specialist journals in Russian. The students could already read and write the Cyrillic script and had some grammatical knowledge. The course was based on Beresford's *Complete Russian course for scientists*, but an aural/oral element was also included for interest. [Teaching methods described, including the use of vocabulary sheets, flash cards, translation from relevant journals.]

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NIGERIAN LANGUAGES

75–294   Awoniyi, Timothy A. Problems related to curriculum development and teaching the mother tongues in Nigeria: a historical survey, 1800–1974. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **13**, 1 (1975), 31–9.

A historical survey is made of three phases of curriculum development and the teaching of the mother tongue in Nigeria – the pre-colonial era 1800–82, the colonial era 1882–1960, and 1960 onwards (a period of growth and development in these fields). Current problems include the adaptation of the mother tongues to the teaching of other subjects with new concepts, such as science and politics; the need for a metalanguage to describe the mother tongues themselves; the school examination procedures; shortage of suitably trained teachers; low prestige of degree courses in the mother tongues; lack of a national policy on mother tongues, and the need for more research on the structures of Nigerian languages.