

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

68-197 Bachmann, James K. and Annemarie Hiebel. The first integral experiment on the audio-oral method of teaching foreign languages. *Homo Loquens* (Rome), 1, 1 (1967), 43-55.

Scherer and Wertheimer conducted a psycholinguistic experiment in foreign-language teaching at the University of Colorado between 1960 and 1962 with students beginning German. A control group of students was taught by the traditional grammar-translation method and an experimental group used audio-lingual procedures and materials. The results were published in *A Psycholinguistic Experiment in Foreign-Language Teaching* (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964). The present article is an analysis of the test results and a general criticism of the experiment, concluding that although the experiment was a noteworthy attempt to examine the two teaching methods objectively the results were inconclusive. It is suggested that further experiments may produce better tests and more reliable indices of achievement. At present there would appear to be little to choose in over-all proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing taken together; and the method of teaching would then depend on the contact—oral or written—students were likely to have with the target language.

68-198 Bennett, William A. The social science of language. *Universities Quarterly* (London), 22, 1 (1967), 68-73.

One cannot underestimate the power of language to mould society. The science of linguistics is more concerned with the phenomena than with their source and, as a science, it has tended to become dehumanized. At the same time the rise of what is termed applied linguistics (generally applied to language teaching in the United

States and to machine translation in the Soviet Union) is comparatively recent.

At university level the separation between general and applied linguistics is noticeable in that language centres are almost entirely concerned with language teaching while other university departments and institutions deal with other applied linguistic topics with more or less attention to the findings of general linguistics. Specialists in applied linguistics need to be able to take from general linguistics what is necessary for them without becoming involved in competing models of linguistic description and other disputes of the sister discipline. The contribution of linguistic analysis and a growing understanding of how language works have played a significant part in making language teaching more effective, but the work has been hampered by lack of suitable materials for advanced language teaching both of foreign languages here and of British English overseas. Making such materials available by collecting them through a national agency and, in the case of English, disseminating them for teaching at all levels around the globe, would be of considerable value. There has already been discussion in the Hayter and Annan reports of the need for a national language institute and it now seems clear that language teaching at any level by modern methods calls for high qualities in researchers, course writers and teachers and merits close relations to other academic pursuits.

68–199 Corder, S. Pit. The significance of learners' errors. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 4 (1967), 161–9.

Works on the teaching of modern languages often deal cursorily with the question of learners' errors and their correction. Some feel that the pupils' errors indicate only defective teaching and others feel that errors are inevitable and one should concentrate on their correction rather than on avoidance. Comparisons are made between acquiring the mother-tongue and acquiring a foreign language—a behaviourist hypothesis states that a human infant is born with an innate predisposition to acquire language. The application of this hypothesis to second-language learning is not new and if the mechanism for acquiring

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mother tongue and second languages is the same then the procedures adopted by the second-language learner will be the same. The combination of motivation and intelligence will decide the speed of second-language acquisition. Many of the errors incurred will be caused by so-called mother tongue 'interference' but, by the above hypothesis, such errors could better be considered as indicative of an attempt to explore the new language system rather than as a sign of persistence in previously acquired habits. The author considers errors as indications of a learning strategy and feels that teachers should adapt to the needs of the pupil rather than impose on him their own ideas of how he ought to learn and what and when.

68–200 Crowley, Dale P. Language programs contrasted. *Elementary English* (Champaign, Illinois), **44**, 7 (1967), 756–61.

Since it was realized that language learning is a complex skill consisting of a co-ordinated performance of the nervous and motor systems affected by the highest-level conceptual, cognitive and attitudinal factors, the traditional approach of memorizing vocabulary lists and grammar rules has been challenged.

Techniques of linguistic contrastive analysis have enabled phonological and grammatical differences between two dialects to be identified and serve as a basis for the teaching of standard English to local dialect speakers. Although foreign-language teachers have given impetus to programmes for teaching standard language to pidgin and dialect speakers, distinctions between second-language programmes for adults and second dialect programmes for children have to be made. Similarities between standard and non-standard language pose problems of identification of learning goals. Passive comprehension of the standard dialect may go on all the time through radio, television and cinema, and this means that a wider variety of subjects can be used for lessons and progress will be faster than in second-language programmes. The relevancy of the techniques of pattern practice, visual aids, memorization and transfer are examined, and visual aids and transfer are seen to be of most positive value in dialect learning. Interference between dialects will be severe and reinforcement of

standard patterns has to continue throughout the school day. Learning through fun and a desire to please the teacher are seen to be motivating factors until the children sense the importance of proficiency in the standard language, probably in secondary grades.

68–201 Gefen, Raphael. ‘Sentence patterns’ in the light of language theories and classroom needs. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 4 (1967), 185–92.

Textbooks for English as a second language abound using techniques of programmed instruction and substitution tables associated with ‘structuralism’ which linguists are increasingly discarding. The sentence pattern techniques of Hornby, Palmer, Fries and Lado are not logically a part of structuralism: they are generative rather than taxonomic. They represent a valid pedagogical method, focusing the pupil’s attention on the sentence rather than the word.

Sentence patterns vary in number. Transformational grammar would reduce them to a very limited number of rules for phrase structure. Even if all models are likely to be covered by the rules belonging to a lower level of the theory, it is not always useful for teaching purposes to use transformations and complicated rules of phrase structure. Tagmemic formulae are best suited to familiarizing students with models containing substitution or elimination of elements. On the other hand, transformational rules are more suited to types of sentences where the operation depends on a whole series of elements (active–passive, affirmative–interrogative).

Intensive pattern practice and structure drills are useful, but the audio-lingual school have neglected other language learning techniques, lost motivation and interest and disregarded contextualization. Language is neither a Pavlovian reflex nor a Skinnerian reinforcement response, or rather it is these and many other things at the same time.

68–202 **Keller, R. E.** Linguistics and German language teaching. *Bulletin of the John Rylands Library* (Manchester), 50, 1 (1967), 83–102.

Many university students of German become teachers of German. The university teacher needs to be aware of this and to know what attitudes and theories have inspired and are inspiring language teaching. Three operations go on concurrently in the classroom: (1) the conveying of phonology, grammar and lexis to the learner; (2) the pedagogical operation; (3) the cultural operation. The proportion of time which should be given to the acquisition of the body of the language and to general education through discovering another culture has long been debated. Today the acquisition of the language is taking precedence, and the concepts and theories of modern linguistics may provide intellectual stimulus and prove a valuable tool for the teacher.

Modern linguists see language as a *system* and as a *process*. Historical and descriptive linguistics contribute to the understanding of the developing language system. In Germany the study of historical philology was particularly strong and modern descriptive linguistics has been slow to develop, giving little help to the teacher of German. The principle that speech came first and writing afterwards has affected the traditional precedence given to writing. This influence may, however, be mitigated by non-linguistic circumstances such as size of classes, and external examinations which prevent priority being given to the aural understanding and speaking of the language. Language is also seen today as a *habit*, acquired by practice. Intellectually undemanding drill must therefore be linked to real-life situations. Real insight into the functioning of the linguistic patterns, contrasting them with the native language, is something that the intelligent learner will demand and benefit from.

The basic notion that language is a system is expressed by modern linguists in the term *structural linguistics*. Every language has its own grammatical system and the system of, say, German should not be expressed in categories appropriate to Latin [illustrations].

Finally, linguistics is concerned with *meaning*, which can be difficult

to separate from function. Each language has its own lexical, as well as its own phonological and grammatical systems. Lexis has different levels and the learner will slowly become aware of them. Lexical studies have enabled the now well-known frequency lists to be constructed.

68-203 Pauw, J. R. Differentiation in the ordinary classroom situation as regards the teaching of English as a second language, with special reference to the use of the tape recorder. *Symposium* (Johannesburg), 1 (1966), 15-23.

Speaking to teachers of classes of wide ability, the author makes some suggestions as to the use of tape-recorders and similar equipment in improving the standard of English. Environmental factors affect progress in learning a second language and skill in this field may not correspond to the IQ or general scholastic achievement on which streaming, where it exists, is based. Attempts to improve language teaching and learning are usually concentrated on the weak and average pupils, but by studying the needs of the different ability groups, including the brightest, and trying to remedy the specific weaknesses of each we may achieve more. Taped commentaries on the difficult parts of set books in literature can free the teacher for all but one lesson per week to attend to less advanced pupils. Where a language laboratory is available, pupils can work in pairs with their booths linked and the teacher monitoring, or in groups tackling drills or debating a subject (without using booths) according to their ability. For success, a great deal will depend on the relationship between the teacher and his class and the general attitude to order and discipline in the school. Padded earphones may be used for a limited number of pupils where no language laboratory is available.

Different written assignments and different textbooks are suggested for the same class where some of the children need repeated explanations and oral drills and some only need to practise forms already understood.

Criticisms of the foregoing suggestions, which the author foresees, are: of differentiation as a principle, of frequent passivity of the pupils,

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of the time involved in preparing tapes for the various levels of ability, and of the discipline problems raised. Hygiene is also a consideration where many pupils are using earphones and headpieces. In reply, careful planning and beginning on a small scale are advocated. Team planning of materials can reduce individual work. Ideally, education departments would help in the production of master tapes to be borrowed and copied from a central library. In conclusion, some suggestions are made for the planning of a future language-teaching classroom, combining a raised section to provide a stage and work room for small groups at the back, and at the front of the room behind the blackboard the small store-room familiar in the science laboratory.

68-204 Polo, José. Sobre enseñanza del español a extranjeros. [On the teaching of Spanish to foreigners.] *Español Actual* (Madrid), 10 (1967), 1-6.

The 'direct' method attempts to establish a direct relation between the acoustic image and the conceptual image (which includes affective elements). On practical grounds there are several objections to such a method.

Experience in the mother tongue is irreversible, and interference operates both at a conscious and subconscious level. When teaching adults we cannot eliminate this interference. Building on past experience requires that we translate; we pass from the known to the unknown. The process of learning a second language is not the same as learning a first. In the case of the child the 'direct method' will be relatively effective, but one cannot eradicate a whole vital-linguistic system built up through experiences related to the mother tongue. Language is not an algebra of empty forms, and we cannot recreate the conditions in which we learn our mother tongue. We must capitalize on our ability to translate; that is, to make use of our mother tongue as a support between acoustic images and conceptual images of the second language. Use of our mother tongue is an economic and efficient means of grasping a second language. We should only need to memorize the acoustic image because the con-

ceptual image is associated with the mother tongue. The adult will always learn the conceptual system of the second language by means of the first. The adult must gradually learn what is parallel and what is not parallel in the two languages.

The child progresses from practical knowledge to theoretical knowledge; the adult learns the two together.

Grammar is necessary because it is systematization. Separate and concrete sentences must be used for their value as models to construct other sentences. Grammar results in an economy of effort: infinite language builds upon a finite language.

We must take into account the student's type of memory, which is not always acoustic: exclusively oral teaching is not considered efficacious, even for beginners. Apart from visual memory a student possesses both the acoustic and graphic forms of his mother tongue; it is on these that we must build. Their existence cannot be denied.

In limiting the vocabulary to be taught to beginners we often have to choose between two synonyms, but sometimes both of them are frequently used. Scientific criteria are important in the matter of selection.

For effective teaching it is necessary to consider not only the immediate context of language and methodology, but also extralinguistic factors. Real communication demands a consideration of human, professional, and social elements.

68-205 Rocklyn, Eugene H. The development and test of a special purpose foreign language training concept. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 1 (1967), 27-36.

The article traces the origin and evaluation of a foreign-language training concept which developed out of a specific military communication problem—that of interrogating prisoners whose language is not familiar to the captor. A list of administrative difficulties in training combatants is given, together with a brief analysis of the limiting factors on the prisoner's language caused by the military situation. From these considerations a self-instructional course was designed

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to be applied to Russian and Mandarin Chinese. [Details are given of the aims and methods of these two courses.]

From this experience the author underlines the need to produce realistic programmes which will correspond as closely as possible to the situations in which the language studied will be needed, without violating accepted learning principles. There is also need for performance tests to evaluate any such language-training method. Care must be taken not to include only students of high aptitude in the evaluation group. They should be there, but the group should consist mainly of average students in order to determine any negative effects of training procedures designed primarily for students of average aptitude.

68–206 Sutherland, Margaret B. Creativity in language. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2752 (16 February 1968), 513.

Advances have been made both in teaching mathematics and science and in teaching modern languages, but on quite different lines. While mathematics teaching emphasizes discovery, initiative and originality, modern-language teaching emphasizes imitation, repetition and faithful reproduction (seemingly opposite qualities). The modern-language teacher's problem is to teach material which must be accepted as it is and then to encourage its use to express individual personalities. At a more advanced stage, the study of 'model' writings on contemporary problems can mean that not only words and constructions but the ideas as well are absorbed. This may be acceptable if the ideas are of sufficient value. Ingenuity in reconstructing known material may be largely a matter of individual ability and the language-teacher's task of encouraging spontaneity while working within known constructions is remarkably difficult.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

68-207 Forrest, R. English language teaching versus the examiners. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 119-23.

Secondary-level examinations allocating many marks to essay and précis still influence English language teaching. Uncontrolled essay writing provides an opportunity for wrong language habits to be formed. Correcting essays is an uneconomical use of the language-teacher's time. Where English is the medium of instruction and also a second language, numerous multiple-choice and short-answer tests are needed. Testing specialists should work with teachers to devise them. Even experienced examiners are not consistent in their marking of essays. The examinee can avoid constructions he is unsure of. The teacher is tempted to teach essay-writing skills before the students are ready for them.

Précis writing is an even more advanced exercise. Only exceptionally fluent students can know which words may be changed. Précis encourages inappropriate vocabulary, telegraphese, and the omission of grammatically vital words. It involves both comprehension and expression, and the marking is inevitably subjective.

The backwash effect of the traditional English examination on teaching is disastrous. The alternative to tests in essay and précis is an objective test.

68-208 Jeanneret, René. Le test CGM 62. *Bulletin de la Commission Interuniversitaire Suisse de Linguistique Appliquée* (Neuchâtel), 2 (1967), 19-28.

The test CGM 62 was devised for CREDIF (known by the initials of its compilers and the year of compilation) to examine the knowledge of beginners in French as a basis to drawing up homogeneous classes of students. [Details of the test are given.] The results give five levels of competence. At Neuchâtel some 120 students had taken the test for different purposes: classification on entering the commercial school; a final examination; a comparison between traditional and audio-visual teaching methods. The tests gave satisfactory results for

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the three purposes, in the third case showing more rapid progress in the audio-visual than in the traditional classes.

68-209 Kankashian, Ibrahim. Objective vocabulary testing. *TEFL: Bulletin for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language* (Beirut), **1**, 4 (1967), 1-2 and 4-5.

Two types of objective vocabulary test are illustrated; a 'true or false' and a multiple-choice test. By examples the author shows what constitutes effective and poor tests and recommends a system of marking to eliminate wild guessing. In 'true or false' tests there may be unintentional difficulties if too many words are used indicating indefiniteness in time, degree, frequency, extent, size and amount, as the student's estimate of such abstractions may be quite different from the teacher's. In multiple-choice tests homonyms and pairs of opposites are to be avoided. All distractors should be plausible. The correct answer should not be longer or shorter than the other words.

68-210 Lane, Harlan L. Conditioning accurate prosody. *Audio-visual Instruction* (Washington, DC), **11**, 8 (1966), 621-3.

The Director of the Center for Research on Language and Language Behavior, University of Michigan, describes an experimental prototype computer-controlled system (called SAID, Speech Auto-Instructional Device) for teaching prosodic accuracy.

The mere intelligibility of a learner's performance in a second language is no guarantee that he is approaching native-like fluency. He needs in addition to master the characteristic prosodic patterns of the target language, to which those of his native tongue can be no guide, even though it may be cognate to the target language or even heavily influenced by it. The conditions of traditional classroom teaching largely make it impossible for the average student to accomplish this and no self-instructional language programmes have yet been evolved which deal adequately with the attainment of prosodic accuracy.

Simple unmonitored exposure to recorded material in the con-

ventional language laboratory is likely to reinforce the learner's own mistakes. The value of the SAID system is that it presents tape-recorded standard patterns of prosodic performance for imitation by the student and automatically evaluates their acceptability for pitch, loudness and tempo. Meter readings demonstrate visually to the student the degree to which his imitation is unacceptable and the extent to which his performance for all three parameters must be modified to reach the tolerance limits of acceptability.

The controlling analogue computer ensures that the next pattern sequence in the programme is not presented to the student until he has reached these limits.

68-211 Lasch, Miguel. A prognostic test of language-learning ability. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), 5, 3 (1967), 10-14.

The aim was to find a means of selecting teacher trainees (in Chile) on a basis of potential rather than of achievement. The skills selected for testing were aural discrimination, oral production, grasping semantic distinctions, and grasping and manipulating structural devices. The stimuli were recorded, but not the students' answers. [The author gives details of eight different types of tests: repetition of a series of facts, repetition of words containing unfamiliar sequences of familiar sounds, pronunciation of tongue-twisters, imitation of vernacular mispronunciations, repetition of nonsense words, imitation of rhythms, imitation of musical tunes, and answering of questions in English.] A written recognition test was given as an extra. Listening and speaking were tested as a single skill. The students' ability to recall after drilling was not tested. Two or three evaluators listened to the candidates' performances.

The candidates with the lowest scores failed the course. The test can therefore predict failure. Almost all who got an average of 65 per cent on the tests succeeded in the first year of study.

Additional sections will be included in future tests. [Detail.]

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68–212 Riegel, Klaus, Robert M. Ramsay and Ruth M. Riegel.

A comparison of the first and second languages of American and Spanish students. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), 6, 4 (1967), 536–44.

Twenty-four American and twenty-four Spanish students gave restricted associations both in English and in Spanish to a variety of stimuli under instructions. Second-language learners left more blanks in their records than native speakers. The investigation was based on the assumption that second-language learning should result not only in an increase in vocabulary, but also in an approximation to the conceptual semantic structure of the target language. The discrepancy between the results on response variability and on task overlaps implies that progress in second-language learning cannot be measured only by knowledge of vocabulary. Obviously grammatical knowledge has to be tested and the apprehension and use of the conceptual semantic structure of the target language.

The Spanish students had had less formal second-language training than the Americans and had learnt their English chiefly by living in an American environment. Apparently, formal language training encourages the identification of the conceptual semantic structure whereas informal acquisition through everyday communication leads to a rapid increase in vocabulary and verbal fluency.

TEACHER TRAINING

68–213 Rees, Alun L. W. From theory to practice—some critical observations on the organization and assessment of teaching practice for prospective English language teachers. *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 25 (1967), 9–17.

The University of Trujillo offers a five-year training course for secondary-school teachers of English, the last year of which incorporates teaching practice. The student teaches fifteen classes for one hour each, not necessarily the same class nor in the same school. A plan of each lesson is handed to the supervisor, who observes the lesson from the back of the class, perhaps with one or two other

students. An informal evaluation follows which the class teacher is invited to join. The final class is taught before a jury of three staff followed by a viva voce examination, open to the public. The programme has been in operation for six and a half years and the second group of teachers is about to qualify. During those years an audio-visual library has been built up and students are encouraged to add to it as well as borrow from it. A tape-recorder has been used to record parts of practice classes and extracts of model performances were filed to encourage future trainees. Examples of recurring errors in the student-teacher's pronunciation were also recorded to help the student eradicate them.

A standardized printed form is to be used in future to guide the student's lesson notes and eliminate vague, generalized aims. Up to now the trainee has been given no direct help by the tutor in preparing individual practice classes in an attempt to cultivate his independence. It is now thought that initial help would be valuable for the preliminary classes. The compilation of a leaflet is planned stating the elementary techniques, use of gesture, etc., which have proved effective in past practice classes. This should provide practical and detailed advice which is beyond the scope of the theoretical lectures on methodology.

The system of frequently changing the practice class arose because of the opposition to the interruption of regular school work by 'oral' methods. Opportunity to alter this would be welcomed. The public viva voce examination, supposed to induce fairness, is now considered unreliable and out of keeping with the training programme.

The part which theoretical training ought to play in this type of course is also under consideration.

68-214 Rees, James E. Technical training for language teachers. *Visual Education* (London), January 1968, 9.

In reply to an article on technical training for student teachers in the November 1967 issue of this journal the author gives details of training in the use of up-to-date audio-visual aids currently given in the French department of the Charlotte Mason College of Educa-

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tion. Senior students are asked to test the work of junior students, thereby reinforcing their own knowledge. A sample three-year syllabus is given in outline.

TEACHING METHODS

68-215 Cooke, Mary. The teaching of English to the mentally ill. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 10 (1967), 7-11.

[The author describes her own experience of teaching adult patients in a mental hospital.] Attendance is voluntary and the patients are not dull but withdrawn from reality. The sense of belonging is fostered by the group situation. [Details of some of the patients are given.] The key to success is good teacher-student relationships. Everything must be done at the student's own pace. Kindness and encouragement are essential. The most satisfactory students are those who come with little or no English. The situational method is particularly appropriate. The main emphasis is on speech and on controlled oral practice. Chorus drilling is given. Most of the students have no interest in written work.

68-216 Greatwood, E. A. The middle stages of the modern language course. *Modern Languages* (London), 48, 4 (1967), 156-61.

There are many recent courses for teaching beginners French but little support has been given for the intermediate stage. Fresh stimulus is particularly valuable for 13 to 14-year-olds who have completed two or three years of audio-visual work and are now meeting structures which are very difficult to represent visually. Extensive reading and listening become necessary at this stage, sometimes enabling students of various ability to work at their own pace. Exercises need no longer be mechanical, as sections of language rather than individual sentences can be used for retelling incidents in a different tense, summarizing, dictating and providing the answers to questions. It is the role of grammar to co-ordinate knowledge and this is the function it can

fulfil for intermediate pupils. Formal grammar should not be learnt in advance of the speech patterns it analyses, but once the patterns are known it can help pupils to make generalizations and work by analogy. Paradigms are rarely taught now as part of an introduction to a foreign language, but for reference paradigms and lists of irregular forms will continue to be necessary. Composition is extremely important, though it will be guided and may consist of oral answers to questions recorded on tape before written composition is attempted. Guidance through picture sequences is now common, as is retelling a story and expansion of an outline.

Cultural gains from language study will come later and only an occasional talk about French life is justified. The language itself comes first at this stage. Correspondence and visits abroad will maintain the unity between language and culture which is necessary as a basis for advanced studies.

68-217 Harris, Alan C. Some 'tricks' of the TEFL trade. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 134-7.

The teacher should be aware beforehand of his student's problems and mistakes. He should try to understand the base language in relation to English. He can then handle difficulties quickly. [Examples.] Knowledge of the base language may solve the problem of which of two common equalitative structures to introduce first. The teacher should avoid introducing structures which almost force the students to make a mistake. Chance features of the base language may also provide mnemonic devices. Knowledge of the cultural context is useful when teaching English in English. Most structures are best introduced and checked in English in the class-room by use of well-known techniques (specified).

- 68-218 Petersen, Robert O. H.** The Hilo language development project. *Elementary English* (Champaign, Illinois), **44**, 7 (1967), 753-5 and 774.

The opening of the University of Hawaii's training centre for the Peace Corps in Hilo in 1962 brought innovations in teaching methods to the island. It was found that methods suitable for teaching English as a foreign language were not suitable for teaching standard English to children who spoke a local English dialect. Standard English had to be taught as an alternative means of communication. It was useless to try to eradicate the islands' dialect. The staff jointly studied the dialectal variations and drew up a suitable sequence of lessons and series of tests to see whether the experimental work was proved valid. The staff is confident that the method will not only prove successful for Hawaii but will be adaptable to other situations where non-standard English is spoken. The project ends in October 1969.

- 68-219 Rohner, William D., Steve Lynch, Joel R. Levin and Nancy Suzuki.** Pictorial and verbal factors in the efficient learning of paired associates. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **58**, 5 (1967), 278-84.

Believing that one of the important tasks of pedagogy is to create conditions that produce efficient learning, two possible ways were tried to accomplish this for the kind of learning that conforms to the paired-associate paradigm. The first derived from evidence reported in a series of studies of the effects of sentence contexts on the learning of noun pairs. The pairs were either pictures of objects or the printed names of those objects. As each pair was presented, the names of the objects were given alone and then with (1) a connecting preposition, (2) a conjunction, (3) a connecting verb. For both older and younger students pictorial materials produced more efficient learning than printed materials and connexion by verb was the most helpful, with prepositions next and conjunctions least helpful.

It is indicated that these results only apply to learning tasks with paired associates. High-school students learn verbal concepts more

rapidly when materials are represented verbally. Age and maturity also play some part. For sixth-grade students the preposition connexions appeared to be as helpful as verbs.

Further experimentation is needed to clarify the present knowledge of efficient learning.

CLASS METHODS

68-220 Buckby, M. Contextualization of language drills. *Modern Languages* (London), 48, 4 (1967), 165-70.

In too many language drills the ideas expressed are of less importance than linguistic manipulation. Contextualized drills make it possible to practice the motor-perceptive, organizational and semantic skills together. There is scope for introducing humour and action. A scene can be set with which the drill can be practised through dialogue. Once the situation exists the children could be allowed to react to it along their own lines or to change the context, practising the same structure. [Suggestions are made for games incorporating drills.]

68-221 Polak, Hana. For the inexperienced teacher: lesson planning. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 10 (1967), 18-21.

Even experienced teachers should know their aims for a particular lesson and how they fit into the week's work. New structures and lexis must be listed, noting what is to be taught for active and what for passive use. Unless teaching is creative, the teacher's motivation as well as the pupils' will be affected. The first thing is to make the pupils want to participate. The lesson should be linked to the previous one. Repeated review is necessary. New material should usually come near the beginning of the lesson. Automatic repetition drills must be reduced to a minimum. There should be a summary at the end of the lesson, which should finish on time. Lessons should vary in nature according to the time of day.

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- 68-222 Shalit, Dan.** Textbook analysis as a valuable aid in teaching. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 10 (1967), 16-17.

Most of the Israeli textbooks consist of ungraded short stories followed by questions not based on the text. Pupils learn words, but not their use, from notebook lists. It is too long to wait until linguists and teachers get together to bring out the necessary textbooks. The author describes his method of analysing the textbook material and of supplementing its lexical shortcomings in self-made exercises.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

- 68-223 Cammack, F. M. and E. A. Richter.** Language teaching with video-tape. *Journal of English Teaching* (Tokyo), 1, 2 (1967), 14-20.

The potential of video-tape recording was tested in 1967 in Tokyo using a group of twenty-five freshmen reading English, all trained in the normal Japanese primary- and secondary-school systems. The test was investigating (1) whether video-tape presented a better stimulus to learning than audio-tape, (2) whether kinesics could be better learned through active role-playing, reviewed afterwards with the student, (3) the effect of allowing adult learners to see themselves speaking a foreign language.

There was great enthusiasm to record and perform brief skits and the students were delighted with their performances. Later they made up their own scenes and recorded them. Reduction of error was not noticeably different between those using audio- and those using video-tape. A further test was to be conducted after a vacation to see whether retention by the video-tape group was better over a long period. Gestures and facial expressions were much more easily conveyed and explained with video-tape. Correction was undoubtedly easier with the video-tape and the students' hesitancy to switch languages in the presence of their fellows was overcome. Blame for error was transferred from the student to the screen and the resulting difference in classroom atmosphere was impressive.

VISUAL AIDS

68-224 Gutale, E. The making and use of simple visual aids in Somali schools. *OVAC Bulletin* (London), 15 (1967), 10-12.

[The author describes the work of the Audio-Visual and Publications Unit, Somalia.] Lesson sheets, magazine pictures, etc., are sent to schools in the interior. Teachers attending a refresher course were taught how to make and use simple aids such as flashcards, models and puppets. Oral lessons were given to an experimental class of young children at the audio-visual centre. Students make aids for their own use. Equipment has been supplied by UNICEF and USIS. The staff has given lectures to a seminar for inspectors of schools. The centre produces various aids and also teaching pamphlets. A permanent demonstration class may be started. Film shows and demonstrations are given in schools. An English course on records is being adapted for intermediate schools.

68-225 Schiffler, Ludger. Film oder Standbildserie im Sprachunterricht? [Film or filmstrip in language teaching?] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 14, 4 (1967), 386-95.

[Individual experience of the use of film and film-strips is described; they are compared as language-teaching media.]

Visual aids, essential in presenting language in a series of situations, must be accompanied by sound recordings, acoustic presentation being of primary importance. Three audio-visual combinations are possible: printed pictures (book or wall-charts) with tapes; film strips with tapes; films with sound-track. [Use of printed pictures accompanied by tapes is discussed briefly.]

Pupils seemed to learn faster with film than with film-strips, although the film did not emerge as necessarily the better teaching medium; lessons with the two media are described and important advantages of the film-strip are noted: (1) taped speech could be repeated more often; speech reproduction was better than in the film, which helped pupils to imitate it correctly; the film projector was very

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noisy; (2) the picture could be shown until all the pupils had understood the spoken text; it could be used in explaining the text (this was possible only to a limited extent with the film); (3) independent repetition of the text by the pupils was easier, and association of the text with the situation depicted was more effective; (4) it was a more effective stimulus to free conversation, and situations presented could more easily be exploited by the teacher.

The teacher thought the pupils less sure of what they had learnt from the film than from the film-strip. (Probably more, and varied, practice was required, which the film did not allow.) Pupils preferred the film medium to the textbook; 66 per cent preferred the film-strip to the film with sound-track. [Some recommendations on the production of courses with films are made; technically, if no suitable quiet projector exists, videotape and videodisc recordings may be preferable.] The film has advantages which ought to recommend it, yet until its deficiencies are remedied only a film-strip such as the one discussed meets all the requirements of audio-visual teaching.

68-226 Wuilmart-Riva, Nina. Sur le rôle de l'image dans la méthode audio-visuelle. [On the function of the picture in the audio-visual method.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 4 (1967), 69-77.

The audio-visual and structuro-global method of St Cloud-Zagreb aims to follow as closely as possible the child's method of acquiring his mother tongue. But how does the child do this? An analysis is given, with supporting quotations from Piaget and Inhelder, of the means by which conscious speech is achieved. Motivation for learning the mother tongue and for learning a second language are quite different. The pleasure of echolalia is largely absent and has to be replaced by interest and curiosity. The use of pictures is not to represent objects but to facilitate the whole work of the senses. Some psychologists have defined mental activity in terms of internal imagery preceding thought and Guberina has followed this conception in giving great importance to pictures in the St Cloud-Zagreb method of teaching foreign languages. Simplicity of pictures is essential—

photographs and films are too complicated for use of this kind. The audio-visual method consists in constructing a series of visual signifi-cants from an artificial visual code.

AURAL AIDS

68-227 Kay, J. B. and A. Jameson. A classification and retrieval system for recorded foreign language tapes. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 4 (1967), 193-200.

In 1964 the Language Centre of Essex University proposed a plan for collecting specimens of foreign languages on tape. Material now exists in French, German, Russian, Spanish and Portuguese. The classification system used could be of interest to others building a similar collection. An initial letter of the alphabet denotes the language. Categories of literature are then indicated by the initial letter of 'drama', 'prose' or 'verse' and finally a serial number beginning with 001 indicates the order of accession. The best subdivisions for classifying non-literary material are still being worked out. A full list of present subdivisions is given in the appendix. Colour coding for languages has also been adopted as an additional means of preventing tapes and records from being mislaid.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

68-228 Mills, J. G. A co-ordinated television and radio ELT experiment in India. *Educational Television International* (London), 1, 2 (1967), 91-6.

In the 1966-7 school year an experiment was made in India to link a weekly English-language lesson on the radio with an existing television project and to integrate the two into the weekly school-teaching programme. Radio reaches some 800 schools, whereas television is only seen in 300. The television lesson introduced a new grammatical rule visually and aurally and this was followed by a radio lesson repeating the rule and concentrating on pronunciation. [The article

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is accompanied by notes for teachers, vocabulary and a television evaluation check sheet.] The planning team regularly visits schools, discusses the lessons with the teachers and attempts to evaluate the appropriateness of the lessons.

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

68-229 Artemov, V. A. Über das programmierte Erlernen von Fremdsprachen. [On programmed learning of foreign languages.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 4, 6 (1967), 428-37.

Recent years have seen a considerable development of the understanding of learning—psychological understanding has been linked with information and communication theories, cybernetics and linguistics. Recent technical advances have made programmed learning with language laboratories, video-tape and teaching machines a possibility. Engineering psychology gave rise to the algorithmization of operations, but the development and use of algorithms can be regarded too naïvely. Natural gifts and individual enthusiasm will also contribute to successful learning. Comparison is made between the American and Russian conceptions of programmed learning. The Russian language does not have a word which could convey a teaching machine using cards—the Russian word would imply a built-in feedback. Programmed learning can radically alter foreign language teaching [reasons and changes are indicated]. As a system it is developing fast and will not cause any disappointment if one remembers that it provides mainly a means of learning not of teaching or ‘educating’.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 68-230 Flückiger, P. F.** Übungen zur Schaffung und Befestigung grammatischer Automatismen. [Exercises to develop and consolidate automatic grammatical accuracy.] *Bulletin de la Commission Interuniversitaire Suisse de Linguistique Appliquée* (Neuchâtel), 2 (1967), 29-33.

There are often insufficient exercises on a tape to enable a student to achieve complete mastery of foreign grammatical structures, particularly where these diverge sharply from the structures of his mother tongue. Supplementary exercises can teach a student to use the newly learnt construction in a variety of contexts without time for reflexion as would be the case in normal speech. This can be done by letting the student take one of the parts in a dialogue which has previously been heard in its entirety. This can lead to free conversation between a group of students. If the tension of speaking freely causes students to revert to mistakes in practised structures then the teacher will know that the drilling stage has been abandoned too soon. [Examples are given to show exercises on the declension of adjectives combined with dialogue. Previous work will have been done on the declensions in isolation.]

- 68-231 Hill, L. A.** The language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 139-42.

The equipment should be good enough for the students to hear clearly the differences between certain sounds. The main problem is that of audio-visual material needed if vocabulary, idioms, or grammatical patterns are to be taught. Language learning is thus made more interesting and more realistic. Avoiding practice without a situation or context, we must start with simple, concrete language. Abstract words and situations which cannot be pictured come later.

Language-laboratory material should be divided into small units, each associated with a picture and a portion of tape. After several points have been practised through listening and repetition, there should be a test, based on other pictures. Immediate reinforcement should be provided by the right answer.

- 68-232 Hilton, Margaret.** Language laboratory exercises for post A-level students. *Modern Languages* (London), **48**, 4 (1967), 151-5.

There is little material on the commercial market for advanced language students and lecturers are composing their own materials to meet the immediate need. Details are given of twenty forms of exercise for comprehension, accuracy and fluency which have become known to the author. No exercise is of the specialized type used in interpreter training. The dangers of laboratory work at the elementary stage decrease as the student advances, which means that the possible uses of the equipment grows wider. Some of the varieties of exercise listed could best be carried out in a face-to-face situation if time allowed.

- 68-233 Roemmele, J. A.** The visual aspect of siting booths in a language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 142-7.

Visual aids have been largely ignored in language-laboratory teaching because booths have been unimaginatively sited and because courses have not been centrally planned. Live contact between teacher and pupil should be maintained. The blackboard is a basic requirement in the language laboratory. [Examples of its use.]

The siting of the booths is of prime importance. [Diagram of the arrangement at British Council centre in Benghazi.] An open-ended inverted v-formation combines easy accessibility for the supervisor, economical and unobtrusive wirings, and good visibility for the students and the teacher.

Coloured slides can be used for object recognition combined with simple structures, for drills involving change of tenses, and for comprehension exercises.

Films cannot be easily manipulated for language-laboratory work because the speed of the action has been predetermined.

Individual printed illustrations give the student greater freedom to experiment and to go at his own speed, but a single image on the screen will help to keep the class together.

The controller's job is different at different stages of achievement. Mutual visibility of controller and student helps to maintain the human relationship which is the basis of speech.

SECONDARY STUDENTS

68-234 Brega, Evelyn and John M. Newell. High-school performance of FLES and non-FLES students. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **51**, 7 (1967), 408-11.

Teaching foreign languages in elementary grades in the United States has become accepted practice but there are contradictory reports as to the long-term effect of such early teaching. One of the causes of difficulty in comparing early beginners with later beginners was that the first early beginners' groups contained many pupils of high IQ. As a result of previous findings, changes were made in the administrative arrangements for the high-school French courses at Lexington High School, which permitted more complete control over many significant variables. The Modern Languages Association French examination (advanced form) was administered in the eleventh grade to early and later beginners of French and an adjustment made so that variability of IQ was not a significant factor. No significant differences due to sex were found. The same instructor taught both groups so that the differences in performance on that count were eliminated. The final conclusion was that those taught French from the elementary school did significantly better in the tests, particularly in listening and speaking. This implies that a FLES programme administered by language specialists will achieve superior results but if a FLES programme was entrusted to the regular class-room teacher the same results could not be expected.

68-235 Fitzsimmons, E. T. H. Intermediate teaching. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), August (1967), 10-12.

The aims determining the selection and grading of linguistic material and the teaching methods for the beginning of a course may be very different from those used at later stages. Old material and old skills

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may have to be revived and more sophisticated language and exercises introduced. Drills may be distasteful but the inculcation of ready performance in speaking or writing is very necessary. Some remedial work is inevitable but over-correcting can frustrate. The aim is the encouragement of fluency and discouragement of inaccuracy. A brief questionnaire is appended to enable a teacher to review his work and possibly to help in planning work effectively if he inherits a number of unsatisfactory students.

IMMIGRANTS

68-236 Derrick, June. The Schools Council project in English for immigrant children. *English for Immigrants* (London), 1 (1967), 3.

One hundred and fifty schools in about forty local education authorities are co-operating in the work of the Schools Council project trying out material prepared by the project staff. They will feed back to the teachers and researchers at Leeds Institute of Education their opinions about the materials. The first team production is an introductory course for non-English-speaking children aged eight to fifteen with supporting notes on social and cultural backgrounds.

68-237 Everton, A. C. and H. L. Freakes. Immigrants learn by word games. *Education* (London), 131, 3 (1968), 95-6.

Although there is a shortage of specialist teachers of English for immigrants, the learning of a second language cannot be left to chance. Immigrant children need to acquire an accurate knowledge of English quickly, otherwise associated emotional problems may affect the whole personality.

A group of Haringey teachers from schools covering the 5 to 16+ age-range has prepared practical aids consisting of games, tapes and worksheets for three specific purposes. As a starting-point, ninety-six nouns common in the home and classroom were used and thirty games based on popular English table games were devised to practise

vocabulary and structures presented orally. Games were considered valuable socially as an English child or a fluent immigrant child could exercise leadership while others gained valuable practice in speaking and revising structures learnt.

Tapes were prepared for a more advanced stage enabling children to practise structures learnt through games. The tapes consist of 'speech units' of sentences with repetition using two voices accompanied by a set of pictures of the nouns used on the tape. Later, captions were added and finally worksheets, still based on the ninety-six nouns and each giving practice in the sentence structures already introduced orally.

An accompanying introductory booklet has been devised and sets of the material have been duplicated, assembled and exhibited. Work is now progressing on two further stages of the scheme.

68-238 Creed, T. S. English for immigrant teachers. *English for Immigrants* (London), 1 (1967), 21-2.

The West London College jointly with Whitelands College of Education is currently providing a course to assist Pakistani and Indian teachers in using English to teach general subjects in primary schools. They recognize that 'good English' means saying or writing the right thing at the right time and that the language used in the primary school differs from that used by adults among themselves. It has been realized that immigrant teachers must be helped to use the language conventions required for living and teaching in Britain but that it would be presumptuous not to expect them to use Indic English among their fellows. The criterion of a successful pronunciation has moved away from RP to that of adequately contrasted phonemes and distinct functional intonation patterns. The ability to behave appropriately in different linguistic and cultural environments is not easy, but is nevertheless a rewarding acquisition.

The language laboratory is used for speech and an attempt is made to provide immigrant teachers with some social and local studies and information on the geography, economics and history which have influenced the British outlook. There is a pressing need for a description

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of English for teaching general subjects and for class control and this the West London College hoped to produce in time for their next session.

68-239 Hill, Peter. Linguistics is relevant. *English for Immigrants* (London), 1 (1967), 13-16.

The primacy of speech is emphasized in modern linguistics. Written language is a much more recent development and sometimes the written form has developed conventions of grammar and vocabulary which differ widely from the spoken form. Since language is primarily spoken it is not homogeneous. Geographical location, social role and attitude will all affect pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The written form is much more homogeneous and its conventions are taught to children from the time they learn to read.

The consequences of these observations will be relevant to the teacher of immigrants according to the age of his pupils. Children of about five may be expected to acquire a native grasp of the language. When they are about ten it becomes essential to teach them first the special form of English used for writing. Teaching a child to write creatively and forcefully presupposes that he has language on which to draw. Teaching the written form to older immigrants demands carefully controlled work. Techniques of 'controlled composition' have been much developed in recent years and the linguistic considerations which preceded them are seriously taken into account.

68-240 Krear, Morris L. and Charles R. Boucher. A comparison of special programs or classes in English for elementary school pupils. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 51, 6 (1967), 335-7.

A study was made to establish whether pupils learning English as a second language could be taught most effectively by taking them out of their regular classes for specialist instruction in small groups or by providing similar instruction by the regular class-room teacher trained in methods of teaching English as a foreign language. A control group

was given no formal instruction in English. Subsequent test results are shown in tabulated form, providing a general conclusion that a formal English-teaching programme was needed and that slightly more progress was made by the group receiving instruction within its normal class. It is understood that no reliable standardized test has yet been devised which accurately measures spoken language ability.

SPEECH

68-241 Hellmich, Harald. Initiative und Reaktion bei der Entwicklung der Gesprächsfähigkeit. [Initiative and reaction while learning to master the spoken language.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 1/2 (1967), 25-29.

Basing his remarks on German pupils engaged in learning Russian, the author sees as his aims: (1) to enable pupils to enter into everyday conversation, (2) to enable his pupils to give information about their own lives, interests and friends, (3) to express opinions and exchange comments with a partner. Corresponding to these aims are several types of speech: (1) expression of wishes and the responses to them, (2) individual everyday conversation (the student will previously have only copied others' expressions and not expressed his own experiences) [suggestions for themes for conversation], (3) conversation about a specific subject. Ability to react properly to both language and subject-matter must be developed. [An example is given of a conversation in an airport information centre between an inquirer and airport employee, showing how initial information is given and pattern replies are to be practised before free conversation is developed. The kind of tapes needed for language laboratory work are indicated.]

TEACHING OF LITERATURE

68-242 Atkins, John. A note on the place of literature in secondary schools. *Sudan Teachers of English Newsletter* (Omdurman), 6 (1966), 3-5.

One reason for the teaching of English is to assist students to broaden their experience of the world. Literary taste is a personal concern but people need guidance. Contemporary works and 'English' humour should not be avoided but teaching methods must not instil a deep distaste for the books studied. In the Sudan the literature paper for the School Certificate examination is optional. Three books are set, two of which are plays. The author suggests that pupils should be encouraged to read more widely and less intensely and treat this paper as a civilizing influence, giving proof of general education, rather than look upon it as an integrated part of language study.

68-243 Tomori, S. H. Olu. Linguistic considerations in the teaching of African literature in schools. *Teacher Education* (London), 8, 2 (1967), 99-105.

Literature is taught in schools for its own sake and for the sake of examinations. There is a growing body of creative writing in foreign languages on African topics. Most Nigerian pupils read novels either to improve their style or to get ideas for essays. They should be encouraged to read books written in a good style, whatever the language. There is also a literature in some African languages, but most African literature in Nigeria is in English. The experimental style of Nigerian writers is taken as established English, because for the average secondary-school pupil anything in print must be right. [The author quotes from various Nigerian novels to illustrate what pupils imitate as good style, not understanding that the authors are aiming at a particular effect.]

ENGLISH. See also abstracts 68-201, -202, -207, -215, -217, -237, -240, -242, -243

68-244 Abberton, Evelyn. Some persistent English vocabulary problems for speakers of Serbo-Croatian. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 167-73.

The cause of these errors is the assumption that Serbo-Croatian words are in one-to-one correspondence with English words.

Words similar in form but different in meaning are hard to learn even if the speaker knows they are different in meaning. A confusing subclass consists of Serbo-Croatian words which sometimes have an English equivalent similar in form and sometimes one different in form. Other subclasses consist of words similar in form but having a more restricted meaning in Serbo-Croatian, and of words in which there is a morphological difference with or without a meaning difference.

There is not even necessarily a one-to-one correspondence when entirely different words are used. [The author illustrates the point with various prepositions.]

Expressions of politeness in the one language cannot always be translated by the same word in the other. [Several word-lists and many examples are given.]

68-245 Butros, A. The teaching of English at post-secondary levels in Jordan. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 2 (1968), 161-7.

There are four types of English teaching at post-secondary level, and each has its problems.

At university level there is the problem of the level and kind of proficiency to be expected. Students have not acquired the habit of extensive reading in English. There are new lecturers every year. There is not yet a good system of student selection. Books often arrive too late.

There is a non-specialist course in English, focused on reading and writing, for all university students. There is a lack of textbooks aimed

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at the foreign student who has had six to eight years of English from non-native speakers of doubtful competence.

The teacher-training colleges are simultaneously trying to teach the trainees English and methods of teaching it. There is a shortage of well-qualified staff, and no permanent syllabus. Curriculum construction is too centralized. Intensive courses of various kinds have been relatively successful.

There has been a great increase in educational opportunity since 1948. Many qualified Jordanian teachers teach elsewhere in the Arab world. Standards have dropped, but improvement can now be expected. [The author describes the new English course at the University of Jordan and other new developments in curricula, staffing, and courses.]

68-246 Crystal, David. English accents. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), August (1967), 3-9.

In spite of a great deal which has already been written on accents, they are still deceptively complicated. Variables in accent of five types must be considered: personal, diachronic, regional, class and stylistic. Features in the form or substance of an accent, which do different jobs, are of four kinds: the basic phonemic system, the allophonic system, non-segmental features and non-linguistic features. In teaching English as a foreign language, concern about the variables is limited to the diachronic and regional factors. As far as diachrony is concerned it is probably best to teach the more conservative forms of accent. Non-linguistic factors will decide whether to teach a general American pronunciation or RP or perhaps, if the country where English is being taught is not strongly influenced by either, both accents can be taught. It is best to make students at an advanced stage aware of regional differences in pronunciation.

The basic phonemic and allophonic systems have to be firmly established if intelligibility is to be possible. The non-segmental features of intonation and stress can be taught and are worth acquiring but will be less likely to affect intelligibility and are therefore less urgent.

68-247 McMagh, Patricia. English as a second language—the preposition. *CruX* (Pretoria), 1, 4 (1967), 41-6.

The correct use of prepositions is one of the most difficult things for the learner of English. Ogden has listed twenty prepositions that have a root sense describing position and direction in space. Difficulty arises as the meaning becomes more abstract, but if the root sense is clear a sound foundation has been laid and the source of many errors eliminated. Keeping a note of pupils' errors with prepositions will enable the teacher to anticipate error and forestall it by practice. For Afrikaans speakers the prepositions *among*, *by*, *in*, *on*, *to*, *with* and *of* are particularly difficult to use correctly because of mother-tongue interference. Methods for teaching the prepositions must vary with the maturity of the class. Children will enjoy physical demonstration very much. Posters and drawings on the blackboard will also be very useful. Attention to speech in the early stages will pay dividends later in written English. Pattern drill and dialogue are both controlled forms of speech and will give maximum practice, in the time available. By a change of content in pattern drill the student will be forced away from the linguistic problem itself and prepared for independent speech. [An example is given of a set of sentences practising *on*, *at* and *in* showing how to vary the content by a change of verb or a change from nouns having no article to nouns preceded by an article.]

68-248 Montgomery, Michael. The teaching of letter writing between young people. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 1 (1967), 31-6.

Teaching young pupils to write letters to their contemporaries is a delicate matter. There will be some students who have no background of private letter-writing and who use the formal language of manuals for private writing. Examples from actual English letters are most useful, illustrating the frequent use of short sentences, ellipse of various pronouns, verbs, etc. Some mistakes will arise because of a wrong choice of phrase (mother-tongue influence), others from misuse of a dictionary. Paragraph arrangement is less strict in private

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letters and paragraphs are frequently unconnected. Typical openings and endings are suggested, showing the purpose of writing, apologizing for lateness or for some negligence, referring to health, saying where the letter is being written, etc. Exclamations, interjections and imperatives are features of the directness and lack of inhibition of private letters. [A list of topics which recur in this kind of letter is given.] The substitution principle can be used in teaching features of style especially where they are structural, but above all the students see plenty of models in the form of simple direct writing in short sentences.

68-249 Slager, William. Classroom techniques for controlling composition. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington), 5, 3 (1967), 3-9.

Composition teachers must try to produce a sense of achievement. Students must not be asked to do something they are not yet ready for. They must also have a subject about which all of them can write.

[The author gives examples of types of exercise: answering sequential questions to make a coherent paragraph, re-ordering sentences, filling blanks with different kinds of connecting word, making a connected piece from a substitution table, writing sentences on a pattern suggested by a topic sentence, completing, in various ways, sentences which are placed in order in a paragraph developing topic sentences for a composition longer than a paragraph, summarizing whole compositions, deriving a composition from a short simple model, describing pictures, etc.]

Free composition comes much later, and calls for frequent individual conferences between student and teacher.

FRENCH. *See also abstracts* 68–208, –226, –234

68–250 Firges, Jean. Die audiovisuelle Methode des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts der Professoren Guberina und Rivenc auf strukturalistischer Grundlage. [The structurally based audio-visual method for foreign language teaching of Professors Guberina and Rivenc.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), 20, 3 (1967), 138–47.

A detailed description is given of the audio-visual method used for the courses *Voix et Images de France* and *Bonjour Line*. These were constructed on the theoretical bases drawn up by Guberina. Their practical application was worked out in conjunction with Rivenc. After an explanation of the scientific basis of the method, the article discusses how a teacher is to use the method, and shows the composition of a complete lesson unit to illustrate this.

The course *Voix et Images de France* is intended in the first place for adults and is intensive; six weeks' study of six hours per day producing the best results. With a normal school plan of four lessons per week, the course would last two years. It is also dependent on smaller groups than are normal in the classroom. The *Bonjour Line* course is intended for children eight years old and upwards.

68–251 Gilliard, Albert. L'acquisition du système phonologique français: problèmes pédagogiques. [Acquiring the French phonological system: problems in teaching.] *Bulletin de la Commission Interuniversitaire Suisse de Linguistique Appliquée* (Neuchâtel), 1 (1966), 13–18.

Students sometimes doubt the value of spending a great deal of time in acquiring a good pronunciation if it is possible to make oneself understood with faulty speech. This is erroneous; attention to correct pronunciation may help to ensure that one also understands other people correctly. If the speaker does not recognize pronunciation difficulties he will also fail to recognize the problems he will encounter in listening and this will lead to misunderstanding in conversation and finally breakdown in communication. As attention in normal speech

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is focused on sense rather than on pronunciation, it is the teacher's task to concentrate on sounds, at first detached from their meaning. Faults will consist of: (1) sounds unknown in the mother tongue, (2) sounds which exist in the mother tongue but function differently, (3) phonemes identical in the two languages but differently distributed, (4) differences in the segmentation of syllables. The differences of articulation of the same phoneme—for example, [r] in English, French and Spanish—also cause difficulty.

The teacher needs to know the phonological system of his students' mother tongue as well as that of the target language; the problems of recognizing sounds, not only in isolation but in combination and at speed; and the role of interference from mother tongue sounds and from the printed word.

GERMAN. *See abstract 68-202*

RUSSIAN. *See also abstracts 68-205, -241*

68-252 Lissner, Hans-Joachim. Zur Rolle der Lexikologie im Russischunterricht der allgemeinbildenden polytechnischen Oberschule. [The role of lexicology in Russian teaching in the polytechnic.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 1/2 (1967), 71-6.

The lexicology of Russian receives insufficient attention in language teaching. There are no systematic exercises in aspects of lexicology in the class-room and work on vocabulary is too exclusively concerned with the meaning of an item in one particular context.

Thousands of grammatical phenomena are classified in categories, paradigms, etc. Such categorization and abstraction of vocabulary is not available, and what data is known has not been applied to teaching.

In contrasting the target language and the mother tongue, the following lexicological phenomena should be taken into account: structures expressing the same concept in the two languages, non-agreement of a concept in Russian with its equivalent in the mother tongue, similar international expressions, etc. In Russian polysemy transferred meanings, homonyms, synonyms, etc., are areas for study.

Individual linguistic facts should be considered on a synchronic level. Other areas of lexicology—for example, etymology—cannot receive systematic treatment at this stage and yet others none at all. In treating, for example, polysemy, items are to be presented and used actively and their presentation should rest on a ‘lexicological minimum’. To the five or six distinct components of a word should be added the ‘lexicological component’. A reassessment of the components of words is required since the first, ‘semantic’, refers to both lexical and grammatical meaning.

68–253 O’Toole, L. M. An approach to the problem of reading at the intermediate stage. *Association of Teachers of Russian Journal* (Bradford), 16 (1967), 20–25.

There is a lack of suitable reading materials for the elementary and intermediate stages of learning Russian. Soviet books are not graded for structure and are usually dull, and American texts are often entertaining and linguistically controlled but too short. British publishing has only attempted one series, adapting classical favourites in lexically and structurally controlled texts, but the Russians disapprove of the maiming of their classics. Similar texts on modern Soviet life are needed. The magazine *Kometa* and the Polish-produced *Mozaika* are helping to fulfil this need at present.

Texts used for training a pupil to read aloud must be different from those training him to read silently and at speed. Rather than *reading* aloud, the pupil should memorize a sentence and then look up and speak it from memory. Current techniques for developing faster silent reading in the native language might be used to help the pupil to read Russian print fluently. There is a need for readers with interesting content and linguistic control, which are specially concerned with the crucial skills to be taught and practised.

SPANISH. See abstract 68–204