

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

- 74-98** **Freudenstein, R.** Curriculum changes for English as a foreign language. [Results of an experiment conducted in Hesse, Federal Republic of Germany.] *IATEFL Newsletter* (London), **30** (1973), 8-12.

An outline is given of the rationale behind an experiment in curriculum change in comprehensive schools in West Germany, which started in 1969. Five arguments are presented, showing that curriculum changes can only succeed: (1) within the framework of national and international educational effort; (2) when research results from all related fields are applied in the classroom situation; (3) when the teaching profession is actively involved; (4) if new teaching and learning materials designed for specific purposes are developed; and (5) when teaching techniques and media which represent the highest standards of thinking and technology are applied. These arguments are expanded, and five counter-arguments given to stimulate discussion. No details of new classroom procedures are given.

- 74-99** **Littlewood, William T.** A comparison of first language acquisition and second language learning. *Praxis* (Dortmund), **20**, 4 (1973), 343-8.

Many theorists concerned with first- or second-language learning emphasise the similarities between the two processes, often in order to bolster particular theories about teaching methods. This article questions whether a positive comparison can and should be made, and focuses on essential characteristics, considering both child (L_1) and adult (L_2) under four headings. (1) *Language*: the child is exposed to 'primary data' and the adult to 'secondary data'. (2) *Situation*: the child's acquisition is bound up with his immediate

situation, whereas situations have to be contrived in the classroom for the adult. (3) *Communication-process*: the child uses any means to communicate, including gesture and facial expressions, but the adult in the classroom rarely does – his is therefore disembodied, artificial language. It is difficult to create situations which give an adult the drive to communicate which a child has. (4) *The learner*: children and adults have a ‘cognitive’ approach, but adults conceptualise; moreover, the adult’s native-language system and the target-language system interact. Developmental psycholinguistics stresses the need to study language acquisition in the context of the child’s cognitive development: if the latter provides the impetus for first-language learning, second-language learning must be a different process [questions of personal identity and socio-psychological context are also important].

Justification for second-language teaching methods should come from research and empirical testing, not hypotheses. We should recognise the adult has advantages over the child where language learning is concerned, and these should be exploited. [Bibliography.]

74-100 **McGuignan, F. J.** The function of covert oral behaviour (‘silent speech’) during silent reading. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **112** (1973), 39-47.

A summary was made of relevant research on whether heightened covert oral behaviour (‘subvocalisation’ or ‘silent speech’) during silent reading is beneficial or detrimental to the reader. It was first concluded that covert oral responses occur during silent reading, but probably not during non-linguistic tasks, and that these responses are probably localised in the speech region. To attempt to understand the function of covert oral behaviour during silent reading, subject and environmental variables affecting amplitude were specified. Previous research indicated that amplitude is inversely related to reading proficiency for selected subjects, but increases when challenge is experimentally increased. Experimental decreases of covert oral behaviour seem to reduce reading proficiency. Amplitude also increases as textual and environmental demands increase. It was

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concluded that the covert oral response facilitates reading proficiency. Perhaps the visually received text evokes conditional speech muscle activity that generates a verbal code. The code, it is hypothesised, is neurally transmitted to the brain to facilitate integration of the various central language regions. [References.]

74-101 Parkinson, Francis C. Language science in the tertiary curriculum. *Instructional Science* (Amsterdam), 2, 1(1973), 63-79.

Because the goal of linguistics has never been clear, its curricular position is ambiguous. This has held back the advance of linguistics, which needs to organize itself into a form compatible with the natural sciences. With them, it could then form the basis of an introductory arts-science curriculum [arguments are given against the claim of mathematics as the language of science]. This curriculum, aimed at generating a wide intellectual interest, should contain courses in the epistemology of science (its history, philosophy and methodology) as a complement to the study of the nature of language. The present confused curricular status of linguistics is discussed: is it a discipline or a science, is it the formulation of a general theory of language or a description of particular languages? Different standards and syllabuses are found in different countries [the Canadian situation is discussed as an example]. A brief historical review shows how Saussure and Bloomfield worked towards putting the study of language on a scientific, objective basis, whereas physical science was at that time being forced to abandon its objectivity. Linguists still strive to be objective, despite the need to consider meaning along with sound. [Brief discussion of the limitations of Chomsky's mathematical approach.]

The relationship of language to various scientific fields is briefly demonstrated, namely parts of psychology, mathematical logic, philosophy, and scientific method. Language, being both a subjective and objective event, has exceptional educational potential, although it is now in an academic limbo, neither art nor science. It could, however, be in a position, given a change in emphasis in the curriculum, to narrow the gap between the 'two cultures'.

TESTING

74-102 Johansson, Stig. An evaluation of the noise test: a method for testing overall second language proficiency by perception under masking noise. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **11**, 2 (1973), 107-33.

The Department of English at Lund University, Sweden, has attempted to evaluate the method developed by Spolsky and others (1968) for testing overall second-language proficiency under masking noise. Such tests are possible because of the high degree of redundancy in natural languages. Certain alterations to the type of noise test and the scoring system were made, partly in order to adapt it for Swedish students of English, and a more consistent attempt was made to include sentences 'rich in redundancy'. Nevertheless, the technique of the two tests was still fundamentally the same, so that the Lund conclusions are applicable to the Spolsky or Indiana test. After a re-test only one month later it was found that there was not a good correlation between scores in the noise test and general English proficiency, particularly with low-score students. Writing speed, age and listening practice of students, as well as psychological factors, appeared to influence the results of the noise test, which is, in any case, possibly too artificial to correspond to aural comprehension ability in a natural language situation. A number of students who repeatedly failed in the noise test received high scores in a test consisting of dictation and traditional listening comprehension.

Lund University only recommend the noise test for certain categories of students, e.g. radio operators, interpreters and secretaries. They have found that dictation tests concentrating on specially selected words and expressions in recordings with no artificial distortion are a far superior method of testing overall second language proficiency. The usefulness in most cases of a global test of second-language proficiency is questioned. [Correlation tables. Bibliography. Sample of the Lund noise test.]

- 74-103 Künne, Wulf.** Erstellung eines fremdsprachlichen Aussprachetests: Probleme und Methoden. [Devising a pronunciation test for a foreign language – problems and methods.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **22**, 7 (1973), 372–80.

The importance attached to oral work is not matched by ways of measuring it objectively. One aspect of oral use, pronunciation, can be tested objectively. A test for first year teacher-training students studying English is described; it is diagnostic and the aim is to achieve the pronunciation of a native speaker. The test comprises dialogue passages for reading aloud, taken from MacCarthy's *English Conversation Reader*, the vocabulary being that of current usage. The test items are restricted to the main problem sounds; of the 11 items, six are pairs which cause difficulty; each item occurs between ten and 20 times in the test. [The test marker's version is described and illustrated. Bibliography.]

- 74-104 Maman, André.** Avantages et limites des tests objectifs dans l'apprentissage du français, langue étrangère. [Advantages and limitations of objective tests in the early stages of French as a foreign language.] *FIPF* (Sèvres), **6/7** (1973), 82–99.

Objective French tests are prepared by teams of specialists to provide standardised mark patterns for assessing either the aptitudes for French or attainments in French of student populations in one country (here, the USA). They can only be used on a large scale and must be valid, reliable, scorable, inexpensive and easy to administer. The tests must be used for the purpose for which they are designed and not casually. [Other criteria for their use are defined.] Thus they should provide prompt identification of inadequate progress and of serious learning difficulties, as well as an accurate guide as to the suitability of applicants for academic courses. The administration should redress injustices resulting from the clumsy use of objective tests. Teachers' and students' criticisms of

the tests are given, and possible disadvantages for indigent students and some ethnic and social subcultures are outlined. National tests cannot be 'exported' for use by speakers of a different mother tongue. It is desirable that different tests be used for candidates who use a particular learning mode, such as home study.

74-105 Mohan, Bernard A. Comprehension testing as semantics plus induction. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **115** (1973), 93-104.

The author is concerned with establishing techniques for demonstrating sentence comprehension that do not rely on non-linguistic responses. Techniques need to be measured against an ideal of understanding all the grammatical relations in a sentence and the semantic reading assigned to sentence by a semantic theory. Furthermore a method must provide arguments that are inductively strong [examples and discussion]. The semantic theory assumed is that common to Leech, *Towards a Semantic Description of English*, and Katz, *Semantic Theory*. The test evolved requires children to operate criteria of 'implication' and 'inconsistency' in the sorting and matching of correct and incorrect paraphrases to assertions contained in a passage of prose. Examples are given to show the intimate relations between the method of eliminative induction required to give logical rigour to comprehension testing and the theory of semantic structure advanced to account for the process of comprehension. It is argued that tests which ignore semantic theory are not truly concerned with comprehension and that those which ignore inductive schemata are not truly tests.

74-106 Novák, Zdeněk. K vývoji testu predikce výkonu v učení se cizím jazykům. [The development of a prediction test of performance in foreign language learning.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **17**, 1 (1973/4), 18-22, and 2, 66-74.

The author discusses some theoretical problems involved in the design of an aptitude test for the study of a foreign language by

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Czech children at the age of eight (before entering the third form of a Basic Nine-Year School with an extended foreign-language programme – Russian, French or German). The test battery has been constructed as a ‘pencil and paper’ type, following the structures of the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery and the Carroll Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test, both of which have been designed for learners of the age of 11 upwards. The main problem was how to adapt the single items of these test batteries as well as the whole tests to children of a considerably younger age-group. The author describes in detail the final version of the test, in particular the single subtests, grouped into two sections of three. The experimental natural language chosen for the purpose of the test was Albanian because it is an Indo-European language and therefore belongs to the same family of languages, one of which Czech pupils are expected to learn; also because Albanian is considerably different from any of the languages which are commonly known in the area. The test has been administered to 168 children of the ages 8·0–8·8 at the beginning of their third year of school in September. The main statistical indicators are critically evaluated as to mean, standard deviation, dispersion of raw scores, coefficients of reliability and validity, and in the light of correlations especially between the test and school achievements in the native language (Czech) and in one of the foreign languages (French or Russian or German), according to the highly subjective school reports at the end of the winter semester in February of the following year.

74–107 Seward, B. H. Measuring oral production in EFL. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 1 (1973), 76–80.

Most tests of speaking proficiency tend to be subjective, and are time-consuming to administer or score. There is no general agreement as to what constitutes speaking proficiency or what level of such proficiency should have been reached at a particular stage of general achievement; nor do we know against whom the student’s proficiency should be measured. It is possible to measure speaking ability in a foreign language indirectly. The English-speaking ability

of students at the American University in Cairo was evaluated by their teachers, and matched with scores obtained on tests of general proficiency in English and listening comprehension. The fairly high correlation obtained gave support to the hypothesis that indirect means can be used to measure a student's oral proficiency. [A critical description is given of the teachers' evaluation procedures.] Teacher evaluations, although they are less effective than objective written tests in measuring speaking proficiency, should not be entirely disregarded, since in individual cases they can be used along with other tests.

TEACHER TRAINING

74-108 Lee, Richard R. Performance criteria for teachers: design of a model for innovation. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 7, 2 (1973), 137-44.

A checklist of academic and classroom management skills is given as a practical guide to conscientious teachers. Although the objectives can probably not be met as yet, they can serve as a guide in teacher training. The academic skills, listed as clearly defined practical tasks, include describing the syntax of a sentence according to any one grammar; writing objective test items taken from a given passage; underlining constructions in a given sentence which would be likely to cause problems for a foreign student; writing a summary of current trends in ESL teaching methodology. Classroom skills include techniques of questioning; not talking or dominating students for more than 50 per cent of the time; eliciting at least three minutes of sustained English speech from intermediate students; teaching reading aloud.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

- 74-109 Carroll, John B.** Implications of aptitude test research and psycholinguistic theory for foreign-language teaching. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **12** (1973), 5-15.

Research in foreign-language aptitude testing has disclosed at least three more or less independent types of abilities that play a role in controlling rate of learning. Phonetic coding ability is the ability to identify, and store in long-term memory, new language sounds. Grammatical sensitivity is the individual's awareness of grammatical functions and syntactic patterning. Inductive ability is the ability to notice and identify patterns of correspondence involving syntax or semantics. While it appears that these abilities are not easily modifiable, foreign-language teaching may require specific techniques in the diagnosis and remedying of learning problems. Application of these findings to two contrasting theories of second-language acquisition is discussed; both deductive and inductive teaching methods are found to be important. [References.]

- 74-110 Harris, Richard J. and Brewer, William F.** Deixis in memory for verb tense. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), **12**, 5 (1973), 590-7.

Two experiments were designed to test recall of sentences with a verb in one of six tenses. In the first experiment subjects were asked to recall sentences in which tense was marked by the verb alone. The results supported the views of previous experiments [references and discussion]. A further investigation was undertaken to account for a strong shift in recall from present to past tense. The authors discuss the multiple reference of the present tense, the deictic function of tense, and the conditions on responding imposed by the presentation of experimental sentences. In the second experiment half the sentences included a temporal adverb. The results supported a deictic hypothesis for the tense of sentences. These findings are discussed in the light of models of memory and theories of memory for ideas. [References].

- 74-111 Samuels, S. Jay and Anderson, Roger H.** Visual recognition memory, paired-associate learning, and reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **65**, 2 (1973), 160-7.

Paired-associate learning is a multi-stage phenomenon made up of stages of overt attention, perceptual learning, memory, mediation, and response-learning. Reading difficulties may arise from one or more of these components. Three hypotheses were tested and supported – (a) children with high visual recognition memory scores would be superior to children with low scores in a difficult paired-associate reading task; (b) good readers would be superior to poor readers in visual recognition memory; and (c) good readers would make fewer errors than poor readers in recognising previously seen stimuli, but there would be no difference between them in identifying transformations of previously seen stimuli. [Method, materials and procedure are described – subjects were given tests of visual memory using stimuli which were similar to those used in a subsequent paired-associate learning task. Scores on the visual memory and paired-associate tasks were analysed. Tables.]

It is further argued that differences between good and poor readers originate not at the stimulus-response association but at the perceptual learning stage, that visual recognition memory differences reflect degrees of perceptual learning, and that strategies that facilitate perceptual learning are trainable. [References.]

- 74-112 Veselý, Josef.** K otázce pozitivní motivace v cizojazyčném vyučování. [Positive motivation in foreign language teaching.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **17**, 2 (1973/4), 56-66.

The function of motivation in foreign-language acquisition is fundamentally different from that in first-language acquisition. It must stimulate cognitive learning as well as acquiring skills. The following types of motivation should be distinguished: positive motivation as opposed to negatively motivating factors, internal/primary motivation

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(determined by inborn disposition and talent) as against external/secondary motivation (such as interest, sense of duty), permanent motivation as compared with short-term motivation (such as the interest-arousing performance of a teacher), and finally task-motivation (i.e. fulfilment of a well-defined task).

The degree of motivation in foreign-language teaching varies with the level at which a foreign language is taught. Positive motivation is stimulated by the following factors: the content of the teaching (determined chiefly by the materials that are used, such as textbooks, readers, conversation manuals); the methods and types of work which should establish a closed circle, leading from interest to good results to interest (the points to be considered are presentation of matter, exercises, collective forms of work, intensity of learning, unsteretyped lessons, practical communication in the foreign language); the teacher's personality – he must establish good relationships with his pupils, modify his attitude towards them by adapting his work to their different talents, and make them realise that learning a foreign language is not an easy process of acquiring new skills, but a hard task requiring determination and persistence.

TEACHING METHODS *See also abstracts 74-109, -112*

74-113 Erken, L. H. P. Leescontrolekaarten Engels – resultaat van interscolaire samenwerking. [English reading control cards – result of inter-school co-operation.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **301** (1973), 500-3.

Teachers of 37 schools have co-operated to produce sets of multiple-choice question cards designed to keep a check on pupils' reading of supplementary readers, especially *Longmans Structural Readers*. The teacher is provided with an answer key. With each book the pupil receives a reading record card for that book; after he has read it, he is given a question card. He also maintains an overall reading record card. [Specimens of question cards and pupil record cards are included.]

74-114 Filliolet, Jacques. Indices acoustiques des éléments segmentaux et orthophonie. *Langue Française* (Paris), **19** (1973), 41-51.

The article refers to acoustic description as related to counteracting mother-tongue interference in mature students rather than to articulatory descriptions of vowels and consonants. [Illustration of contributions of formant 1 and formant 2 to the recognition and production of vowels.] Any study of vowel variants (e.g. [e] ~ [ɛ]) must pass through an apprenticeship of acoustic series defined by the identity of the first formant, in order to allow of the perception by the student of the vowel sharpness. In the recognition of consonants occlusion, constriction and nasalisation can now be shown to be perceived acoustically even when consonants are isolated. The perception of the place of articulation (lips, teeth, palate) is attributable to the effect the consonant has on the second formant of the neighbouring vowel [examples]. Plosives at a frequency above 3,000 Hz are always perceived as /t/, below 3,000 Hz either as /k/ or as /p/. /p/ and /b/ are heard as grave (700 Hz); /t/ and /d/ as more acute (1800 Hz); /h/ and /g/ are heard as functions of the accompanying vowel.

Recognising a syllable involves an additional process to that of perceiving a sequence of sounds and is analogous to a process of synthesis in the listener's brain. To aid the student in practising this crucially important process of engrammation the course writer ought to increase the number of syllables in which each sound is studied. [Table of tension showing the amount of noise made by each sound of French.] Teachers can beneficially combine acute consonants with acute vowels in order to achieve the appropriate degree of tension in the student's enunciation.

- 74-115 Medina T., René.** El concepto sicolingüístico de 'dificultad' y la enseñanza del vocabulario del idioma extranjero. [The psycholinguistic notion of 'difficulty' and the teaching of foreign-language vocabulary.] *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), **12**, 1 (1973), 31-40.

The notion 'difficulty' is frequently equated with 'complexity' or 'abstractness', and following a derived principle, materials are usually presented in order of increasing difficulty. The notion is also defined in terms of time taken in the learning, but no absolute concept of difficulty can be formulated. Difficulty in an item relates rather to the interaction of five variables: (1) intrinsic problems (differing *valeur* in corresponding items, differing associative values); (2) interaction of the new item with what is already known and codified in L_2 and L_1 ; (3) interaction with what is presented simultaneously (position in list, structural relations with other items in the list, choice of 'basic' vocabulary, optimal number of items per list; it is suggested that theme-based vocabulary teaching may increase learning difficulty and that the value of contextualisation is not proven in all cases); (4) order of presentation; and (5) frequency of repetition of the item.

- 74-116 Panofsky, Gianna Sommi.** Funzione e uso del testo letterario nell'insegnamento di una lingua straniera. [The functions and use of literary texts in the teaching of a foreign language.] *Italica* (New York), **50**, 2 (1973), 306-17.

The subject of interpretation of literary texts is analysed with special reference to the role of the student. Traditional practice and methods are briefly examined in the light of the use of Italian texts for language teaching in the United States. The chief shortcomings of these methods lie in the danger of a personal interpretation of the text being imposed by the commentator on the student.

The author proposes a preliminary attempt to prepare the students linguistically and culturally before studying the text. This can be achieved by background reading on the art, culture and literature

of a given period, as well as by giving the students an understanding of the factors which play a part in the interpretation of a message – an awareness of the principles of semiotics, of semantic and structural criticism, and of psycho- and sociolinguistics. Any student of a foreign language possesses a certain limited range of vocabulary in the foreign language as well as a much wider range in the mother tongue – through the use of literary texts the limited range should be extended and as far as possible integrated into the mother-tongue range. [As an illustration, an analysis is made of Ginzburg's *Voci della sera*, with a histogram of the teaching processes; bibliography.]

74–117 Wessling, Eckhart. Kognitiv-konzeptuelles Lernen in Englischunterricht der Hauptschule? [Cognitive conceptual learning in teaching English in the secondary modern school?] *Englisch* (Berlin), 3 (1973), 81–8.

The two schools of thought on language acquisition – the intuitive and the intellective – present a problem to the English teacher in the secondary modern school, trying to make L_2 available, especially to weaker pupils. From the behaviourists we have receptive–reactive, intuitive–imitative, audio-lingual learning, perpetuating the parrot-learning of early childhood and often causing boredom, bad behaviour and waste of time. This, coupled with over-valuing the visual factor, throws doubt on learning language by the stimulus–response methods and behaviourist drill-patterns. Is language ability genetically or socially determined? Inadequacy in L_1 and L_2 cannot be attributed solely to low intelligence. The possibilities of development for linguistically deprived children within a restricted code of L_2 have not yet been revealed.

Chomsky's transformational grammar has resulted in attempts at individual re-forming of basic structures in L_2 learning, but have techniques been sufficiently developed for pupils to create structures from a 'string' formula? There is no manual for teachers on the use of TG techniques; only two textbooks have tried to incorporate cognitive language acquisition on this basis. Cognitive conceptual learning can be used in the fields of comparative word study,

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especially with synonyms, but it is hardly applicable to pronunciation. Translation has a subordinate role in English teaching but would be helped by comparative language studies and work on *faux amis* and false analogies. The cognitive conceptual approach should be extended to *Landeskunde* work which, without it, becomes vague, possibly oversimplified, and therefore one-sided.

BILINGUAL TEACHING

74-118 Lambert, Wallace E., Tucker, G. Richard and d'Anglejan, Alison. Cognitive and attitudinal consequences of bilingual schooling: the St Lambert project through grade five. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **65**, 2 (1973), 141-59.

This is a progress report on a community-based educational experiment designed to develop bilingual competence by teaching English-speaking children through French as a medium of instruction in elementary school. At the end of each grade a systematic evaluation was made of the children's achievements, abilities and social attitudes. Comparisons with two control classes, following a conventional English-language or French-language school programme, were made. Earlier reports cover the start of the project and progress through grades one to four. [Brief details of findings.] The present report covers a different phase of training because the children were now being educated bilingually in English and French (because of pressures from parents and some teacher groups to limit the expansion of the experiment). [Methods are described, including the curriculum and the testing programme.] [Tables of results for the grade four follow-up class and grade five pilot class (1971).] The results are analysed in detail as to English and French language skills, mathematics and science skills, intelligence and creativity, attitudes towards selected ethnolinguistic groups (French- and English-Canadians, French people from France). The children's own views of the programme are also briefly described. The results show that the children in the experimental classes performed comparably with

the English-Canadian controls in the receptive and expressive features of English, and did not fall behind despite being trained through a second language. They became functionally bilingual although not fully native-like in their spoken and written French. In content subjects such as mathematics and science the experimental children's performance is remarkably similar to that of the controls, and there were no negative effects on cognitive development. Their attitudes towards English Canada were as favourable as those of the English-Canadian controls; their attitudes to French people in general were more positive than those of the English-Canadian controls. [References.]

74-119 Stern, Carolyn and Ruble, Diane. Teaching new concepts to non-English-speaking pre-school children. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 7, 3 (1973), 309-17.

Many Mexican-American children entering schools where English is the language of instruction have serious language-related problems. This study was an attempt to determine three things: first, whether children whose first language is Spanish and who are instructed in Spanish will require significantly fewer trials to learn a new concept than children instructed either in English or bilingually; secondly, whether children receiving the first set of new concepts in English will learn a second instance of the new concept taught in English more readily than children who were taught the first use of the concept in Spanish; and thirdly, on a Spanish-language criterion test, children taught concepts in English will do as well as children taught those concepts in Spanish or bilingually. Results of the study showed that the Spanish-speaking children did not do better when they were taught a new concept in Spanish rather than in English or bilingually. Also, there was no evidence that the children who had been taught the new concept in English would be able to acquire a similar concept presented in English more readily than the group which was taught the first concept in Spanish. Finally, on a Spanish language criterion test, the children taught the concepts in English did indeed do as well as the children who

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were taught the concepts in Spanish or bilingually. [Tables of results; references.]

74-120 Stern, H. H. Bilingual education: a review of recent North American experience. *Modern Languages* (London), **54**, 2 (1973), 57-62.

Research on dual medium education in the 'fifties and 'sixties was not encouraging but the recent trend towards language diversification has led to some promising experiments. Minority languages in the USA and Canada and elsewhere are now valued more highly [brief history of bilingual education in the United States]. Unlike the American 'melting pot' attitude to language, Canadians have cherished their 'mosaic' of different ethnic groups. The 'Report of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism' has resulted in, among other things, a demand on the part of English speakers for improved teaching of French as a second language in schools. Despite an increased teaching force for Primary French, the results have not yet come up to expectations, probably because of old-fashioned rote-learning methods which are not relevant to actual communication. So Montreal parents called for a bilingual school for English children in Quebec Province, and The St Lambert Elementary School was set up. English was ignored for the first two years because it was catered for in the home situation, then gradually introduced. [Studies comparing bilingual with monolingual children showed that the bilingual children performed better in both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests.] Bilingual education was seen to be much more successful than traditional methods of second-language teaching, mainly because it continually offers opportunities for practising the second language in a meaningful situation. [Bibliography].

CLASS METHODS: READING *See also abstracts*

74-100, -111, -113

- 74-121 Allen, Virginia French.** Trends in the teaching of reading. *TESL Reporter* (Laie, Hawaii), 6, 4 (1973), 1-2 and 15-19.

The main aim of reading instruction for non-English speakers used to be to smooth the way by limiting vocabulary and controlling the grammatical constructions used. But teachers are now realising the need to train students to cope with unsimplified prose as found in materials for native speakers, because different skills are required for this than for understanding the spoken language. [Sentence types and grammatical constructions common in written but not in spoken language are given as examples, including participial constructions, and passive and stative constructions.] Advanced students therefore need guided practice in reading material comparable in difficulty to what is read by their English-speaking counterparts, not simplified material, otherwise they will never make the transition to reading with ease outside the class.

A study of Egyptian students is quoted on the need for students to be trained to make rapid predictions about what will follow from the beginning of a sentence so that they know whether the sentence advances the argument, offers an illustration or re-states an earlier theme. Redundancies must be recognised, and the subject of a complex sentence identified. [Related classroom activities are suggested on the basis of a passage given as an example.] Current trends in the teaching of reading include expectancy-training, practice in noticing redundancies, and an emphasis on connected discourse (and on sequence signals like *moreover*, *however*). In addition, it is recommended that students should practice writing the kind of English prose which they will need to read [classroom procedures for group composition sessions, moving from the oral to the written stage are described]. Alternative ways of handling synonymous sentences should also be taught [examples]. There is a trend to restore reading to a position of high priority in the language-learning process, as experiments have shown that better results are obtained when reading is learned at the same time as speaking, rather than later on. [Bibliography.]

- 74-122 Paine, M. J.** The variation of classroom reading techniques. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 3 (1973), 276-81, and **28**, 1 (1973), 35-43.

The teaching of reading in English to elementary Arabic-speaking pupils is described. The distinctive features of printed Arabic and English are listed and discussed. It is best to concentrate from the outset on whole words, phonics being delayed. Pupils should be taught several ways of recognising words and word-groups. In the initial stages reading should reinforce language already learned. [The use of reading cards and matching and recognition exercises is described in detail.] Learning to read and reading to learn are distinguished. Group-work is recommended and the organisation of competitive and ability groups is described. The disadvantages of reading aloud are mentioned. There are three types of question which are useful in reading instruction: question-word questions, *yes/no* questions, and *or* questions [usages are described]. A fairly detailed description is given of oral reading methods, under the headings *preparation*, *presentation*, and *practice*, and variations of technique are mentioned. The advantages of silent reading are listed, and the methods of developing silent reading skill are outlined, including various types of recall exercise. Variation of technique goes a long way towards maintaining the pupils' interest in silent reading.

- 74-123 Stevenson, Robert M.** Using slides to improve reading comprehension. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **11**, 2 (1973), 10-15.

The most useful language skill for students of English (in Iran) is an ability to read all types of expository material after language training has finished. The advantages of using 35 mm slides and a projector for reading practice in the classroom, rather than printed handouts, are described: the teacher can check more easily on students' reading habits, students must rely on their eyes and cannot follow words with pencils or fingers, and reading becomes a group activity.

Preparation of slides is described. The student should begin with short selections, one per slide, and should only be required to understand and identify the main idea in each. He will then, without reference to the selection, select from three or four statements written on a separate slide the one which most closely sums up the main idea. The next stage is reading for full comprehension, then scanning and reading for specific information. Selections designed for scanning should be preceded by an information-seeking question so that the student only has to find the answer. The method can be extended to show students how to guess word meaning from context, and to encourage them to read with discrimination. The most suitable subject-matter will be that which is within the student's own cultural context or of universal interest.

74-124 Watts, W. J. and Buzan, A. Reading to learn: a project in advanced learning methods. *British Journal of Educational Technology* (London), 4, 2 (1973), 132-41.

An advanced reading course developed by Buzan to increase reading speed and comprehension is described. The eye and brain are trained in a non-linear manner. There is an attempt to eliminate back-skipping, regression, hard focus, dependence on subvocalisation, lack of concentration and inadequate organisation, and to improve note-taking speed, report writing, critical and creative thinking, and the techniques of study and appreciation. The eye movements involved in poor and good reading are described and illustrated with diagrams, and subvocalisation (which can never be completely eliminated) and finger pointing (which can make reading more efficient) are discussed. The content of the six lessons of the course is described, and it is claimed that students' reading speeds have been greatly increased without loss of comprehension, and that students' attitudes to reading have also been favourably affected. [Bibliography and statistical tables.]

SPEECH

- 74-125 Desselmann, Günther.** Zur Kontext- und Situationsgebundenheit in Grammatikübungen. [Context- and situation-relatedness in grammatical exercises.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **10**, 3 (1973), 161-9.

Fixing and activating grammatical knowledge by face-to-face exercises or by four-phase exercises in the language laboratory requires a lexically-semantic and syntactically functional context. The exercises must show in natural speech a combination of stimulus and reaction which is logical in both language and real-life situation; they must also guide the learner's speech in both form and content. The stimulus to the learner can be verbal or visual or both, and the use of the dialogue form ensures not only communication but also a close connection with real-life situations, producing in fact a 'micro-situation'. All expressions in an exercise should be doubly contextual - linguistically and situationally; but not every situation is a speech situation. Genuine communication calls for exercises closely linked with real-life situations. Stimulation can come from a short verbal introduction, from a picture on a screen or card, or from miming [examples]. Close connection with real-life situations, however advantageous, cannot be used initially because of the learner's limited vocabulary, but should come at the middle stage.

- 74-126 Meinhardt, Margret.** Gestaltung variabler Dialoge unter systematisierendem Aspekt. [Composition of variable dialogues from the standpoint of systematisation.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **8/9** (1973), 439-46.

Furthering communicative ability is one of the main aims of present-day foreign-language teaching. A language curriculum is quoted which stresses the importance of listening and speaking. However, there seems to be doubt and uncertainty among teachers about how to put these aims into practice, and in particular about how to teach dialogue. At present the teaching of dialogue lacks variation and

differentiation and does not require much initiative on the part of the student.

The author has arranged material based on the textbook *English For You* on practice sheets from which students can choose phrases to compose a realistic, flexible dialogue. [Three such sheets are reproduced and one is explained in detail.] These dialogues can be used for the consolidation, application and systematisation of previously acquired knowledge. As the student progresses, the preparatory stage can be reduced to acquiring vocabulary and idiomatic expressions and phrases. A lesson centred round a dialogue should start with an introduction to the situation and to the relationships of the participants. This should be followed by consolidation and systematisation, which includes presenting the vocabulary [details given] and the idiomatic expressions [two methods are explained in detail]. The application stage consists of acting out the dialogues in front of the class. Results have shown that this method gives students self-confidence in conversation and enhances their pleasure in using the foreign language.

74–127 Rott, Heinz. Methodische Stufen zur Entwicklung der Ausdrucksfähigkeit der Schüler im neusprachlichen Unterricht. [Methodological stages in the development of pupils' powers of expression in modern language teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 10, 4 (1973), 236–43.

The development of the ability to speak is one of the primary aims of modern language teaching, yet previous attempts to classify the stages of this development (e.g. into text-oriented and theme-oriented speech) need to be made more precise. To express himself in his own tongue, the pupil must first formulate his thought and then express it. To acquire this automatic ability in a foreign language requires a scientifically graded system of drills; the teacher must also create situations in which the utterances of the pupils can have real significance. In this process listening and speaking have a reciprocal effect on each other. Listening provides the basic material for speaking, but the latter does not follow automatically from the

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former: the unaccustomed articulation must be systematically instilled. Speaking and reading aloud help to develop silent reading and writing skills, whilst the latter, in their turn, support oral work.

There are three stages in the development of the ability to speak: (1) receptive-reproductive speech, in which the pupil reproduces, possibly with some variations, material from texts he has only just studied; (2) reproductive speech, in which the same process is repeated, but after an interval of some days – this effort of memory helps to build up the pupils' linguistic reservoir; (3) productive (free) speech, in which the pupil expresses his own thoughts, independently of any particular text, either in monologue or dialogue. This is the most advanced stage, which can well be prepared by variation exercises based on texts. The borders between the three stages are not rigid, nor is it always necessary, with a given text, to complete the first two before embarking on the third. But whatever methods are used, the aim must be to arrive at true productive speech. [Bibliography.]

PRONUNCIATION *See also abstracts 74-103, -114*

74-128 **Abberton, Evelyn and Fourcin, A. J.** A visual display for teaching intonation and rhythm. *ELT Documents* (London), 5 (1973), 2-6.

An audio-visual system has been evolved at University College, London, for teaching intonation, based on immediate speech-pattern feedback. It is designed to help overcome the difficulties of those for whom purely auditory stimuli are insufficient. The non-transient visual pattern is presented on an ordinary oscilloscope screen and consists of a simple curved line rising and falling in immediate sympathy with the speaker's intonation [diagram]. The pattern appears instantaneously and is derived directly from the activity of the speaker's vocal folds by means of the specially designed laryngograph. It is clear and easy to interpret: a rising curve for rising pitch, a falling pattern for falling pitch [illustrations]. With visual as well as auditory feedback from a model stimulus and then

from their own response, pupils quickly learn to produce the required contour and remember it. Their auditory discrimination is enhanced and they can later produce the appropriate speech patterns with auditory monitoring alone. The display is useful both for classroom teaching and individual practice.

VOCABULARY *See also abstract 74-115*

- 74-129** **Mikaëljan, G. G.** Влияние изучения словообразования на обогащение словарного запаса учащихся. [The influence of word-formation study on the enrichment of pupils' vocabulary.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 4 (1973), 24-30.

Instruction in word-formation plays an important role in teaching Russian in the USSR, especially to non-Russians; but in Armenian schools no such formal instruction is given. A total of 1469 pupils in Armenian schools were given a series of Russian words and asked to find as many derivationally related words as possible, insert them into an appropriate context (multiple-choice), and translate them into Armenian. The poor results indicate the defect of teaching Russian vocabulary word by word, rather than presenting a word-formation analysis (i.e. morphemes and relations between morphemes). The same pupils were given eight hours' instruction in word-formation of verbs, including drills and exercises, and then given the above-mentioned test again. The number of correct related words found increased by 60 per cent, the percentage of correct translations by over 200 per cent, indicating the effectiveness of the method.

WRITING

- 74-130 Clarke, Mark A.** Individualising instruction in the composition class. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 1 (1973), 43-6.

The teacher's task is to provide instruction in basic composition skills while allowing scope for the advanced student. The learning is broken down into a series of steps. The class as a whole covers the main points and as each student finishes he is given a more difficult task. Common points of difficulty are discussed with the class, but most of the work is individual. [The author gives as an example the writing of compositions which involve comparison and contrast.] This approach enables the teacher to individualise his teaching without preparing different lessons for different students and to solve students' problems without holding up the whole class. He need cope only with differences in expression, since the content is the same for all. As a student progresses, the teacher can demand more.

COMPREHENSION *See also abstracts 74-105, -123, -143*

- 74-131 James, Kenneth and Mullen, Lloyd.** 'English as she is heard': aural difficulties experienced by foreign learners. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 1 (1973), 15-22.

Students of English overseas usually have little practice in listening to natural well-spoken English. Phonological interference, not limited to the segmental phonemes, is a major cause of their difficulties of understanding in Britain [examples]. The foreign student's chief difficulty is to divide the stream of speech into words: junctural clues elude him, he does not know what sound sequences are permissible, his phonemic errors may set up wrong expectancies, and lexical stress is no guide to word boundaries. Moreover many function words in English are potentially ambiguous. Rapid

articulation, contracted forms and sentence stress give still more trouble.

A foreign student in Britain hears many accents, and finds it particularly difficult for both cultural and linguistic reasons to understand English people talking to one another. Some vocabulary problems are characteristic of speech. Fear of new words is more acute in listening than in reading. Foreign learners are also less able to predict a sentence pattern from its initial grammatical signals, and have difficulty with cohesives and discourse markers. They need training in taking notes.

REMEDIAL TEACHING *See also abstract 74-138*

74-132 Lenochová, Alena. Remedial programmes of English structural patterns. *Germanistica Olomucensia* (Prague), 2 (1972), 17-27.

Common structural mistakes (apart from the misuse of the articles) made by Czech university students were classified under the main headings 'verbal structures' and 'modal verbs', 'pronouns', 'adjectives and adverbs', '*it is* versus *there is*', structures insufficiently used, and 'misinterpretation of the underlying Czech structure' [detail].

Causes and remedies for mistakes of various types are discussed. A foreign language cannot be acquired through pattern practice and drills alone, and on points of difficulty, involving mother-tongue interference or interstructural interference, some theoretical explanation is helpful. An extract is given from a self-instructional branching programme which is being developed, illustrating how the principles outlined can be applied to work on the perfect infinitive.

- 74-133 Roberts-Holmes, Joy.** Culture shock: remedial teaching and the immigrant child. *London Educational Review* (London), **2**, 2 (1973), 72-9.

Teachers of immigrant children (here, West Indians) need to understand the children's background and language in order to motivate them to learn. A taped programme half in dialect was designed, and this led on to the reading of books linked to the taped lessons.

A brief introduction to Jamaican Creole is given: there is no standard Creole language, but a mixture of dialects with common characteristics. [Jamaican attitudes to English and to Creole are cited; the author describes her teaching in a selective secondary high school in Jamaica.] Interference by Creole with standard English is discussed, particularly pronunciation (e.g. *eider/either*, *bade/bathe*, *eben/even*, *senake/snake*, *bway/boy*), sentence construction (e.g. *Wa yo a go?* = Where are you going? *When im did dey at school* = When he was at school). The teacher should also be aware of cultural differences – attitudes to discipline, humour, parents, the home, and language are discussed, with examples from Jamaican children's writing. It is not surprising that ESN gradings often result from culture shock; implications for the classroom are summarised. [References.]

VISUAL AIDS *See also abstract 74-123*

- 74-134 Kemmer, Ernst.** Die Bildgeschichte mittels Folienprojektion im Französischunterricht. [The use of the overhead projector to teach picture composition in French.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **10** (1973), 517-27.

Technical aids play an important role in modern language teaching today. The overhead projector has many specific advantages in the classroom, especially when used in conjunction with other visual aids. Since the visual element is of primary importance in the early years of language learning, series of pictures representing situations

outside the classroom sphere have great teaching potential. Initially these pictures may be textually linked, but later other situations should be portrayed to encourage 'free expression'.

Six pictures representing 'Le tour de France' were reproduced from a book for a second-year French class. Each picture was projected separately, and the pupils were encouraged to say as much as they could without leading questions from the teacher. Only then was the necessary extra vocabulary and idiom introduced. After the projection of three pictures the pupils were asked to suggest a conclusion to the story. In the second lesson an overlay containing the new vocabulary was placed down the side of each picture. The class then put together and wrote down a complete commentary in the present tense, which the teacher wrote simultaneously onto a transparency. The class was then divided into three groups, and one member of each asked to write a version of the story onto a transparency at home, from the viewpoint of three different characters in the story. This time the perfect tense was used. In the subsequent lesson the teacher's original commentary in the present tense was projected followed by the versions of the three pupils. Hence the whole class could participate in the correcting. Quizzes, gap-filling exercises and transposition of the original into the perfect tense are all recommended as further exercises on the original picture story. [Pictures and commentaries reproduced. Bibliography.]

PROGRAMMED LEARNING

74-135 Roberts, A. Hood. Current problems in computer-assisted language instruction. [Problemi attuali dell'insegnamento linguistico mediante i calcolatori.] *Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata* (Rome), 5, 1 (1973), 19-40.

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) is taken as comprehending language-teaching activities in which the computer performs some function. Van Campen's Stanford Russian programme used computer stations for teletype provision of the computerised programme, a language laboratory for aural/oral practice and very occasionally

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a native speaker to correct pronunciation. The sequence was successful for four years until it closed for lack of maintenance funds.

The Illinois PLATO III (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) system adapted computer instruction provided for other disciplines to teach written aspects of foreign languages through a teletype terminal. Experiments which permit some freedom of action to students have been used in a programme on construing Virgil. PLATO IV will include headsets and audio links. The University of Texas employs a more elaborate method with cathode-ray tubes, image projectors, tape-players, teletype keyboards and light pens to provide individualised instruction to teach the sound and writing system of Arabic in one third of the previous student contact time. The computer programme is supported with some classroom teaching. Programmes designed as aids to teach French, Danish, Spanish and German have been developed at Dartmouth College; most have been used for drills, homework and remedial exercises, and all are concerned with written language only.

Advantages claimed for CAI are: individual – and, on the whole, faster – work; tireless provision of exercises for students; the random presentation of drills to avoid serial learning. The reasons advanced for not designing more programmes are the huge initial cost, massive maintenance costs and the limited range of language-learning needs that programmes can satisfy in the overall field of language activity. Numerous courses still require personal instruction. [Bibliography.]

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

74-136 Lindsay, P. C. S. Language labs: some reflections after ten years. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 1 (1973), 5-10.

A simple audio-active lab without booths is best in the early stages, when the learners have to listen and respond all the time, and this equipment fits easily into the classroom. At intermediate to advanced stages the audio-active-comparative type is better, since the students

can be trained to be self-critical, and need remedial work and the freedom to go at their own pace.

Contextualised drills are replacing the mechanical type. More could be done to stimulate participation in recorded dialogues. It would be useful to establish a 'bank' of tapes which the learner could dial. Dial-access and remote control can be developed into the large-scale provision of listening centres. The visual image can be linked with individual tapes by means of film cassettes in each booth. Immediate or short-delay playback should be more widely available. Language-lab equipment should not be confined to special rooms. Simple flexible equipment is needed which can be set up almost anywhere. The learner should have more chance to develop oral expressive skills in the lab.

IMMIGRANTS *See abstract 74-133*

ENGLISH *See abstracts 74-103, -107/8, -117, -119, -121, -122, -124, -126, -130/3*

74-137 Macht, Konrad. *Zur Didaktik und Methodik des Present Continuous und des Simple Present. [Theory and practice of teaching the present continuous and simple present.] Praxis (Dortmund), 20, 4 (1973), 368-77.*

In the majority of German schools the present continuous form of the verb is the first form presented to pupils of English. This is to familiarise them with a form which does not exist in German and to facilitate situational classroom conversation. Normally the simple present is introduced soon afterwards in stories narrated in the historic present, but this usage is of dubious value in English, and the simple present should initially be introduced in its 'timeless' usages, as against the 'here and now' of the continuous form. Various grammatical works on English tenses are discussed but the writer does not consider that they make a satisfactory distinction between the two present tenses. The concept of 'duration' and the use of

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certain key adverbs is more helpful to pupils. It is suggested that the difference between the two forms of the present in English is one of aspect rather than tense, and that the 'durative' aspect is in the mind of the speaker rather than in the actual action.

An analysis in terms of transformational grammar suggests that the periphrastic form *be+ -ing* should be thought of as a lexical item, not a grammatical one; from a semantic point of view, the aspect of 'duration', which in German might be expressed adverbially, has in English a grammatical equivalent in the verb form. [Diagram; table.] The present continuous thus has two positive semantic characteristics (+Present, +Duration) which make it easy for beginners to understand; before they learn the form, they should be taught to recognise the aspect of 'duration' in their own language. Only then should the structure be drilled, using verbs where this aspect can be stressed. It is then much easier later to contrast the two forms and show that the simple present is characterised precisely by the absence of the 'durative' aspect.

74-138 Ostrovsky, B. S. Коррективный курс в системе факультативных занятий. [A revision course for English studies in the general schools.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 6 (1973), 43-55.

The first 16 teaching periods in the eighth grade are devoted to revising the basic language material which has been studied during the previous three years. In this period the pupils of English may have used two quite different sets of textbooks, so it was thought necessary to select for the revision course language material common to both sets, while also seeking to supplement the omissions in each set in order to bring the pupils up to the same level of competence. There is much common ground in the two sets of texts for grades five to seven, but it was felt that it would be materially useful if another 50 'international' words and expressions similar in form and meaning to their Russian counterparts were added. The revision course should take into account the material of the standard texts for the eighth grade, but the grammar content of both books differed

too greatly for this aspect to be adequately dealt with. New themes for oral work were prepared although they remained based on what had already been learnt [brief description of the text of each theme]; topics included classrooms, pioneer-camps, trips, public work. Emphasis is laid upon oral work to revise grammar rules [extensive examples]. Almost all the revision work is carried on in English, and a long list of practical teaching recommendations aimed at producing positive results is given.

74-139 Reed, Carol E. Adapting TESL approaches to the teaching of written standard English as a second dialect to speakers of American Black English vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 7, 3 (1973), 289-307.

English-as-a-second-dialect (ESD) is taught at Brooklyn College, within the framework of the English course, to speakers of Black English vernacular (BEV). The students are taught to recognise the differences between their speech and standard English and how to correct their own written work to conform to standard English. Since a social stigma is still attached to BEV, the course also tries to show that BEV is a valid linguistic system so that the BEV speaker can examine his own language without shame. Only certain TESL techniques are thus appropriate to TESD, as fluency in standard English is not the aim of the teacher.

The course makes extensive use of contrastive analysis: comparing BEV with other non-standard English dialects spoken in the Americas, and with the English of non-English speakers, helps the student to understand the background and basis of BEV; comparing BEV with standard English outlines the most common differences which students can then watch for in their own writings. Other approaches include the acting of dialogues in SE and BEV; controlled composition; pattern drills and computer assisted instruction. Students also look at BEV folklore, both for its intrinsic interest and to study its dialect features. [A curriculum unit is attached with notes, bibliography and a passage for study prepared in SE and five other non-standard dialect forms.]

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GERMAN *See abstracts 74-125, -127*

FRENCH *See abstracts 74-118, -120, -134*

ITALIAN *See abstract 74-116*

PORTUGUESE

74-140 O'Brien, M. J. Portuguese as a school subject. *Vida Hispánica* (Wolverhampton), 21, 3 (1973), 4-9.

Portuguese is rarely taught at secondary school level in Britain. A pilot sixth-form scheme and O and A level school courses are described. Staff adapted the Nuffield Spanish course, 'Adelante', Stages 1 and 2, giving the first two years' teaching mainly by audio-visual methods; parts 3 and 4 of the Nuffield course, however, were too difficult to adapt (because of the large cultural content, and because the existing examinations in Portuguese demand translation skills); this part of the course had therefore to be by 'grammar-grind' [books used are listed]. Examinations are blamed for discouraging would-be students by demanding translation skills and putting little value on oral, communication skills. An alternative new Portuguese O level examination is briefly described. [Suggestions as to financial and material support from the Portuguese and Brazilian governments are given, including native-speaking assistants in schools, subsidies for research, and new textbooks.]

RUSSIAN See also abstract 74-129

74-141 Kirkwood, J. M. Towards an integrated programme for advanced students of Russian. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **11**, 3 (1973), 175-88.

Russian studies at British universities are often baulked by several major problems principally concerning student study periods in the Soviet Union, the allocation of time to language study in this country, and the fact that too much seems to be attempted in the language field with little or no reference to the rest of the Russian studies syllabus. In attempting to combat these deficiencies, Lancaster University has drawn up a plan, the various stages of which are briefly discussed. The main points cover the objectives, the study situations, language varieties, teaching materials, speech functions, linguistic skills, the syllabus and the methodology, showing that for the student to better his 'communicative competence' in the foreign language, there must be a very careful selection of the situations in which a student must communicate. The plan provides a 'cyclical' system of teaching which should prove advantageous in producing the same cognitive content in different modes for different purposes.

74-142 Kupalova, A. Ju. Вопросы синтаксиса в новой программе. [Problems of syntax in the new syllabus.] *Русская речь* (Moscow), **5** (1973), 142-7.

The earlier school syllabus for the teaching of Russian as a mother tongue combines the communicative, constructional, and semantic approaches to language; the emphasis in individual cases is often determined by practical considerations, e.g. teaching punctuation. The overall aim is to make pupils aware of the linguistic means of developing thinking and speech. The new syllabus includes amplification, even reinterpretation, of certain traditional terms: the sentence is not just a communicative unit, but also a syntactic and intonational unit. Neither the intuitive semantic nor the formal grammatical approach is sufficient in itself; for older pupils in

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particular the relations between syntax and semantics are all-important. School grammar must be a uniform whole, not an agglomeration of separate pieces of information. The new syllabus introduces the concept of *slovosochetanie* (collocation), distinguishing it from 'sentence'. This is not mere innovation: whereas the older syllabus treats different things without discriminating between them, the introduction of the *slovosochetanie* makes for a clearer understanding of the nature of the sentence.

74-143 Maschek, Marina. Entwicklung des verstehenden Hörens im Russeschunterricht der Klasse 5. [Development of listening comprehension in Russian teaching for beginners (class 5).] *Fremdsprachen Unterricht* (Berlin), 7 (1973), 334-43.

From the first lesson teaching should be in the target language. To develop listening comprehension ability systematic exercises are necessary, taking into account such factors as linguistic complexity and intonation. Listening comprehension requires that the same new vocabulary be exploited in various forms of practice. The early exercises are short, consisting of three to four sentences and increasing to ten [examples]. Verbs are introduced in lesson 3. As part of the exercises for lesson 5, choral responses of *da* or *nyet* are given to the teacher's question. The teacher can check the pupils' personal performances by individual questions. Lesson 7 brings in the numbers one to ten and the hours up to 12. From lesson 21 'family histories' are used in the exercises.

Other types of exercise include sound discrimination and word practice: word revision – odd man out in the row (for vocabulary and grammar); misuse of vocabulary in a text. As an incentive to concentration, the teacher may write a text-related question on the board before reading the text. Exercises on grammar points include cumulative sentence extension to practise conjugations, and lexical substitution in sentences to practise declension. Flashcards are used for comprehension involving recognition of alphabet and vocabulary. Other helpful visual aids are filmstrips/slides and an electric arrow.