

# *Language learning and teaching*

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## THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

**69-121 Brandt, Bertolt.** Zur Gestaltung und Verwendung von Übungen im Fremdsprachenlehrbuch der Elementarstufe. [On the construction and use of exercises for an elementary textbook.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 2 (1968), 96-101.

The textbook holds a central place in foreign language teaching. Pupil and teacher adhere more closely to its plan and presentation than in other subjects. A modern textbook presents all its facets as exercises to facilitate the acquisition of certain skills. Various types of exercise exist, providing information, reinforcing and activating knowledge and rendering it automatic. Exercises can be read first and the responses spoken, the pupil looking up from the text, or they may be entirely oral. They may be answered according to patterns involving conscious imitation or variants which are provided, but have to be selected. [Illustration.] These will practise and establish certain lexical or grammatical items. The practice sentences may form a connected context and their difficulty will be related to the following: the standard of the pupil; the number of variants in one sentence; the form of the variant, which may require modification; use of mother tongue or target language in the exercise; the way in which assistance is given in an introductory sentence or within the exercise; the use of patterns.

**69-122 Burling, Robbins.** Some outlandish proposals for the teaching of foreign languages. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 18, 1/2 (1968), 61-75.

There is little point in getting elementary students of a foreign language to write. Reading should be accepted as a main goal for

some students, oral skills being introduced only in so far as they help reading.

The phonology, grammar, and lexicon of a language are to some extent independent of one another. A reading course might be designed in which foreign grammar would be introduced using native lexicon. Texts childish for adults could thus be avoided. The first step could be to read a word-for-word translation of the foreign text. A few foreign terms, e.g. grammatical markers, would then be introduced. The smaller classes of morphemes should be added next. Eventually students would be able to read unprepared texts with a dictionary.

In order to design such a course we need a thorough knowledge of the contrastive grammar of the two languages.

**69–123 Hocking, Elton.** Counter-revolution in foreign language teaching. *CCD Language Quarterly* (Philadelphia), 5, 4 (1967), 9–14.

The author, speaking to the Foreign Language Association of Northern California, describes a 'counter-revolution' in audio-lingual theory. Recently at the 1966 Northeast Conference in New York and in the academic press, Carroll gave the warning that audio-lingual theory was based only on assumptions. Chomsky claimed that linguistic behaviour was not habitual but stimulus-free and innovative, and that audio-lingual theory was too limited for the classroom. As a result he was accused of being of little help to foreign language teachers.

There is much disenchantment with the language laboratory and despite technical advances many schools are unwilling to use it. This is due mainly to previous mismanagement, inability to use it properly, inadequate machines and maintenance, and lack of suitable material.

Reading must be seen as an audio-lingual activity and should be taught after hearing and speaking is mastered. At all costs 'translation reading' should be avoided and 'programmed reading' should be used on the lines suggested by Scherer, whose excellent material uses audio-lingual techniques and contains no mother-tongue interference.

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In choosing suitable reading texts it is essential to break from the predominance of literature as there are needs other than humanistic to be satisfied. High-school students are often too immature to read great masterpieces, while for others their command of the foreign language is not sufficient, so they drop the course. The literary monocultural approach is far too narrow; the student must develop a wider awareness of a foreign culture.

Publishing houses and electronic firms are combining to produce non-traditional but potentially efficient teaching material. Those concerned with teaching foreign languages and cultures should be prepared to use them.

**69-124 Newmark, Leonard and David A. Reibel.** Necessity and sufficiency in language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **6**, 2 (1968), 145-61.

The language teacher is in danger of teaching his students to produce well-formed sentences in isolation instead of in natural situations. Moreover, material based on contrastive language study is often neglected and some authors deny that a second language is learnt in a different way from the mother tongue. Both children and adults are capable of deducing grammatical rules from a mass of linguistic material. Instead of structurally organized material the pupil should be given short texts directly related to everyday life and in the form of dialogues which he can learn by heart. In conclusion the authors question the value of concentration on interference phenomena in second-language teaching.

**69-125 Ritchie, William C.** Some implications of generative grammar for the construction of courses in English as a foreign language: (2). *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Michigan), **17**, 3/4 (1968), 111-31.

[The second and concluding part of a report submitted to the English Language Institute, Ann Arbor, in 1965. Part 1 appears in abstract 68-153.]

The order of goals for the learner, and consequently the order of activities designed to achieve these goals, is (1) the acquisition of knowledge, (2) practice in bringing knowledge to bear in performance, (3) use of knowledge in actual communication.

Knowledge is best acquired through visual activity because of the basic similarity between the nature of knowledge and the visual mode, the need to manipulate abstract concepts which can be simply visualised, and the immediate memory restrictions of aural work. It is also possible to use self-paced instruction in visual activity. Communication will, of course, be oral-auditory to free the learner from reliance on visual representation while requiring him to manipulate the concepts so represented within conversational time limits and memory restrictions. [The author's theory is illustrated in the outline of a course for English as a foreign language for use at the Ann Arbor Institute. Possible lines of further research are suggested.]

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69-126 **Brooks, Nelson.** Teaching culture in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 1, 3 (1968), 204-17.

Culture for the language learner implies something different from history, geography, folklore, literature and civilization. The language learner needs to be concerned with the problems of the individual, with the means of obtaining food, shelter, sanitation, help for the sick and with the many patterns of living into which the individual must fit. A study of the fine arts and the total way of life will gain in importance as language competence develops.

A number of ways of applying the author's recommendations in classroom procedure are set out.

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- 69–127 Decaigny, T.** L'approche des cultures étrangères dans les cours de langues vivantes. [Presenting cultural background in foreign language courses.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), **34**, 3 (1968), 277–93.

We have progressed democratically from the time when the ability to speak a foreign language was the privilege of one class to its present availability to everyone. This poses problems of teaching aims. The limited requirements of businessmen must not blind teachers to the need to maintain the cultural background which will base their pupils' understanding of other countries on sound values and a tolerant acceptance of different customs. A study follows of ways in which present-day language teaching can achieve such an aim. The same scientific discipline must be devoted to reading and writing as is now devoted in the earlier stages to oral work, and it must be remembered that cultural background will no longer mean a knowledge of literary history and its masterpieces but a general study of history, institutions and arts which will reveal the attitudes, beliefs and values of another people. A knowledge of isolated cultural achievements is as useless to a pupil as the knowledge of isolated words.

Progress will be conditioned not only by the level of the pupil's acquisition of the target language but also by his mental and emotional maturity. International understanding will best be served by giving pupils a sufficient grasp of the language to allow an increasing penetration into the second culture.

## PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

- 69–128 Carroll, John B.** Memorandum on needed research in the psycholinguistic and applied psycholinguistic aspects of language teaching. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **1**, 3 (1968), 236–8.

Although the recent growth in psycholinguistic study has been remarkable, its interest is primarily in basic theoretical and empirical studies of native language acquisition and performance mechanism

and there has been little explicit concern with possible applications of the basic work in language teaching. The acquisition of competence in the grammatical domain has captured interest; studies of the acquisition of vocabulary and phonology taking a secondary place. Foreign-language teaching methodology is supported by very little empirical evidence and applied psycholinguistic research in second-language teaching is only beginning to identify critical variables in instructional methods. In the teaching of English as a second language and the teaching of standard English to disadvantaged children, psycholinguistics may have much to offer. Before the application of psycholinguistics can become truly meaningful specific problems must be defined and training programmes must produce competent researchers oriented towards applied problems such as language teaching. At the moment the American programmes at the Universities of Michigan and Minnesota, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, are directed towards the basic theoretical problems and the kind of application considered in the field of machine translation and information retrieval.

**69-129 Cole, Leo R.** The psychological evaluation of audio-lingual techniques and the modification of basic precepts. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 6, 1 (1968), 7-14.

Basing his examination on the contribution made by Wilga Rivers in her book *The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher*, the author studies the shortcomings of modern audio-lingual techniques from the viewpoint of psychological theory. Classes can be conducted along audio-lingual lines in schools which have no laboratory. It is possible to use a variety of techniques which, though not theoretically as efficient as drills, succeed in maintaining the student's enthusiasm. It is difficult to get students to make spontaneous variations in the basic patterns learned. Language communication involves a relationship between individuals and not merely the repetition of phrases and practising of structures. The use of writing and the timing of its introduction and the value of explaining underlying structures at a higher level of language acquisition are also examined. Rivers is able

to see but not to solve the problems. Practical teaching situations point to the need for a radical revision of many basic precepts of audio-lingual techniques and theory while bearing out the validity of the method generally.

**69–130 Jakobovits, Leon A.** Implications of recent psycholinguistic developments for the teaching of a second language. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **18**, 1/2 (1968), 89–109.

The traditional psychological approach to language acquisition emphasized the role of parental reinforcement. The idea that a child learns the constituent elements of phonemic structures and then produces speech by associating these elements is contrary to fact. Understanding the phonological code of a language involves pattern recognition and equation. Behaviourists have concerned themselves with the relation between words and objects (reference) and have neglected semantic interpretation. Generalization of forms learned has been supposed to account for new uses of language. Words do not simply denote things in the environment, but processes for dealing with it. An adequate semantic theory must contain (a) a model of human cognition specifying a finite set of dimensions or features, and (b) a set of finite rules specifying possibilities of manipulation. The process of acquiring language involves a more complex procedure of analysis than that offered by surface relations such as order of elements and word-associations.

Children's earliest utterances consist of non-random combinations of words which are not memorized limitations of adult speech. [The author cites the views of McNeill.] The child's innate endowment guides his discovery of the rules of the language to which he is exposed. Proper presentation of speech materials facilitates the acquisition of grammatical rules.

In second-language teaching it is necessary to expose the student to linguistic materials so that he will discover the significant features of the language. 'Transformation exercises' at phonological, syntactic and semantic levels are more useful than pattern drills and discrimination exercises.

- 69-131 Leont'ev, A. A.** Внеязыковая обусловленность речевого акта и некоторые вопросы обучения иностранным языкам. [Extralinguistic conditioning of the speech act and some problems of teaching foreign languages.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 2 (1968), 29-35.

Contrasting the psycholinguistic findings of the school of Vygotsky with the views of American behaviourists, the author discusses various situational and environmental factors (the presence and absence of the person or object spoken about) in relation to linguistic models and operational patterns, and motivation of the speech act and the environmental stimuli of this motivation. Different operational structures are responsible for the difficulties experienced by students of foreign languages; for example, the tendency for German students to forget the second negation in Russian and for Russian students to double the negation in German. In conclusion, the reason for the choice of language is analysed.

## TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

- 69-132 Catford, J. C.** Some aspects of linguistics in language testing. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), 6, 5 (1968), 16-19.

Command of all the levels and varieties of language can be tested. Among the functions of tests in English are: (1) assessment of attainment for award of a qualification or for selection and placement, (2) prediction of future progress, (3) measurement of the value of teaching methods and procedures—essential in designing experiments in teaching, (4) diagnosis of individual or group difficulties, (5) measurement of aptitude. Testing usually measures performance rather than competence, but this can also be measured. One can test production or reception of language, and one can test phonology, graphology, grammar and lexis, the relations between the latter two, and features of situation. In addition the student's ability to identify dialects and registers can be tested. [Details of the kinds of test are given with illustrations.]



**69-133 Hill, L. A.** Objective tests. *Journal of the teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), 4 (1968), 2-3.

As memorization of model answers has been one of the ways in the past by which students attempted to pass language examinations without adequate knowledge, and short answer tests can be too remote from real uses of languages, types of test are needed (and exercises too) which do not lend themselves to parroting but which show whether a candidate can use a language for practical purposes.

Suggestions are for essay-type tests in which the student is given detailed outlines for his composition and objective tests which are contextualized so that the candidate is faced with various situations to which he has to respond.

The author suggests an examination including (1) a test of aural comprehension, (2) an oral production test (response to stimuli), (3) a reading comprehension test, (4) written composition tests again responding to various stimuli which are, as far as possible, natural.

**69-134 Plaister, Theodore H.** Testing aural comprehension: a culture fair approach. *TESOL Quarterly* (Indiana), 1, 3 (1967), 17-19.

Testing aural comprehension by pictures is unreliable as the student may meet with cultural difficulties and the test will be one of picture interpretation rather than aural comprehension. Tests in which students listen to a piece of prose and make notes before answering questions are misleading as this does not reflect the normal lecture situation.

It is important that any test should measure comprehension of a wide range of fluently spoken English rather than the understanding of specific points. A multiple-choice test has been devised whereby students select one of four diagrams to show they have understood a spoken lead. This test is efficient and measures only the students' linguistic ability. It is also easy to produce. [An example of the test is included in the article.]

## TEACHER TRAINING

- 69-135 Arendt, Jermaine D.** Use of the videotape recorder in the training of modern foreign language teachers. *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington, DC), **13**, 5 (1968), 457-9.

This report was prepared by a committee of the course in technological media at a University of Minnesota summer institute in 1967.

A permanent videotape library should contain useful examples of teaching for the methodology class. Such examples could portray both model units and regular classes conducted by experienced teachers and student teachers. Discussion and replay would be possible. Demonstration of personal relationships varying from motivating achievement to the handling of discipline, the mechanical features of classroom and laboratory facilities, and of aspects of foreign-language teaching and teacher training to outside groups such as administrators are all possible through video-tape. It provides opportunity for self-analysis, as the student can study his own performance, and it provides the supervisor with concrete evidence for evaluation which he can keep for future viewing and successive comparisons. [A certain amount of technical advice is appended.]

- 69-136 Gibb, G. O.** Account of an experiment designed to test the effectiveness of a commentary superimposed on a televised lesson. *Educational Review* (University of Birmingham School of Education), **20**, 3 (1968), 204-17.

The accompaniment of a television lesson for teacher training by a commentary is considered to see whether the pictures alone can make their point or whether further explanation is necessary. The general conclusion from multiple-choice testing of what students learned with and without commentary shows the commentary to be helpful in identifying the aims and stages of the lesson, except for the final stages, which were easily recalled by both groups. On questions concerned with the subsidiary purposes of some of the lesson stages, teaching techniques and specific features of the Nuffield material the

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commentary proved to be only occasionally helpful. An analysis of the reasons for this is provided.

**69-137 Sivertsen, Eva.** The academic training of the graduate language teacher. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 3, 4 (1968), 2-11.

[Lecture given at a Council of Europe course in the University of Oslo in 1967.] No ideal programme can be drawn up for training a graduate language teacher as this will depend on many factors, including the educational system within which the teacher has to work. It is assumed that the teacher will have to teach two subjects and that he can only devote one or two years to the study of each, with additional time for professional studies such as methodology. Today few universities have special programmes for those who want to teach foreign languages.

Three suggested components for a worth-while course are: training in basic skills and insights; further specialization in the language or in the culture, according to the needs of the school system and the interests of the student; an introduction to the problems of foreign-language teaching, including applied linguistics, methodology and an introduction to modern aids.

The system would enable the prospective teacher to study alongside the future research scholar or translator in the same university department with some of the courses geared to his particular future needs.

## TEACHING METHODS

**69-138 Burch, P. W. A.** An experiment in hypnopaedia. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), 7, 3 (1968), 60-2.

Four students of Ealing Technical College tried out sleep-learning methods for beginning Persian. The experience is described and on the basis of the results it was felt to be a worth-while investment to provide a small number of interested students with sleep-learning equipment to be used individually with advanced material for languages already under study. One of the students learning Persian

fared better with ordinary methods than with hypnopaedia, and it was felt that this may have been in part due to the fact that he had a very reserved attitude to the experiment. Results indicate in any case that certain learners adapt more easily to this method than others.

**69-139 Wood, Pamela.** Some experiences from teaching commercial English to foreigners. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 4, 1 (1968), 13-17.

The selection of a suitable textbook for teaching commercial English is difficult. [The field is briefly reviewed.] Students have to be persuaded that the English used in modern business letters is correct, clear language, in which special terms may be used which relate to a particular business. Students are frequently unsure of the use of punctuation and capital letters, abbreviations of English counties, English spellings of countries and their capitals, and the best way of dividing words at the end of lines. Instances of ambiguity can be illustrated, the use of singular or plural verbs with collective nouns, 'false friends' in vocabulary, and the use of prepositions, which are a constant source of trouble. American English and letter styles are also examined.

## GAMES

**69-140 Buckby, M.** The role of games in language teaching. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 5, 3 (1968), 125-8.

Language practice without student motivation can be harmful. Games have an important role to play in creating the right conditions for practice, involving learners in a wide range of activities and ensuring that the learner practises with understanding. Games of four types are suggested to practise listening, speaking, reading and writing.

CLASS METHODS

- 69-141 Benitz, Emmy.** Rollenspiel und Sprechfreudigkeit. [Role playing and enjoyment from speaking.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 12, 5 (1968), 178-81 and 192.

It was this teacher's experience that until she introduced role playing into her class-teaching (expanded into the form of competitions between classes producing short sketches) the language did not come alive. Supplementary cultural information in the form of slides, films and songs did not have the same effect. At first the parts the children played were learnt by heart but they were gradually led to make up impromptu conversations in situations for which they already possessed the necessary vocabulary and structures.

- 69-142 Cartledge, H. A.** A defence of dictation. *English Language Teaching* (London), 22, 3 (1968), 226-31.

Dictation is not a teaching but a testing device. Many teachers do not know how to give a dictation. Dictation gives practice in oral comprehension. The written record proves our ability to reproduce speech in visual form. Dictation forces pupils to contextualize and discriminate. [The author explains in detail how a passage should be dictated and the students' work may be corrected. He lists objections to the practice of allowing members of the class to write the dictation on the blackboard.]

- 69-143 Higgins, J. J.** Don't answer in complete sentences. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 3, 3 (1968), 2-7.

For practical teaching purposes language can be divided into 'prompted' and 'unprompted' utterances. There will be changes of intonation and grammatical form between unprompted and prompted utterances. A natural short response to a question or stimulus is not the one which a teacher is likely to present to a class of foreign learners. Textbooks and examinations will often ask for a complete answer but this is to abandon context and to mislead the student as to

when to produce a particular form. It has been argued that it is easier to reduce utterances to short forms than to expand them to unprompted patterns, but a good 'situational' course will demonstrate the falsity of this. A little ingenuity can produce good formal practice and good contextualization. [Examples are given of drills set within a meaningful context, using the 'complete answer' form.] The strongest objection to answers in complete sentences is that the student feels the artificiality and this can be an anti-motivating factor in the learning process; the English taught should be that actually used between Englishmen.

**69-144 Jonas, S. C., Sister Ruth Adelaide.** A unique use of media: 'twinned classroom' approach to the teaching of French. *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington, DC), **13**, 5 (1968), 468-70.

An experiment was conducted over three years in twinning a French and an American class of eight-year-olds to see the effect on American children learning French. A control class taught by the same teacher was given the tapes and transparencies received from France but not allowed to send any in exchange or make any direct contact with the French children by exchange of pictures, recorded messages, etc. The direct contact was considered beneficial not only because of the children's enthusiasm but because of their parents' interest in and support for the project.

**69-145 Shalit, Dan.** Oral practice in the classroom. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), **12** (1968), 14-17.

Classroom work with new functional items, embodied in sentence patterns, should be divided into presentation and practice. New material should be presented in such a way that its form and meaning are self-evident. The teacher must 'stage' the basis for each sentence in the classroom. He must know what speech-phrases and intonation he is going to use. The pupils must become aware of the pattern in the sentences and the relationship between pattern and the

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context of situation. They must absorb the model and be able to apply it to new situations. Oral drill should follow as soon as possible. The pupils should speak in chorus. Drill will also enable the pupils to generate sentences which the teacher has not used.

### CONVERSATION

**69-146 Harrington, Clifford V.** Preparing controlled conversations. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **6**, 4 (1968), 14-17.

Experiments in conducting free conversation in the classroom very often end in failure, but controlled conversation enables the students to speak within a framework. The basic features of the method used at the ELEC Institute are simple. The students listen to a few paragraphs of spoken English and after a brief explanation of difficult words and phrases listen to the passage again and then, under the teacher's guidance, ask each other questions and give answers based on what they have heard. [Sample exercise.]

### TEACHING AIDS

**69-147 Hampares, Kay J.** Linguistic and cultural insights in advertising. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **52**, 4 (1968), 220-2.

Feeling that many pattern sentences are stilted and games contrived the author tried using French and Spanish advertisements in magazines as a source of linguistic and cultural material. The influence of English on other languages was seen, colloquial and slang expressions not in the textbooks were discovered, regional variations in vocabulary noted and practice in understanding the metric system and foreign currency provided. Advertisements will provide information about fashions in clothes, furniture and food, the role of women in society and so on, which may be used in a variety of ways at all levels of language learning.

## TEXTBOOKS

- 69-148 Leont'ev, A. A.** О речевой ситуации и принципе речевых действий. [On the speech situation and the principle of linguistic behaviour.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1968), 19-23.

Basic principles are discussed for the construction of a textbook, its presentation to pupils and the organization of exercises.

For the language learner, speech is an active process of thinking carried out under the demands of language situations. Textbooks normally have a cold approach, where the learner is considered to be an outside observer. Motive and purpose characterize every human activity and speech communication is part of a greater complex of activity, therefore a foreign language should be presented as a process demanding mastery not of linguistic problems but of expression in a given situation.

Psychological and linguistic situations must be constructed either in the textbook or by the teacher, so that the pupil is encouraged to react linguistically in a desired fashion. A parallel exists in the detective novel, where the reader is invited to construct a model of the hero's behaviour, according to his moves, and the design of a textbook in which the pupil can transfer himself to the position of hero and act linguistically with him or in his place. Writers and teachers should collaborate to compose such textbooks, where the speech situation stems from a real speech problem, which the pupil might really encounter in the country whose language he is studying.

Two particular points have so far received insufficient attention. First, language should be presented as a means of expression of a contextual situation in order to ensure that grammar is functional. Second, teaching techniques accordingly should vary with the functions and types of speech used. Exercises should pose a problematic speech situation and avoid a mechanical approach, thus reinforcing the required speech habit in an actual situation.



- 69-149 Malíš, František.** Einige typische Mängel in Fremdsprachenlehrbüchern. [Common omissions in foreign language textbooks.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 2 (1968), 102-5.

Five common omissions are noted and illustrated. They are: (1) failure to distinguish between the frequency of occurrence of lexical items in a child's immediate school surrounding and in an essential minimum vocabulary for communication. (2) Dead wood in the form of sentences not used in oral communication with foreigners should be removed. (3) No one method or principle has only advantages or disadvantages. Too often teaching methods swing from one system to another and back again without a careful study of the conditions under which a particular method is likely to succeed. (4) Pupils are not taught to react properly to new words in a text. An experienced adult intuitively attempts to understand a new word from its context, then decides if it is really important, and finally uses a dictionary—a child must be taught to do this. (5) It is also necessary to teach a child to react properly when he finds he needs a word or an expression in speech which he does not know. He must be taught to simplify his speech until he can convey his meaning. An adult will do this instinctively.

The discovery of such omissions in textbooks and finding a way to handle them is one of the most important tasks of the textbook-writer.

### AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

- 69-150 Coppen, Helen.** The search for evidence. What do we know about the ways in which audio-visual aids help learners to learn? *Visual Education* (London), August/September (1968), 71-4.

Three areas of concern must be stated before answering questions about how learners learn or what they learn for any audio or visual aid: (1) the actual materials used, (2) the situation in which learning is going forward, (3) the interests, abilities and background of the

learners. Many research studies have failed to pay sufficient attention to the situation of use. The attitude of the teacher taking the class is vital. Only when we know precisely what we expect to have been learned can we measure whether that learning has taken place. The results of many experiments with audio-visual materials have been inconclusive because of this lack of precision. The test instrument must be appropriate to the desired change. Most teaching occurs by audio and visual means operating together but we do not yet know how the mind deals with these dual channels.

**69-151 Emig, F. K.** Die Tonbildreihe als Stimulator der Kommunikation. [Audio-visual aids as a stimulus to communication.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 12, 5 (1968), 175-7.

The combination of visuals and recorded voices is now a well-recognized aid to foreign-language teaching, especially as a stimulus to hearing accurately and speaking. The result of the work done by question and answer, relating and describing a scene is likely, however, to produce a monologue rather than a life-like conversation. The language of everyday speech is considerably different from the unimpeded language of the story-teller. A partner in dialogue has no time to reflect, but a word with more than one meaning can become quite clear in context. The teacher needs to create the kind of situation in which human beings express their thoughts and feelings often in very limited language, and audio-visual aids are now being produced to do just this. The visuals should have as little background material as possible in order to avoid distraction from the gestures and expressions of the speaking characters, whose roles will later be played by the class when the situation and language has been understood and practised. [A specimen situation of mother and children out shopping is outlined with accompanying conversations.]

## VISUAL AIDS

- 69-152 Finocchiaro, Mary.** Visual aids in teaching English as a second language. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington), **6**, 3 (1968), 13-17.

Stressing the importance of the pupil's and teacher's attitudes and motivation, the author explains in some detail how gestures, the blackboard, objects, games and play-acting, large pictures of various types, the flannelboard, the pocket chart, and the vocabulary wheel can be used in the language classroom. Such aids need careful preparation and are justified only if they are judiciously used in a teaching plan.

## TELEVISION

- 69-153 Higgins, John J.** 'The green umbrella'—the place of language drills in a TV language series. *Educational Television International* (London), **2**, 2 (1968), 127-9.

The reason that pattern drills are so little used in television lessons is that they consume time, and television time is expensive. British television language courses usually devote half of their time to presentation of a dramatic episode, a third to isolation and presentation of new material and the remainder to drills. Some follow-up work to these lessons is expected and one function of the drills is to suggest how practice may be continued.

In Scandinavian programmes for schools television is a reward and programmes consist of a fifteen-minute story offering humour or suspense. The earliest level for which they are designed is the end of the second year of English. The Norwegian series of schools English programmes, *The Green Umbrella*, has adopted the 'reward' system but ends each film with a three-minute drill section. Verbal and visual extravagances are used to ensure that the drills are not dreary. No attempt is made to give initial teaching of language forms but a useful pattern which has occurred in the film is made active by asking the students to respond verbally to other similar visual stimuli.

- 69-154 Klynne, Keity.** Scandinavian experiences of co-production and exchange of modern language programmes. *Educational Television International* (London), 2, 1 (1968), 12-16.

Denmark, Sweden and Norway have collaborated in the production of language programmes for schools. This is made possible by the facts that (1) compulsory schooling starts at the age of 7 in all the countries, (2) the teaching of English, German and to some extent French begins at about the same stage in the pupils' school careers, (3) the teaching syllabuses are roughly the same in the three countries. Sweden has twice bought programmes from abroad and shown them in full to the adult population and then, after agreement with the country of origin, broadcast five or six programmes in an edited form to the schools.

### LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 69-155 Taillon, Léopold.** Fiche de contrôle pour laboratoire: moyen d'assurer le succès de l'apprentissage programmé. [The laboratory scoring sheet: a means of ensuring success with programmed instruction.] *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 5, 3 (1968), 133-5.

Two vital principles of learning by programmed instruction are that one difficulty should be handled at a time, and that quality should be aimed at before quantity. Once a student has learned to aim at precision and is able to evaluate his own performance he has the key to success. A useful device to enable him to achieve these goals is a scoring sheet. [Stach's scoring sheet is mentioned and Klaus Bung's is commended.] The author has used Bung's scoring sheet with his students at Moncton University, and found it helpful and appreciated.

ADULT STUDENTS

- 69-156 **Nixon, St John.** Organizing an advanced course in spoken English for Dutch businessmen. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 52, 5 (1968), 287-92.

The Netherlands School of Business organizes intensive courses in English and French for business people in responsible positions. The courses have to be short and intensive (from 8.30 a.m. to 10.00 p.m. daily for two weeks) and to teach the kind of English needed for travelling, entertaining, conducting ordinary conversations and discussions on business topics. Participants usually have a good passive knowledge but need to convert it into natural and idiomatic speech. Language laboratories are used. Drills and dictations are supplemented by telephone exercises and the opportunity to listen to a variety of voices and accents—British, American, African and West Indian. One of the difficulties encountered is with the selection procedure. At first a group was assembled according to their own estimation of ability. The result was a wide variety within one group. Adequate time is needed for adults to adjust to the slick tempo of audio-visual techniques, to master the use of mechanical aids, and to adjust to thinking in abstract terms and developing a perception of linguistic nuances. At this intermediate to advanced level, sentence construction has to be explained, and parts of speech and their functions have to be re-taught. Adults normally want to write everything down and have to be persuaded that, in a course devoted to the spoken language, it is speech which is of prime importance.

IMMIGRANTS

- 69-157 **Derrick, June.** Help for immigrants. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2788 (October 25, 1968), 902.

The aim of the Schools Council project in English for immigrant children was to produce teaching materials for use with non-English-speaking children in British schools and a course for children from 8 to 15 was drawn up by a small group of teachers—some local—an

artist, a linguist and a sociologist. Although several useful ancillary publications have appeared in the meantime, no other true teaching materials have appeared. As the circumstances in which immigrant children are taught vary but are frequently not of the best it was recognized that teachers would have to adapt the course to meet individual needs. Priority should be given to building up command of spoken English, both heard and actively used in situations relevant to the immigrant child's experience and needs. Language read later would have to be an already established part of the child's oral repertoire.

The material was tested through local education authorities in trial classes and the course rewritten according to suggestions which arose. Meanwhile the project team began trials on a course for the 14-15 age-group.

Serious difficulties still exist with immigrants in infant classes. Nothing yet has been done on a large scale to help teachers to get these children talking. There is also a lack of information on how children from special language classes can be transferred to a mixed class following a normal curriculum.

## SPECIALIZED STUDENTS

**69-158 Bertrand, J. and C. Impératrice.** *L'enseignement d'un langage spécialisé.* [Teaching language to a specialized category of students.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 56 (1968), 25-35.

The Moroccan School of Administration is faced with the task of producing administrators and political economists competent in the French language. Specialist language teachers have difficulty in explaining technical texts but their mastery of the French language will enable them to grasp the essentials more easily than the less linguistically competent student. Texts must be chosen very carefully for study and grouped round a central theme. [Useful themes are suggested, and an example of how to treat such texts is taken from the theme of famine in the world.]

PRONUNCIATION

- 69-159 **Danelon, Luiza.** De la rééducation de l'audition par la méthode verbo-tonale à l'enseignement de la prononciation des langues étrangères. [On re-educating the auditory powers by the verbo-tonal method of teaching pronunciation of foreign languages.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 7 (1968), 3-29.

Both in foreign language teaching and in the teaching or re-education of the deaf, pupils have to be trained by much listening and repeating of units of sound. The difficulties are the same although the cause is different and techniques of correction are also the same. Guberina at Zagreb carried out experiments in the centre for re-education of hearing and speech, his staff being all linguist-phoneticians and not specialists in teaching the deaf. As the work developed, doctors, psychologists, musicians, etc., were called in. [Examples follow, first of identifying faults of hearing in deaf Serbo-Croat speaking children, followed by comments on teaching English sounds to adults and adolescents, and finally two longer studies on the teaching of Italian and English sounds to French-speaking Belgians, noting the common errors of pronunciation and exercises given to overcome them.]

GRAMMAR

- 69-160 **Politzer, Robert L.** An experiment in the presentation of parallel and contrasting structures. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 18, 1/2 (1968), 35-43.

Experiments in the learning of French and Spanish showed (a) that there was a tendency for better learning to result when a contrasting structure was taught before a parallel structure, (b) that pupils perform better with the kind of structure taught last, and (c) that contrasting structures are more difficult to learn than parallel ones where word-order is the factor involved.

## READING

- 69-161 Kahl, Peter W.** Das Lesen im Englischunterricht der Hauptschule: 2. [Reading in English at the secondary school: 2.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 3, 3 (1968), 65-7.

In Germany the emphasis today in learning English is on the spoken word and on the enjoyment which can be had from purposeful and relevant studies. It is not intended that reading should be ignored but the chief difficulty lies in the selection of suitable material. Texts which are suitable for a beginner's ability rarely correspond to his state of mental maturity and more interesting material usually has too wide a vocabulary. Fortunately vocabulary explanation in the target language is becoming more usual. The purpose of pleasurable reading matter is destroyed if the teacher sets lists of new vocabulary to be learnt. On the other hand the acquisition of new vocabulary cannot be left entirely to chance. A very small selection of new words can be intensively practised and made part of the pupils' active vocabulary. As early as the second year silent reading can be introduced, preferably from short texts selected and duplicated by the teacher according to the ability of his class. This may be incorporated in class-work or regarded as 'outside reading'. If silent reading is left for homework, comprehension can be tested by the teacher's questions in class, or by a competition between two teams asking each other questions about the reading matter. One way of combining all these forms is to conduct free conversation around the passage, commenting and adding to it or by giving the gist of it in précis form.

- 69-162 Rogers, John.** Reading by flashcard. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), 5 (1968), 32-6.

Flashcards can be used in the early stages to train students to read phrases rather than single words. Commands can also be given by the teacher's card or by a pupil holding up a card. Everyday instructions and questions can be shown on the cards. For training in rapid, accurate recognition, ask the students to look at and copy down groups of words, or letters and numbers, or sequences of words and phrases.



Punctuation may be taught this way by asking students to copy accurately a short sentence in quotation marks and with other punctuation.

### COMPREHENSION

**69-163 Brandt, Bertolt.** Die fremdsprachige Definition als Mittel der Bedeutungserschließung. [Definition in the foreign language as a means of conveying meaning.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 12, 4 (1968), 115-19.

The principle is now established that definitions of new words should as far as possible be given in the language which is being learnt, to encourage pupils to make as much use as possible of their limited vocabulary. In recent years monolingual dictionaries for foreign learners have been produced, some on the basis of a carefully calculated lexical minimum. Even these are generally only useful to advanced language learners. For Russian learners no such dictionary yet exists. The constant danger for a learner encountering a new word is that he will only discover one of a possible variety of meanings which the word may possess. If he is taught the meaning of a word in a context by use of the foreign language and this is then practised in the same context, he is sure of grasping one correct meaning and adding it to his limited vocabulary. At this stage the learner cannot be expected to retain a full definition of a word, some of its meanings applying only to contexts which he has never met. Supplementary meanings will be added as new contexts are encountered. [Examples of words and definitions in Russian, English and French.]

**ENGLISH.** See also abstracts 69-132, -133, -134, -152, -156, -161.

**69-164 Adkins, Patricia G.** Teaching idioms and figures of speech to non-native speakers of English. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 52, 3 (1968), 148-52.

Idioms and figures of speech puzzle students of English as a second language and need special attention. A study in two Texas high schools showed 3·32 idioms per page in readers for ninth grade pupils. Testing proved deficiency in understanding these but several weeks of concentrated explanation and encouragement to use idiomatic expressions revealed, under fresh testing, an improvement of from 37·3 to 64·6 per cent.

**69-165 Amiran, M.** Choosing poetry for the classroom. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 12 (1968), 10-13.

High-school students in Israel are too weak in English to be given, through selected texts, a course in the history of English literature. Literary works might be selected for what they reveal of English or American culture, but national cultures cannot easily be defined and poor literature is often a better guide to it than good.

The aim should be to find literature which the students enjoy reading. There are, for instance, poets whose themes are adult and language simple. [Examples.]

**69-166 Augustin, J. J.** Fast silent reading in the lower secondary school. *Journal of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia*, (Kuala Lumpur), 29, 10 (1967), 79-80.

There are three types of backward readers: fast but inaccurate, slow but accurate and slow but inaccurate. Silent reading aims to provide the pupils with an opportunity to practise and perfect the skill of reading so that they can enjoy their leisure and ultimately educate themselves. In a foreign language silent reading will help to increase vocabulary and consolidate skills acquired. Teachers in non-English medium schools are aware of the lack of practice for pupils in such schools. Time must be set aside everyday in the classroom for silent reading of selected passages of limited length which will encourage the pupils to read more rapidly. In Malaysia there is a great dearth of suitable material. Speed and degree of comprehension can be varied according to the nature of the subject-matter. Research in the United

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States shows an average student reading speed of 600 words per minute. Malaysian teacher trainees, according to the author's present investigations, read at an average of 250 words per minute.

**69-167 Bloor, Meriel.** Teaching English tenses in Ethiopia. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), 5 (1968), 2-7.

Students usually have a thorough misunderstanding of tense usage in English and the examiners' advice to increase drills is not felt to be an adequate solution. 'Rules' have often provided only one fact about a single use of a tense. The starting-point for traditional tense rules is the equation of *tense* with *time*, but such a simplification becomes meaningless in practice. [Illustrations.]

It is important for the teacher to be sure which use of which tense he is trying to teach. He must attempt to teach only one thing at a time and select examples, drills and exercises to fit. He should at first avoid examples which contain irrelevant structures or advanced vocabulary as this will distract the student from the learning issue. The tense must be presented so that the meaning is clear either situationally or contextually. When the use is well established through practice, it must be reinforced with written exercises, and regular use and revision. Finally a teacher may specifically draw the attention of the class to the use which has been taught. It should not be presented as a rule and the students should understand that any use so described is not an exclusive one.

**69-168 Gribble, Lincoln.** Second language dramatics. *Pacific Islands Education* (Wellington), 48 (1968), 46-53.

The article records the experience of producing an annual play with some forty Fijian boys. Previous productions had been praised for everything but the spoken English, which was often unrecognizable. By rewriting the more complicated words and phrases, typing out the parts with the key-words in capitals to indicate stress and also to help

the boys to grasp the main ideas of their speeches so that in an emergency they could 'ad lib', noting words mispronounced, or obviously misunderstood at rehearsals, giving voice production exercises to more than those immediately involved and tape-recording the results, a much higher standard of spoken English was achieved. In oral lessons with forms in the school other than those from which the cast was drawn the play was introduced and part of its text made familiar, with the result that a further 200 boys took a live interest in certain characters and their lines. The resulting production drew high praise, chiefly because of the easy listening provided to multi-racial audiences.

**69-169 Hepfer, Karl.** Zur Frage der Eignung der Nacherzählung als Form der sprachlichen Übung im Englischunterricht. [On the suitability of retelling a story as an exercise in English language teaching.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **67**, 1 (1968), 36-42.

The value of retelling a story in language classes has long been debated. The author lists the mistakes made by students in retelling a story of 400 words. Six weeks after they had first heard and written the story they were asked to write it a second time after a brief oral recapitulation. It was found that with few exceptions exactly the same mistakes were made the second time as the first.

Although there is no time for literal translation during the story-reading, the story is retained in the students' minds in the mother tongue, and errors arising from interference appear when the story is retold. This initial retention and rewriting takes place under intense concentration and mistakes made at that time will be firmly fixed in the students' minds. The value of story retelling may not be as great as is often claimed and other forms of written work should be carefully examined to see if they would not be of greater assistance to pupils.

- 69–170 Jungblut, Gertrud.** Der Limerick und seine Verwendung im Unterricht. [The limerick and its use in the classroom.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **15**, 3 (1968), 264–7.

The origin of the limerick is uncertain. Its popularity began with the publication in 1846 of the *Book of Nonsense* by Edward Lear, which contained limericks for children. As they developed later most limericks have become rather *risqué* in content. Children are fascinated by their grotesque, nonsensical humour.

The limerick has a characteristic structure and rhyme scheme, and its particular form and humour owe much to the flexibility of the English language. After as little as three years of studying English pupils can be successfully encouraged to write their own limericks. [Detailed description of the way in which the limerick form is explained by the teacher and of how teacher and pupils compose their own limericks line-by-line in class.]

The pupils profit from this exercise in several ways: rhyme and rhythm provide a strong framework within which to practise their pronunciation. Searching for rhyming words activates the vocabulary and teaches the pupil that words which sound similar may be spelt very differently. The biggest advantage is that the pupil, when he tries to invent a new line, is forced to think in English all the time.

- 69–171 Lee, James A.** Reading comprehension and textbook readability. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis Ababa), **5**, (1968), 26–32.

Substandard learning is to be expected in English-medium schools, such as Ethiopian secondary schools, where students have insufficient reading ability to understand the textbooks issued to them. The gap between student reading ability and textbook readability can be measured. At Haile Selassie I University students' reading comprehension was tested by the Metropolitan Achievement Tests Advanced Battery, and textbooks by the Flesch formula. [Details given.] Such

tests should be administered by school administrators in any bilingual developing country. Staff should be prepared to search for substitutes for difficult textbook materials and, where nothing more suitable is found, undertake to rewrite existing ones. Foreign assistance agencies should refuse to provide textbook-purchase assistance until they are satisfied that the students will be able to read the books. This over-all problem of suitable textbooks probably dwarfs most other problems in English-medium education.

**69-172 Levenston, E. A.** 'Only for telling a man he was wrong'. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 1 (1968), 43-7.

Many Israelis think the English polite, many Englishmen think the Israelis rude. The error is the result of assuming that simple statements can always be literally translated. [The author describes an experiment.] Two questionnaires were drawn up, one in English and one in Hebrew, in which everyday situations were described. Native English and native Hebrew speakers wrote down the remarks that would come into their minds in these situations. Hebrew speakers used imperatives far more often than English speakers, and stated facts barely. There are no international canons of politeness. Research is called for, touching also on bilingualism.

**69-173 Liem, Nguyen Dang.** English for Vietnamese. *Papers in South-East Asian Linguistics* (1) (Linguistic Circle of Canberra), Series A, 9 (1967), 1-9.

In the Republic of Vietnam 12 million people speak Vietnamese, 126,000 speak Chinese and 300,000 speak the Mon-Khmer languages. Vietnamese is the language of government, business and education. No lingua franca is needed but new technical terms and grammatical devices are necessary to cope with modern science and technology and one or more languages of wider communication are needed for international contacts. Although French used to be the official language and is still widely taught, the demand for English teaching is rapidly increasing.

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English pronunciation has considerable difficulties for Vietnamese (examples are quoted). Intonation is particularly difficult as Vietnamese is a tone language. There are likewise special difficulties with English grammar and a contrastive description of the two languages would point out the pitfalls to the teacher. Vocabulary learning must be linked to progress in cultural understanding. The student therefore needs to understand the main patterns of thought, beliefs and traditions, and to have some appreciation of the values that account for the way people live and behave.

**69-174 Lucas, Esther.** Some attempts at motivation in English teaching. Unesco Associated Schools Project in Education for International Understanding. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 11 (1968), 11-13.

The author describes various forms of activity, e.g. making and exchanging albums and making tape-recordings, in which, within the framework of the Unesco associated schools project, there is stimulating contact with schools abroad.

**69-175 Marckwardt, Albert H.** Teaching English as a foreign language: a survey of the past decade. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington, DC), 9, 5 (1967), supplement 19.

[In a survey of the teaching of English as a foreign language in the past decade the traditional methods of Europe are compared with the rapid developments in the United States. Mention is made of the recent growth in journals and periodicals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language.]

Communication in the United States between government and teaching profession has greatly improved and conferences both national and international have provided opportunities for exchange of information and opinion. Linguistically oriented teaching materials have begun to appear, representing a great advance over what was available a decade ago. In 1962 a National Council on the Testing of English as a Foreign Language was established and received a Ford Founda-

tion grant. The supply of trained teachers has fallen short of demand. In conclusion there is a brief survey of the present situation, noting gaps left by the working of government agencies, and a tribute is paid to the work of the Center for Applied Linguistics in recent years.

**69-176 Raz, Hana.** Aims—means—priorities. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 11, (1968) 7-10.

Planning should be a two-way process, taking account of the situation as well as the final aim. Simultaneous progress in all the language skills is desirable, but one particular skill, such as spelling, may be more important as a means than as an aim. The emphasis may vary at different stages of learning. The ability to establish contact with foreigners and to read in English are both important. Reading ability is not quickly forgotten, and can be a means of reviving ability in speech. Different types of pupil find various skills hard to acquire and class time should be used mainly for speaking. However, as students can read for pleasure after leaving school, reading may be more important as a means than speech, and speech more important than writing.

**69-177 Singh, Amrik.** Bilingual method of teaching English found simple. *University News* (New Delhi), 6, 5 (1968), 14 and 17.

At the Central Institute of English, Hyderabad, an experiment in bilingual teaching of English was carried out with a class of thirty-eight pupils whose average age was eight. The class was divided into an experimental group using mother tongue and English equally and a control group using only English. The bilingual method was found preferable, combining accuracy and fluency without the dullness of the older translation method.



- 69-178 Stokes, Donald S.** Problems of emphasis and contrast in English nominal constructions. *Kivung* (Boroko, New Guinea), **1**, 1 (1968), 53-9.

The syntactic means of expressing nominal contrast vary according to whether the contrasted nominals are in a subject or in an object position and according to whether the underlying base sentences are both semantically positive, both negative, or one positive and the other negative. [Examples are analysed and learners' mistakes are discussed.] Since there are considerable differences between contrast in subject and in object position, each should be treated separately before they are juxtaposed. [The author suggests a technique of presentation based on underlying sentences.]

- 69-179 Upshur, John A.** Four experiments on the relation between foreign language teaching and learning. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **18**, 1/2 (1968), 111-124.

Language-learning experiments conducted with university students learning English as a foreign language indicated that English-language learning might not be related to the amount of formal instruction given in an English language environment; that some learning of previously unknown materials did take place while the materials were being taught, that mastery of earlier course materials might be unrelated to the mastery of later materials, and that in an intensive foreign-language programme sequential mastery of materials might not be necessary. Effective language learning may be informal, occurring when the student finds he can use language in communication. The structure underlying a set of sentences is not completely learned by practice of those sentences.

- 69-180** **Wisser, Burkhard.** Die Rolle der Grammatik im Englischunterricht. [The role of grammar in English teaching.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **67**, 3 (1968), 132-40.

Knowledge about a language and active mastery of it are quite different. The former is not a necessary stage leading to the latter. Language can be illogical (the meaning and use of the double negative is cited in various languages). Attempts to force language into logical patterns result in an artificial grammar. The author examines three hypotheses—that grammar is the foundation of language learning; that learning Latin is better mental training than learning English; that no one can learn a language without a study of grammar. It is, however, necessary to teach grammar when teaching English. The amount will depend on the aim. The higher the standard, the greater understanding of grammar will be necessary, and this will open the way to an appreciation of the inner generative grammar of the language.

- 69-181** **Bowman, W. G.** Survey of language use and language teaching in eastern Africa. *Kenya Education Journal* (Nairobi), **3**, 1 (1968), 21-2 and 27.

This is the first attempt to investigate systematically the problems of language use and teaching in the international multi-lingual region of Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Questions under investigation are: which languages should be the official languages of government; which languages are acceptable for use on radio and television, in publishing, in telecommunications; which languages should be used as the media of instruction at the various levels of formal education?

**FRENCH.** *See also abstracts* 69–158, –160.

**69–182 Schertz, Pierre.** Les vrais ‘faux débutants’, dans l’apprentissage du français, langue étrangère. [The real ‘false beginners’ in French as a foreign language.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 59 (1968), 33–9.

It is always difficult to know where to place a potential student who can read first-year texts but is unable to express himself on everyday subjects at a normal speed or reply to questions on a text. An audio-visual method will help a pupil who depends too much on the printed word to free himself from it. The ‘false beginner’ will need to know exactly what is expected of him and to have the method explained carefully, together with any modifications which are being made for him. By inviting the student’s co-operation good psychological conditions are established.

Recording the student’s answers to the taped questions and playing them back before a group will ensure that the need for oral practice and correction is fully appreciated.

[A detailed example based on the author’s experience with such students shows how to present and enforce a unit from an audio-visual course.]

**69–183 Schneider, Bruno.** Sprachlaborübungen für die gymnasiale Oberstufe Französisch. [Language laboratory exercises for the senior classes of the grammar school (French).] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 15, 2 (1968), 169–80.

With upper classes of a grammar school in the language laboratory an analytical approach to grammatical problems is no longer adequate. Drills and exercises are needed, the contextual and linguistic basis for which should be drawn from literary and other texts being studied in the target language.

One type can be based on a graded series of recorded extracts, carefully selected and edited so as not to be too demanding in style or syntax but illustrating idiomatic use of language or points where interference is likely from the pupils’ mother tongue. These extracts

can be used as a basis for consecutive and simultaneous oral translation and retranslation, and also for recombination and adaptation drills from and into the target language. The vocabulary of the passage will have been previously studied in classroom and language laboratory, and the whole passage will have been prepared in the laboratory by means of listening/comprehension exercises and three- or four-phase exploded repetition drills.

Another type of work can be provided by graded contextualized structure drills specifically designed to test ability to discriminate between structures or parts of speech which are interrelated but not identical in meaning or application.

The object is for the pupil to learn to handle longer and more demanding syntactic units with confidence rather than to improve his speed of delivery. Motivation is sustained by the fact that the linguistic material is drawn from set texts which the pupil is studying, and the emphasis is now on the language of formal literary discussion and composition instead of the colloquial register.

## RUSSIAN

**69-184 Makhmudova, S.** Принцип коммуникативности в обучении русской устной речи. [The principle of verbal communication in the teaching of Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 3 (1968), 57-62.

Communication based on situation guarantees the formation of good listening habits and may lead, through the practice of necessary speech models and lexis, to the development of spontaneous speech. Pupils need to imitate the processes of social communication and the situations used should be convincing and arouse response. Material for developing synthetic perception and understanding of speech should present appropriate phonetic, lexical and grammatical difficulty.

Exercises are required to develop reproductive speech according to situative models. Analytic reading for developing productive speech will help create the desired skills. Making small reports, joint compilation of a story, composition of dialogues, with emphasis on the

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formation of questions as well as answers, are suitable techniques. Such work may be based on three fundamental types of situation—real, verbal and representational. The use of dialogue material based on natural communication should help pupils develop spontaneous replies, expressing agreement, objection, regret, etc. for each of which appropriate lexical items should be selected. Pictures may be so designed as to illustrate similar shades of meaning and to elicit the desired words. Filmstrips in various combinations with textual material may also serve these aims.

**69–185 Novichkov, E.** Программированное обучение лексике русского языка (некоторые экспериментальные данные). [Programmed learning of lexical items in Russian (some experimental data).] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1968), 27–30.

Given visual support, programming a foreign language is best restricted to lexis and structural models. In confirmation of this view the first of three annual experiments in schools revealed successful teaching of these items. Firm memorizing is dependent on the distribution of the material by frames and the nature of the exercises.

The second year's experiments were thus guided by the characteristics of memorizing foreign lexis, in so far as the latter is effected through a synthesis of the graphic, phonetic and semantic elements of a given word. In these experiments pupils' activities included recognition, reproduction, reading and copying of words introduced according to certain methodological criteria in five groups of five. The rhythm of work increased in pace and tests given at various intervals revealed a high level of ability to reproduce lexical items even after a lapse of time.

The third series of experiments was of longer duration: the lexis was partly programmed, and some programmed grammar was also included. In both reproduction and recognition the programmed lexis was far more successfully assimilated than the unprogrammed.

**69–186 Vertogradskaya, E. A.** Психологические факторы в практике обучения развитию речи (на материале работы над причастием и деепричастием). [Psychological factors in practical language teaching.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 2 (1968), 83–6.

The system of concepts expressed by the participle and gerund constructions in Russian causes difficulties for native speakers of French. Mastery of these constructions implies not a search for equivalents but an assimilation of new concepts.

Investigation showed that these constructions occur frequently in both literary and technical texts and that the pupils used the constructions more freely in their own writing as their mastery of Russian increased.

Mistakes made by French students arise from the radical psycholinguistic differences between the French and Russian participle constructions. Clarification of semantic differences helps such students with this difficulty. The French participle occupies a kind of middle position between the two Russian forms, whose morphological structure reflect differences of syntactic categories.

Three basic approaches can guarantee accurate usage: differentiation between participle and gerund, by contrasting their semantic content; differentiation of them as verbal forms; and differentiation of the categories of the voice of the participle by linking it with the subject or object of an action.

When teaching these rather literary constructions, it is expedient to base work on continuous texts. Meaningless exercises designed solely to practise their form, regardless of their semantic value, should be abandoned in favour of their use in a meaningful situation.