

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

- 69-215 Contreras, Helen.** Transformational grammar and language teaching. *Revista de Lingüística Aplicada* (Concepción), **5**, 1 (1967), 6-17.

Transformational grammar has advanced our understanding of what it is a fluent speaker knows, and how our notions of language acquisition must be revised on the basis of a better understanding of what constitutes language competence. A fluent speaker is able to produce an infinite number of sentences—a competence which cannot be achieved by rote learning. He is able to distinguish sentences from non-sentences, detect ambiguities, and notice the structural relatedness of sentences. A grammar which attempts to account scientifically for this competence is not sufficient for pedagogical purposes. Sophisticated contrastive grammars are also needed. Meanwhile the language teacher, though appreciating that transformational grammar is helping to enlighten our understanding, cannot yet hope for solutions to his practical problems from the linguist or the psychologist.

- 69-216 Donoghue, M. R.** How second-language learning differs from first-language learning. *Hispania* (Wisconsin), **51**, 3 (1968), 480-1.

With coordinate bilingualism the first- and second-language systems are largely operative as separate units, whereas with compound bilingualism we have a kind of learning in which the second language is explained in terms of the first. Whatever the mode employed by the learner there are certain fundamental differences between first- and second-language learning. (1) L_1 learning is spontaneous and unplanned: L_2 learning is controlled and organized. (2) Memory span

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is shorter when learning an L_2 . (3) In L_1 reinforcement is primary (food, toys, control of environment): in L_2 learning it is secondary (nods, smiles, facial expressions, class marks). (4) In L_1 learning exposure time is much greater. Also in L_1 learning more time is spent on the discrimination of intonation, rhythm, and individual sounds. In L_2 this training period is brief; and errors are usually errors of over-discrimination, in which a student fails to respond to equivalent variants of the positive stimulus. (5) In L_1 learning the base of deep structure is acquired first, then the surface structure. In L_2 learning the surface structures are usually learned first and the base structures later. In L_1 learning a close contact is maintained between language and meaning, whereas in L_2 learning the language may be acquired without close contact with meaning. (6) In L_1 learning a stimulus is associated with a single response. In L_2 learning two responses are associated with the same stimulus, relating in interference or negative transfer. To combat interference the teacher has to (a) drill at points of interference, (b) strengthen responses through repetition or strengthen stimulus through atmosphere or cueing effect, (c) control the size and amount of material for learning by increasing the 'chunks' as the children progress in the skill of imitation. On the whole coordinate bilingualism tends to minimize interference while compound bilingualism maximizes it.

69-217 Gefen, R. Theoretical prerequisites for second-language teaching. *Notes and Papers* (Tel Aviv), 8 (1968), 5-11.

The kind of exercise given to a pupil depends in part on the model of grammatical description accepted by the teacher. Few teachers, however, are sufficiently qualified in linguistics to be capable of constructing drills according to a specified model. At the same time many linguists are pedagogically naïve and their teaching materials are completely lacking in interest and meaning. Not only is there no agreement about how language is learned but no complete synchronic description of the English language has been produced which can be used in a classroom. The differences of opinion can encourage a teacher not to be dogmatic. All grammatical theories can be utilized

for different purposes. Each of the four major models (traditionalist, structuralist, tagmemist, transformationalist) is reflected in specific types of drill. The practical teacher relying on his own linguistic intuition and pedagogical insight probably uses all these drill techniques instinctively and so covers most aspects of structure, but his practice will be blind unless he understands something of the underlying theory. Despite the undoubted and obvious relevance of linguistics to language teaching, linguistics is only one of the sciences involved and the teacher must be just as much concerned with extra-linguistic factors.

69-218 Gladstone, J. R. Language and culture. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 2 (1969), 114-17.

Language and culture are interwoven. Our first language dictates the type and form of our communications. The sounds and patterns of our first language give us linguistic blind spots. We transfer our speech patterns to the target language. There are also cultural blind spots, and there is a strong tendency for the foreigner to superimpose his own cultural patterns on the new environment. A speaker's cultural attitudes are reflected in his speech patterns. It is difficult to delineate a cultural pattern. The relationship between culture and language should be taken account of in a language programme.

69-219 Kieser, W. E. A dissenting voice in language instruction. *Canadian Audiovisual Review* (Toronto), 4, 5 (1968), 6-7 and 14.

Mother-tongue learning takes place in infancy and second-language learning usually begins between the ages of ten and twelve. It is now generally accepted that the process of acquiring the mother tongue orally is quite different from the learning later in life of a second language. The amount of time in a day spent by a small child prattling and acquiring its mother tongue bears no comparison with the small amount of time spent by an older child learning a language at school. Unison work in school helps to develop pronunciation

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and intonation but not fluency. If the target language alone is used pupils may not fully understand, structures learned by heart may not be analysed nor necessary connexions established with other structures. Nevertheless many teachers have adopted and approved an audio-lingual approach. It is not the validity of the method which is debatable but the length of time for which it should be employed in the purely audio-lingual manner. Ten weeks of four thirty-minute lessons is long enough for a purely oral method. After that, reading of structures already learnt should be introduced, the class should be led to discover the grammatical rule inherent in a passage, and finally writing exercises should be given to further reinforce the structures learned.

69–220 Lee, W. R. Some points about aims and means in the foreign-language course. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 100–107.

For children, the goal lies in the immediate future. The community tends to concern itself with the needs of employment. Adult language learners may or may not have employment in mind. The community's aims are likely to conflict with the individual's; compromise may be necessary. At an elementary stage, the use particular pupils will eventually make of the language cannot be foreseen; they should therefore be given an all-round basic course.

The use learners make of the language depends in part on the nature of their achievement. It is a question not only of what the situation is in a given place but of what it might be.

It is sometimes assumed that the relationship between aims and means is a straightforward one. To give practice in one skill alone is not the best way to cultivate a particular language skill. The language skills interact. Listening and speaking are linked, and the aural–oral and visual–manual skills are also connected. Oral activity is of value even when the aim is not simply to produce good speakers: it brings the language to life, makes it easier to contextualize, and is a time-saving means of practice. The language laboratory, though useful, is not well suited to the social use of

language. Reading is best founded on oral command. Talk needs the stimulus of print. We write better if we have read well.

69-221 Marckwardt, Albert H. Linguistics and English teaching. *ELEC Bulletin* (Tokyo), 25, (1968), 2-8 and 53.

Linguistics gives background assistance, arising from the linguist's concept of language, his view of the language-learning process, the way in which he identifies the learner's difficulties, and his suggestions as to ways of overcoming those difficulties.

The linguist recognizes that there are certain elements in the structure of a language which are not represented in the writing system. He sees language as a series of patterns consisting of habitual responses to verbal or contextual stimuli. He knows that we learn to listen and to understand the native language in its spoken form first, and that we control the grammar of the language without being consciously aware of it. Learning a second language is not a duplication of learning the first; there is native-language interference. When the learner's native language is compared with the target language, the linguist can foretell the learning and teaching difficulties, which differ from one native-language area to another. The linguist also takes the view that accuracy should be developed before fluency, and that attention should be paid to varieties or styles in language.

The contribution that linguistics has to make to language teaching is that it offers an ordered and systematic way of dealing with difficulties.

69-222 Van Abbé, Derek. Motor-skills in language. *Audio-Visual Media* (London), 2, 4 (1968), 20-9.

Language is a code whose raw material is a mass of sound organized into meaning. The sound ranges through a frequency scale of 100-8,000 cycles (the range of the normal ear). Each language has adopted a limited number of audible noises which need to be interpreted to

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convey the sounds of speech. The number of structural arrangements has also been kept remarkably small.

As the rules within each language are constant, there appears to be a degree of motor activity about the processes of speaking and listening. Conditioned reflexes form the body of everyday thinking but although psychologists can now use electrical measuring apparatus it is not yet known how concepts turn into words inside our brains. Soviet linguists talk in terms of mechanistic functioning of the brain but not all linguists regard speech as mechanistically as they do. Nevertheless it would seem that the present findings do describe a working model of objective reality. 'Clichés', understood as chunks of language used for automatic acquisition and use, can reveal patterns which machines might be capable of translating. It is easier to translate the 'clichés' of a scientific textbook than the everyday language of the streets which may be used in a novel. Today the needs of scientists and tourists can be catered for to some extent by clichés but a minimum of general instruction is also necessary. Teaching to this level has become essentially an exploration and exploitation of motor-skills. Basic vocabularies are useful if used in conjunction with a study of the motor-skills of phraseology. Drills can convey the basic elements of the foreign language but other methods are necessary to get the pupil to move on from parrot-knowledge to creative use of words and structures acquired.

69–223 Wolfe, David L. Some theoretical aspects of language learning and language teaching. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 3/4 (1967), 173–88.

The infant brain may be predisposed to the acquisitions of the grammar of natural language. Vygotsky has shown how the child's thinking develops. Linguistic puberty, reached in about the twelfth year, forms a dividing line between child and adult.

Adult language learning is made needlessly artificial by the use of drills and exercises which force the student to lie. Only by talking factually will teachers and students use undistorted language. Students reciting memorized dialogues are not engaged in language

behaviour, since no originality or creativity is involved. The student cannot use the elements of a dialogue as part of his active linguistic corpus unless those elements are drilled as separate units, though certain formulas may be memorized and drilled as such. Teachers and textbook writers often fail to distinguish between concrete and abstract sentences in both drills and tests. The use of the former makes it possible to eliminate from the earliest stage the confusing and tedious technique of translation.

Interest comes not only from the native language but from the target language itself. Course materials should not be based solely on contrastive analysis between the target and the native languages. A student often tries to create his own structures on the basis of previous contact with the target language. The important contrasts a student has to master are those inherent in the system of the target language.

The teacher or textbook writer must maximally break down the linguist's prescription into discrete elements and order these into a pedagogically effective sequence.

With adults, but not children, the attention needs to be focused, at some point in the presentation, on the new element itself in isolation from the rest of the sentence.

Pronunciation checks of the unit to be drilled must be made beforehand and during the drills. 'Vitalization' of a linguistic unit is essential and suggestions are made as to how this should be done.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

69-224 Cole, Leo R. The psychology of language learning and audio-visual techniques. *Modern Languages* (London), **49**, 4 (1968), 166-71.

The question whether visuals or mother-tongue equivalents, or a combination of both, should be used for the acquisition of meaning points to the need for further clarification from language learning psychology. The visual cannot be considered as a simple intermediary between the mother tongue and the foreign language. We need to know more about subvocal translation, and how it is related to concept formation. [The

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author considers the distinction between learning the motor and organizational skills and learning the semantic skills. He discusses the phasing of techniques in an audio-visual presentation.]

The radical differences between audio-visual and audio-lingual courses, especially in the emphases accorded to use of visuals or translation procedures, suggest that there is disagreement among psychologists and teachers as to how meaning is most effectively acquired.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

69-225 Pickett, G. D. A comparison of translation and blank-filling as testing techniques. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 1 (1968), 21-6.

The author describes an attempt to discover whether blank-filling or translation is the better means of testing linguistic ability. He deals with possible objections to the standard he used—the average mark per pupil gained over a half-year for classroom work. The procedure involved the construction of two tests, the identical answers to which were obtainable in one test by blank-filling and in the other by translation. The subjects were French-speaking Africans. Scores for the translation test were much nearer the half-year result than those for the blank-filling test.

Blank-filling cuts down the risk of making mistakes and tends to cover up the differences between the best and the worst examinees. Much time and paper would be needed to test all the features of the written language by blank-filling.

TEACHER TRAINING

69-226 Mackey, William F. Practice teaching: models and modules. *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **62**, 3 (1968), 94-100.

The article outlines some of the general characteristics of practice teaching for training language teachers and gives an account of recent

improvements, particularly by using videotape. This saves time, as the trainee need no longer observe whole lessons but can make a systematic examination of different types of techniques. Lessons given by the trainee will be taped and criticized by the trainee himself, a group of his fellow students and the teacher trainer. Most of the tapes can finally be erased and re-used but sections can be preserved, made into montages, transferred to film, and copied for future use.

69-227 Mackey, William F. The new technology of teacher training. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 1 (1968), 10-14.

Television is taking the place of classroom observation, and records made on videotape are revolutionizing teacher-training techniques.

[The author describes the premises, personnel, and equipment needed. The premises should consist of a teaching-studio, a control room, and a screening-theatre. The control panel is operated by an experienced teacher trainer.]

The process is less time-consuming and more economical than class visits and videotaped lessons share the permanence of documents.

69-228 Rainsbury, Robert C. An evaluation of the use of videotape in a teacher-training program. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), **2**, 2 (1967), 93-106.

Class observation and practice teaching are more effective if videotape is used. [The author lists the advantages and disadvantages of videotape, and describes its use on a training course for teachers of English as a foreign language. Detail of the set-up and procedure is given. An analysis is made of the answers to a questionnaire on various points.]

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- 69-229 Wardhaugh, Ronald.** Linguistics, psychology and pedagogy: trinity or unity? *English Teachers' Magazine* (Tokyo), 17, 5 (1968), 36-40 and 30.

The training of language teachers involves linguistic, psychological and educational variables and by studying their relationship in the past it may be possible to discover what this should become in the future. A convenient division of teacher training may be made into the prelinguistic, linguistic and contemporary periods which show (1) a latinate model for all languages with emphasis on association of ideas and over-learning, grammar-translation techniques and reading and writing rather than speaking, (2) emphasis shifted to *parole*, a more objective study of language, a more experimental psychological approach, the advent of language laboratories and teaching machines, (3) a great change in linguistics as a discipline and in psychology in the last decade, with the result that the linguistic method of teaching is now under attack [Roberts, Politzer, Bull, and Chomsky are cited]. While a new set of axioms is being formulated, actual teaching innovations are occurring in the classrooms. Gradually theory and practice will merge and a new unity will be found. Meanwhile many younger teachers feel insecure. They find the linguistic method unacceptable and consequently the method does not work for them. Trainers of new teachers will have to help them form a set of beliefs which will enable them to grow and change as the theoretical advances in linguistics, psychology and pedagogy continue.

TEACHING METHODS

- 69-230 Chromečka, Julius.** Zur Typologie und Gestaltung oraler Struktur- und Dialogübungen. [On typology and form of oral structure and dialogue exercises.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 2 (1968), 66-75.

A rational system of oral exercises is essential to develop fluency in a foreign language. Imitative exercises enable the student to hear acoustic details accurately. Structural exercises enable him to pro-

gress towards the production of accurate sentence patterns. Conversation guided by dialogues helps to make such patterns automatic so that they can be used in free speech, which is the goal of language learning. Principles for the formation of oral structural exercises and dialogues are considered in detail with illustrations in German. The currently popular 'question-and-answer' technique is criticized because it provides the pupil with too much assistance and a continually passive role. It is suggested that the teacher make a statement and ask the pupil to comment in surprise, anger, doubt, etc., or to introduce a given skeleton comment into his speech. Dialogue practice must not only be logically presented in graded steps but must also cover the frequency and variability of usage of structures in everyday life.

69-231 Jernudd, Björn H. Is self-instructional language teaching profitable? *IRAL* (Heidelberg) 6, 4 (1968), 349-60.

The cost of self-instruction and traditional teaching in Swedish secondary schools is carefully examined, particularly for foreign-language courses. The advantages and disadvantages of both methods are listed, together with the psychological factors involved. Installation and running costs of language laboratories are noted and the cost of producing self-instructional language-teaching materials. Additional problems are foreseen, such as how many teacher-pupil contact hours must supplement self-instruction in order to motivate the pupils, and aims other than merely language learning. Within the limit of costs, it is concluded that self-instructional teaching is profitable. Over-all consequences would seem to reinforce profitability.

69-232 Just, F. P. and S. J. Scott. The fallacy of teaching from within. *Babel* (Melbourne), 4, 1 (1968), 2-4.

Neither direct-method devotees nor 'audio-linguists' are really able to work *within* the foreign language; that is, without translation. It is pedagogically inefficient to work exclusively within the foreign

language and such a procedure is educationally undesirable. Translation occurs whenever the learner (or teacher) fails to engender a new notional category by means of a situation or an illustration. This is why linguists and teachers have traditionally considered dictionaries and word-lists as indispensable tools. Many foreign sememes have morphemic cognates which the 'audio-linguist' should ignore if he is to keep faith with his principles. Reading and listening, writing and speaking will eventually be practised without conscious translation but the ability to detach and analyse sememes and to move from one morphemic structure to another must be a more valuable and lasting acquisition than a blind 'response' to foreign 'stimuli'.

69-233 **Sdun, Winfried.** Über Fernunterricht und Fernstudium in der Bundesrepublik. [Teaching and studying by correspondence in the Federal Republic of Germany.] *Deutschunterricht für Ausländer* (Munich), **17**, 6 (1967), 165-79.

A definition of instruction by correspondence, as opposed to self-instruction, is given. In Germany correspondence colleges are relatively new, and almost all of some 200 that exist in the Federal Republic are private business enterprises. Their appeal is mainly directed to people who want to acquire specialized knowledge not offered by schools or who want to qualify for university entrance. Efforts are at present made to clarify their educational and legal status.

Despite shortcomings, this method of studying can lead to good results for a student with sufficient initiative who chooses his course carefully. Before he enters into any agreement he should know as much as possible about the course; in particular, he should take a good look at the teaching material offered and find out exactly how his work is going to be checked and supervised. [Examples of methods of communication between college and student.]

In his discussion of teaching material the author concentrates on what is offered for language correspondence courses. He defines the instruction letter and quotes an expert on how it should be composed and what results it should aim at. Ideally it should be written in a

personal style that encourages the student; it is also important to supply him with the right amount of work at the right intervals. Audio-visual aids are recommended, but should be supplemented by analytical methods of teaching.

In conclusion, the work of the Deutsches Institut für Fernstudien at the University of Tübingen is reviewed.

CLASS METHODS

69-234 Chromečka, Julius. Double-choice dialogues. *English-Teaching Forum* (Washington DC), 6, 4 (1968), 11-13.

Sentence patterns as training units for foreign-language teaching have recently been much in use, but as early as possible transition should be made from isolated series of sentences to larger units. Dialogue exercises enable the student to select a particular sentence or phrase according to the given cue sentence. Question-and-answer sentences restrict the student to monosyllabic or full-sentence answers to a question provided by the teacher. Examples are given of the way in which a cue remark by the teacher can provoke a response from the student using a predetermined positive or negative phrase. The aim is to keep the language practised in class as near as possible to real communication.

69-235 Frey, Herschel J. Audio-lingual teaching and the pattern drill. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 52, 6 (1968), 349-55.

The audio-lingual habit theory implies the acquisition of oral language skills through practice based on repetition and an analogy function. The cognitive code-learning theory finds that pattern drills focus on surface features but do not allow the student to exploit his inherent linguistic abilities. The two theories need not be mutually exclusive and many teachers at present incorporate features of both. There is disagreement regarding the exact function of pattern drills but several clear types have emerged: repetition drills, item substitution, trans-

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formation, translation. Drills can be an effective teaching device but can also lead to monotony if a good pace and sufficient variety are not maintained. The semantic and verbal content of each drill item must be familiar to the student and the sentence must not be so long as to violate the student's memory span. The most serious limitation of the pattern drill is that it does not represent speech. It is without a natural context. All that can be expected is that drills will teach the phonological component and certain of the grammatical features which comprise the more easily manipulated closed systems of the language. A gap has to be bridged from drills to natural speech and it is therefore wise to ensure that drills are natural.

69-236 Khvan, V. Использование занимательных материалов при обучении русскому языку. [The use of entertaining material in the teaching of Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 6 (1968), 19-21.

Types, characteristics and uses of cartoons in language teaching are outlined on the basis of experimental work.

Cartoons embody a speech situation, have an emotional appeal through their humour, produce an immediate reaction, and are therefore easily remembered. Their length and content may be varied to suit the age range of the pupils; they may portray one self-contained situation or a series of situations. To preserve original expressiveness and freshness, such cartoons should not be adapted and each class should work with different material. During the initial presentation of a cartoon the picture depicting the climax and the text referring to it must coincide, to produce the fullest possible impact.

Dialogues based on the text of such anecdotes and retelling the story are expedient techniques in the training of speech habits. Reading the text of the cartoons, after listening and talking, is to be viewed as an obligatory stage in the development of language skills. In initial stages of language learning writing should be done by short-term memorizing and subsequent checking from the text. The time devoted to teaching language skills by cartoons depends on the level of the pupils' linguistic development.

- 69-237 Iliewa, Anna.** Arbeit mit Sprechmustern. [Teaching with patterns.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 2 (1968), 76-84.

Practising common speech patterns is one way of using the few hours available for language teaching as economically as possible. A pattern sentence is composed of phonetic, grammatical and lexical factors. [Each of these is demonstrated in specimen sentences.] Later such sentences will be combined, the speech tempo will be increased and questions on texts and everyday life will be answered so that pattern practice will find its natural development in the pupil's increasing powers of expression.

- 69-238 Politzer, Robert L.** The role and place of the explanation in the pattern drill. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 6, 4 (1968), 315-31.

Tests were carried out to ascertain whether the timing or even non-introduction of the rule being tested in pattern drills would provide a significant variable in learning. Six pattern drill tests were administered to four French and four Spanish classes in the same American high school. Results indicated that the differences between the classes were more important than the differences of treatment. The general patterning of rankings of treatment does, however, allow the conclusion that an early introduction of the explanation seems to be a more effective treatment than its postponement or omission.

- 69-239 Scarborough, David R.** The contextualised drill fallacy. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 6, 2/3 (1968/9), 85-7.

Present opinion favours contextualized drills for language laboratory work as a means of introducing natural language behaviour. Such drills are certainly more interesting but they remain bound up by the nature of drills; they are strictly controlled and therefore artificial. A realistic view of language competence as the acquisition of rules for sentence formation means that the student offers no proof of having acquired a productive rule until given a chance to produce something

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personal and unpredictable. Drilling should not be carried on to the detriment of the follow-up session.

69-240 Shalit, Dan. The three main types of oral drill practice. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 13, (1968), 3-6.

Many shy pupils gain confidence through choral speaking, and it is unwise to seek individual responses too early. A teacher who knows his pupils will realize which are participating. Full class chorus is most appropriate where only one sentence type is being practised.

Chorus practice with class division is a good way of practising question and answer, affirmative and negative, and changes of tense. Meaningful, situational practice is harder to contrive with three groups than two.

Individual responses should be postponed until after an initial period of choral practice.

Immediate speech should not be demanded in the initial stages of chorus drilling on a new sentence pattern. The tempo should be increased as the class becomes readier to respond. Boredom can be staved off by changing the type of stimulus.

69-241 Vaughan-Rees, M. H. The fictitious family. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 2 (1969), 124-8.

[The author examines ways in which the background and activities of an imaginary family can be exploited for language-teaching purposes. He gives examples of exercise-book summaries and substitution tables.]

TEACHING AIDS

69-242 Harding, David H. The foreign 'assistant' and audio-visual methods. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 6, 2/3 (1968/9), 93-4.

Both assistant and school may be disappointed if it is assumed that a young student, who may not have completed his first degree and is

untrained as a teacher, is the ideal person to perform the difficult task of teaching conversation. There are, however, many opportunities for the student to co-operate with the normal language teacher, but these will require careful preparation and co-operation. The two must work together as a team in the classroom. The assistant can (a) take over the role of the teacher for one section of the lesson, (b) act a dialogue with the teacher in front of the class, (c) lead the class in oral responses. [Suggestions expanded and illustrated.] A student on teaching practice may also be able to fulfil these roles, and the experience of co-operating with a vigorous teacher, in control of the class, and using audio-visual methods, could be very salutary for a teacher in training.

VISUAL AIDS

69-243 Heise, Ursula. Das Bild im Lesebuch. Überblick über die Arbeitsmöglichkeiten. [Illustrations in readers. A review of their possible uses.] *Deutschunterricht* (Stuttgart), **20**, 6 (1968), 106-15.

Although nowadays pictures in general have a strong appeal, it is, if anything, more difficult than before for the pupil to develop any appreciation of works of art. Reproductions of paintings in a reader do at least provide him with material to exercise his critical and observational powers and also to develop a proper sense of artistic values. [The author gives a detailed list of what work can be done with pictures in class at the various grades.]

The pupil's powers of expression, both oral and written, can be improved by describing the pictures in his reader. The aim of written description should be a rounded-off essay rather than an enumeration of details. [Examples of suitable and unsuitable pictures given.] In the earlier grades simple, 'narrative' pictures should be taken, but later the pictures to be described ought to be more complex; the analysis might concentrate on the colours, shapes, structure, etc., in a painting. Landscapes and portraits are particularly suitable here.

Pictures in readers are rarely a direct illustration of a text. Usually

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there is some agreement of subject, form, style, or period between them and the text, and the pupils can compare the 'language' of the picture with that of the text. Pictures accompanied by a description or interpretation provide valuable material for comparison and analysis. Comparing different pictures is another way in which illustrations may be used. Readers should also contain pictures that are included not as discussion material but simply for their evocative powers.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

69-244 Allen, Robert L. A reassessment of the role of the language laboratory. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 3, 1 (1968), 49-58.

For the recognition of syntactic patterns, the student needs practice in listening to conversations spoken at a normal speed, with no pauses for repetition. These could be played by one record-player or tape-recorder to the whole class. For the production of such patterns, the student needs practice in making up sentences in response to cues, and also immediate reinforcement. In checking his own responses against correct answers given orally, he may not recognize that the correct answers differ from his own in some significant detail. Perhaps the responses should be written down and corrected visually. Where there are only two answers to choose from, the student can guess the right answer. No equipment other than a record-player or tape-recorder (or an assistant) is needed to give practice in the recognition of sounds. A student needs recording facilities only for practice in the production of sounds and intonation contours, but such practice gives little help to students who are not born mimics. A trained teacher must listen to the student's pronunciation and help him to correct it. Many language programmes make little or no provision for direct help with specific problems while students are practising individually, or for performance before competent critics afterwards. Many language-laboratory supervisors are not qualified to comment on pronunciation. Monitoring is at best a scattered spot-checking. Each student can be heard for only a minute or two during the period.

[The author describes a system for listening to everything a student records and for returning recorded comment.] For a good laboratory specific materials (lessons) are needed, together with one tape-recorder and one or more record-players, as well as records and tapes. The material should have preferably been recorded by native speakers who are also trained language teachers. If electronic equipment must be used, there should be magnetic disc recordings. Assistant teachers should be available to listen to and comment on the student's recordings.

69-245 Chomei, Toshiko and Bob Houlihan. An experimental study of the effectiveness of a newly devised short-delay playback system in a language laboratory. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 6, 2/3 (1968/9), 59-72.

Although many language teachers do not favour playback in the language laboratory because they feel that the student is not capable of evaluating his answers or that the delay will bore the student and waste time, experiment has shown that even a long-delay playback can achieve better results. An echo-type tape-recorder enabled students to hear their words (not long sentences) with a delay of one and a half seconds. With this device students more rapidly achieved satisfaction but the standard of their performance was not higher.

The new type of short-delay playback operates automatically without the student having to waste time rewinding the tape. [Mechanical details are given of the system.] Students will still differ in their ability to notice errors but the teacher is enabled to correct during playback instead of having to interrupt recordings.

A test carried out on three groups of Japanese students learning English showed superior performance in the short-delay playback group. It provided the students with motivation and developed the habit of responding quickly.

- 69-246 Denham, Patricia.** Remedial work with adults in the language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 1 (1968), 39-43.

The author describes remedial work undertaken with fairly advanced pre-university students speaking various home languages. The language laboratory was used mainly to drill verbs and auxiliaries, the material being first presented in the classroom. Attention was given to content. Pre-laboratory training in self-evaluation was necessary. Boredom was minimized by allowing students to by-pass in playback the exercises they could perform accurately, and also by varying the tempo of the drills and including short unfinished dialogues.

- 69-247 Smith, R. W.** Closed circuit television in the language laboratory. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2,801 (January 24, 1969), 253.

In spite of modern technical equipment, language teaching is still often approached in an old-fashioned way. Machines break down the cohesion of a class. They present us with a means of mastering facts at a time when authoritarianism is less acceptable and received ideas are devalued. Outside the laboratory, language is seen increasingly as an organic structure and the process of learning comes to be regarded as an adaptation of the individual to a linguistic environment. The pupil needs to be able to react emotionally to a situation. Closed-circuit television installed in Cardiff College of Education provides such an opportunity, using videotape. A portion of film is shown, first with sound track, and again silently, the students providing the commentary. Special videotapes could provide recorded questions to accompany the second showing. The system adapts to a wide range of linguistic achievement, each student being able to work to his own level. Mechanical conditioning can be left behind and there is scope for intelligent adaptation to a meaningful linguistic environment.

PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

- 69-248 Ratté, Elizabeth M.** Foreign language and the elementary school language arts program. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 1 (1968), 80-5.

The process of learning a second language can be an effective means of helping a child to become aware of the nature of language and hence to increase his understanding and appreciation of English.

The ability to listen with discrimination is of prime importance to the acquisition of all language skills. Early classroom activities in a foreign language will include (a) distinguishing between sounds in pairs or in a series, (b) response to oral directions at first by action, later by speaking, (c) giving summaries of what has been said by teacher or tape, (d) dictation. Dramatization—that is, dialogues learned by heart and acted by members of the class—and work with puppets provide means for the exchange of conversation.

An important phase of language experience is the connexion between thought, attitudes and language. An understanding of another way of thinking and acting, of different values, is essential for future citizens.

TERTIARY STUDENTS

- 69-249 Schaarschuh, Fritz-J.** Zur Arbeit mit dem Wörterbuch im fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht an Hochschulen. [Work with dictionaries in teaching foreign languages to technical students.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **12**, 10 (1968), 425-8.

It takes between forty and sixty seconds to look up a word in a dictionary and a translator may spend 19-28 per cent of his time in dictionary searches. It is therefore advisable that technical-school students should be taught how to make the best use of dictionaries. It is fatal to assume that a dictionary is a faultless source of information. Each has its limits [some are listed]. A dictionary of 50,000 head-words or more is considered essential for technical students and this should

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be of fairly recent publication, unless it is considered a standard work. The construction and prefaces of the dictionary should be studied [a typical pattern for an article is quoted] and the value of a general dictionary for specialized work noted. Two hours should be sufficient for this kind of introduction. The use of a monolingual dictionary can be taught before the end of the course. Speed and accuracy in discovering meaning are the two most important aims. [Individual articles follow in this periodical on the use of a dictionary for technical Russian, English, and French.]

ADULT STUDENTS

69-250 Hegedüs, Joseph. Intensive foreign language courses for adults in Hungary. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington), **10**, 5 (1968), 5.

In 1967 the Jozsef Attila Free University started an experimental full-time language course for engineers and managers who already possessed some knowledge of their target language. The course lasted nine weeks for eight hours daily, the aim being to give fluent conversational ability and understanding of newspaper articles without the use of a dictionary. It was concluded that a new series of materials would have to be developed for such a course; that grammar was indispensable for adults, providing a skeleton to which readings, conversation drills, etc., could be attached; and that it should be taught on a contrastive basis. Lesson subject-matter should be in self-contained units connected by grammatical points or similarity of topic.

DEAF CHILDREN

69-251 Van Mierlo, Harry. Challenges for linguistics. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **21** (1968), 535-42.

Teachers of deaf children generally know little about linguistics and many are anxious to know more about the language they teach. The first language for all deaf children is one of gesture, and normal

speech is a second language. The most accessible area for research is in phonology, but the contribution of the linguist ends with an analysis of the process in the hearing child and the analysis of the different determinants for phonemic distinction in the deaf child. The construction of a teaching device is an educational matter.

In the field of semantics, the teacher presents the linguist with the problem of teaching abstractions. If the development of meaning acquisition is not linguistically systematized, then extra-linguistic means only can be used. Grammar is normally explained by semantic explicitation, but the scientific discipline of organization and codification involves linguistics. Parents will use proper names for themselves and a baby in preference to pronouns. This kind of semantic explicitation is maintained with deaf children for much longer than for hearing children and constitutes a 'third language' for the deaf. Teachers will oppose the third language. A psychological analysis of the problem is needed but this will leave a gap in the methodology of the teacher. It must be filled by linguistic knowledge about the grammatic features of the language.

IMMIGRANTS

69-252 Turk, Margaret. An experiment in home teaching of English. *English for Immigrants* (London), 2, 1 (1968), 24-5.

In the Sparkbrook district of Birmingham there is a gradual integration of different nationalities into communities. This was stimulated in the first place by international evenings and children's play centres started over a year ago. Then, as doctors were finding difficulty in communicating with Asian patients, a group of housewives, teachers and students organized some English teaching for Indian and Pakistani mothers. Through their school-age children these groups were enlarged. They meet in the immigrants' homes and some are attached to clinics, helping to teach mothers attending the clinics. The volunteer teachers meet to evaluate their experience and new members can seek guidance from experienced language teachers.

SPEECH

- 69-253 Bessmertny, A. Z.** Некоторые вопросы обучения пониманию речи на слух. [Some problems of teaching aural comprehension.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 6 (1967), 30-7.

All the parts of an utterance do not have the same information value; for example, a word whose meaning can be predicted is less significant from the point of view of understanding. Language is characterized by redundancy: for instance, the reduction of the English sentence 'Do you see those traffic lights?' to 'See those traffic lights?'. Redundancy is important, for during these moments of lower communicative content (including the conversational tags *sort of, what I mean is*) the listener gains time to register information already conveyed and anticipate what is coming. Exercises in conversation with a high density of informative words are difficult and cannot claim to be truly conversational.

In the domain of phonology, discrimination of sounds is the basic principle, and exercises introducing words with sounds likely to be confused by a native speaker are useful.

The utility of dictation is emphasized, not only as spelling practice, but also as a comprehension exercise (for homophones such as *hair-hare* or quasi-homophones such as *close-clothes*), and as audio-retention drill. It is important that dictation should contain some new and interesting information.

- 69-254 Higgins, J. J.** The speed factor in language learning. *Språk og Språkundervisning* (Oslo), 4, 2 (1968), 7-9.

All adult speakers are accustomed to a certain rate in using the receptive and productive motor-perceptual (auditory, visual, articulatory, and manual), organizational (analytical and generative) and situational (semantic) skills. Motivational problems in learning a new language may be partly due to the frustration of having to perform at a slower rate than seems natural. The pressure of this frustration increases interference from the first language. Research is needed to

find out more about practice. By collecting and comparing data it could be discovered why speeds are set as they are and how the learner can attain them.

PRONUNCIATION

69-255 Scholes, Robert J. The categorization of synthetic speech sounds as a predictive device in language teaching. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 2, 2 (1967), 1-16.

The subjects were presented with tape-recordings of synthetic vowel sounds, which they categorized either by associating each with a vowel sound of their own language or by giving the response 'None'. [The author describes how the sounds were generated and given to the 200 subjects, who were speakers of thirty languages other than English.] Five groups of American-English speakers were also presented with the same sounds under forced-choice conditions. [Detailed analysis of the presentation and results is given.] Separate categorizations of English were made by Russian, Greek, Persian and Korean speakers. This experiment showed that the English categorization of the synthetic vowels by non-native speakers paralleled their native-language categorization in so far as the native-language categories had phonetically similar English counterparts. [Errors of Greek, Persian, Russian and Korean speakers of English are predicted.]

GRAMMAR

69-256 Modern Language Association. Grammar in language teaching. *Modern Languages* (London), 49, 3 (1968), 108-15.

[This discussion was largely based on a paper written by Dr H. H. Stern for the Standing Consultative Committee of the MLA.]

Grammar is divided into four categories: (a) the grammatical competence of the native speaker; (b) new grammatical theories and descriptions; (c) the selection offered to the language learner;

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(d) explanations and systematizations which are summarized in teaching grammars. [Methods of teaching grammar are briefly reviewed and notes on recent linguistic studies appended.]

VOCABULARY

69-257 **Hohmann, Heinz-Otto.** Sprachschatzarbeit im neusprachlichen Unterricht der Oberstufe. [Vocabulary work in the teaching of modern languages during the last three years of grammar school.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 15, 3 (1968), 236-242.

The official policy for modern-language teaching in West German grammar schools is that in the last three years of the course the pupil should be immersed in a study of the thought and culture of the countries whose languages he is learning. This involves extensive reading and discussion of difficult texts, which is very time-consuming. Nevertheless it is imperative that the pupil should continue to devote time to increasing his vocabulary.

The author outlines one particular method of learning vocabulary whereby the pupil practises words and expressions in context, always using the foreign language. The teacher selects a previously discussed extract of no more than twenty printed lines and specifies the material to be memorized. The pupils copy the text on to the left-hand page of an exercise book, substituting numbers in brackets for the expressions to be learned. The latter are copied, preceded by corresponding numbers, on the right-hand page. [One English and one French example given.] The complete extract on the left-hand page is read through several times, filling in the gaps by looking at the right-hand page. Next the right-hand page is covered and the gaps are filled in from memory. Thirdly, the left-hand side is covered and the expressions on the right are put into a context loosely based on the original. This method cannot be applied to poetic or dramatic texts.

69-258 Leisinger, Fritz. Zur Worterschließung im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [The elucidation of new words in the teaching of foreign languages.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 15, 3 (1968), 255-8.

A pupil's progress in a foreign language depends to a large extent on the acquiring of more and more hitherto unknown words, which it is the teacher's task to elucidate. This is very often attempted by using visual aids or by defining the word in the foreign language. These methods are quite successful in giving the pupil a sense of achievement by making him feel that he has grasped a word. However, even if the foreign word is defined without using his own language, there is a danger that he might associate the new word with a concept he acquired in his mother tongue rather than with the concept that belongs to the foreign word. As the example of *schwimmen* (French: *nager* and *flotter*; English: *to swim* and *to float*) shows, the two concepts are not always the same. Therefore, when explaining a new word the teacher should make certain to delineate the concept behind it and compare it with the corresponding concept in the mother tongue, especially where the two differ.

Sometimes, particularly with younger pupils, concepts in the mother tongue are still rather vague, so a comparison is not only useful from the point of view of improving their foreign-language skills but it also aids their intellectual development in general.

One method of delineating concepts consists in using a group of words representing similar concepts in various meaningful, illuminating contexts and asking the pupils questions phrased to elicit answers that exemplify the differences between the concepts. [Example, again using *to swim* and *to float*.]

Enlarging the pupils' vocabulary in a systematic manner, always linking a new word with the correct concept behind it, is a necessary and profitable exercise. There is not enough time for the teacher to wait till important words occur in the pupils' reading; they should be deliberately introduced.

69-259 Steinführer, Adolf. Das Wörterverzeichnis als Arbeitsmittel zur Verbesserung der Rechtschreibleistungen. [The word-list as a tool for improving spelling.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **12**, 7/8 (1968), 260-6.

Word-lists can be helpful if pupils can see their value and understand that only if persistent use is made of them can they be helpful. They must also recognize that by looking up words thoughtfully and carefully confidence in spelling will be increased. Only successful experience will convince pupils of the value of such lists. Difficulties can arise with beginners in Russian who are not sure of the alphabet or who are not sufficiently sure in their pronunciation to choose the right initial letters under which to find their word. They may also have grammatical difficulties in finding the root form from an inflected form of the word. Often it is the pupils whose spelling is weakest who will be least willing to make use of word-lists. Analysis has shown the following factors affecting the difficulty of various words: length, consonant clusters, deviation from mother-tongue sound system, infrequency of use, habits of speech and writing in the mother tongue. Practice in looking up words may be given against a stop-watch. Experiment has shown that time taken may be reduced from twenty to twelve seconds. Considerable progress was made by pupils taught to make use of word-lists, though it was more difficult to persuade them to use such lists independently in homework. The most capable pupils derived most benefit from and made most frequent use of the lists.

Special attention should be given to known difficulties of spelling, the use of the soft sign, notes on assimilation, notes on the difference in spelling of international words between German and Russian, additional consideration of some declined forms.

READING

69-260 Kerr, Alan. Reading treatments in an audio-lingual approach. *Babel* (Melbourne), 4, 1 (1968), 5-7.

In an audio-lingual approach to a language the treatment of reading should approximate to the treatments used in the teaching of a language as a mother tongue. There will be a choice between *intensive* and *extensive* treatment. Assuming that browsing or extensive reading will be done outside the class, about six types remain: (1) reading aloud, (2) study assessment for facts, (3) reading with retelling, (4) reading with translation, (5) intensive reading with word and structure drill, etc., (6) appreciation. [The categories are elaborated.]

TEACHING OF LITERATURE

69-261 Baird, Alexander. The treatment of poetry. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 2 (1969), 166-73.

The study of poetry even in a foreign language is concerned with the emotional development. Poetry must be related to the pupil's experience. New structures and vocabulary should not be taught during the poetry lesson nor should a poem be used as material on which to base oral or written composition. The teacher should be able to make it vivid to the class. [Taking the first stanza of Field's *The Night Wind* and Wordsworth's *Solitary Reaper*, the author describes how he would present them to a class of children and a class of university students respectively.]

ENGLISH

69-262 Bennett, R. C. Oral tradition and the teaching of Shakespeare. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 1 (1968), 56-9.

In a society with a predominantly oral tradition it is more appropriate for students to study Shakespeare than Dickens, George Eliot, or Shaw. They should be taught to read Shakespeare. The problem of

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unusual sentence structure can be overcome by careful choice of passages. As for vocabulary, word-by-word translation and reading and defining kill the thought of a passage. Shakespeare's blank verse is easier to read aloud than most prose. [Examples.] The teacher can expect his students to enjoy the exercise of verbal skills in the vernacular.

69-263 Heaton, James. Selection and editing for beginning literature. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 1 (1968), 60-4.

In preparing materials for the teaching of English literature, concentration has traditionally been on vocabulary and length, ignoring grammatical constructions and content. Another approach is to grade by subject-matter and style.

In Africa it is best to start with African literature in English. Gradually English and European stories can be introduced parallel to the African ones. Most available translations of African folk materials have been prepared for the native speaker of English and need editing for African pupils. Additional simple material can be added with advantage. Such enrichment will depend on the meaning of the redundant elements having already been taught.

69-264 Kaplan, Robert B. Contrastive grammar: teaching composition to the Chinese student. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), **3**, 1 (1968), 1-13.

Foreign students with a good command of the phonology and syntax of English do not always succeed at American universities. Experiments in contrastive rhetoric are proving helpful. The methods of linking syntactic elements into longer units of discourse are derived from the linguistic structure of the language, and this is defined by and defines the culture of the community. Linguistic principles operate at the level of higher units of discourse in the same way as at lower. Little is known about the linguistic and rhetorical structures of other languages. Some traditions are very old, e.g. the Chinese.

[The author explains the structure of the traditional civil service essay in China, and compares it with American essay structures. He gives several examples in full.] The Chinese eight-legged essay is an important part of literary tradition and influences the writing of essays in English. Students can be systematically instructed in the rhetorical structure of English, which is a logical extension of its syntactic structure.

69-265 Kurtz, Laura S. A comparison of the use of prepositions in Swahili and English and suggestions for teaching English prepositions. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), 2, 2 (1967), 25-35.

Speakers of Swahili find difficulty in using English prepositions. Swahili has fewer prepositions than English. Learning problems are connected with the degree of precision, the association of prepositions with verbs, separability, and directionals. [The author gives examples of errors and of the use of preposition-like morphemes in Swahili. She gives specimen lesson plans for the introduction of *pointing at* and the teaching of *in*.]

69-266 Low, C. Teaching English to the science sixth. *English Bulletin* (Hong Kong), 5, 4 (1968), 12-17.

Since it has become accepted that time will be given to 'cultural' subjects in the sixth form, it is necessary to form an English course relevant to the students' needs and interests. Science students may have greater confidence in the factual, and the world of imaginative literature may be set aside and emphasis placed on reality of thought, personal attitudes, environment, etc. Fluency of expression should be developed by asking students to give short talks, perhaps on current social problems. Tape-recorders allow seniors to hear plays and poems read aloud, and folk music is often set to well-known ballads and can be sung by the students if they wish to join in. Faster reading can be encouraged by use of a stop-watch. If wide and discriminating reading became a matter of accepted routine standards within the whole range of English, work would improve.

- 69-267 Marshall, K. J.** Teaching English to the blind. *English Bulletin* (Hong Kong), 5, 4 (1968), 1-2.

Work in the Ebenezer School for the Blind, Kong Hong, is based on the principle that listening and speaking shall be the basis of language learning. There is no reading and writing of English until the end of the second year, when the children write in English braille for the first time. Much additional lesson preparation is needed to cater for the blind child's special needs. A variety of objects is needed for the children to touch. New names, phrases and sentence patterns must be learned in a meaningful situation. Games and activities are used in which the children are active participants. Headsets connected to a special tape-recorder enable tapes to be heard without disturbance from external noise. English is a passport in Hong Kong to further training and education and the oral-aural approach provides a better learning opportunity for blind children.

- 69-268 Oyetunji, Deji.** English in the primary school in Nigeria. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 2, 1 (1968), 17-23.

The best foundation for acquiring linguistic skill is a sound knowledge of the mother tongue. Some Nigerian families insist on their children speaking English from infancy even though the general home background is not consistently English-speaking. This encourages the use of English as a medium of communication from the first year of primary school. Children who have to learn to read and write concurrently in the mother tongue and in English frequently do not grasp what they are reading. Words similar to the eye in mother tongue and foreign language are confused and may be understood in the wrong language. A child should be taught to speak well, develop a taste for reading widely and intelligently, and write with confidence in his mother tongue. Once these skills are acquired, they become assets in all mental operations involving words. The mother tongue should be used throughout West Africa for the first two years of primary school. In the third year English should be taught orally for

two terms and reading and writing introduced in the third. English can then be used as a medium in the fourth, fifth and sixth years and the mother tongue reintroduced as a separate subject at secondary school.

69-269 **Randall, David.** The present perfect tense through Brazilian eyes. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), November (1968), 17-22.

The degree of difficulty of any teaching item depends to a large extent on the existence of an equivalent item in the student's mother tongue (in this case Portuguese). A strong emphasis on the present aspect of the present perfect tense will not be sufficient to eradicate Portuguese students' common mistakes. The incompatibility of the present perfect with adverbial expressions of definite past time must be stressed. When the period of time during which an action or event took place continues up to the moment of speaking, present perfect is normally used, contrasting again with the *pretérito perfeito* in Portuguese. Questions asking whether something has happened up to the moment of speaking use present perfect in English and the *pretérito perfeito* in Portuguese. In practice there are certain situations in English where either present perfect or past simple may be used and Portuguese has only one equivalent in either case. It is important also to remember that a question containing the present perfect is often answered with the past simple, anticipating a further question. Present perfect with *just* can be rendered in Portuguese by either the *pretérito perfeito* or the *presente*. [Further notes show the use of the present perfect continuous, which in certain cases corresponds to the *passado composto*.] Present perfect occurs in subordinate clauses expressing or implying future time. In this type of sentence Portuguese uses either a tense of the subjunctive or a personal infinitive. American usage differs slightly from British on some of these points. [Examples throughout.]

69-270 Sharrocks, W. D. Aids to the teaching of English. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 2, 1 (1968), 43-6.

The teacher himself and any objects or actions used to demonstrate meaning in the classroom are visual aids to language teaching and may be all the more effective because of their immediacy and adaptability to the learner's environment and experience. This applies equally to the teacher as 'audio-aid'. Primary-school children do not seem to respond as positively to a disembodied voice on tape as they do to a live voice. Hence the value of short improvisations dramatizing scenes from a story. The range of three-dimensional aids is limited and full use should be made of simple blackboard sketches and flash cards. Expensive machines are frequently out of the question in Nigerian schools but a tape-recorder is a relatively economical aid.

Full use of school and class libraries is to be encouraged. Mechanical aids to faster reading, currently in use in the University of Ibadan Reading Centre, are a clear indication of the lack of attention to controlled and purposeful silent reading in schools.

69-271 Sherrington, Richard. The use of photographic stills: a format for English language programmes. *Educational Television International* (London), 2, 4 (1969), 324-6.

In Ethiopia, teaching English as a second language has high priority as English becomes the medium of instruction for academic subjects in the secondary school. Ethiopian Schools Television Service devotes one third of its time to English. Only a small studio is available and no videotape. There is little money to spend, camera crews change daily. English actors for live scenes are difficult to find. Programmes have to be adapted for elementary pupils and for more sophisticated older pupils.

Folk tales, in which Ethiopia is rich, provided an inexpensive format for English language lessons, being within the linguistic and cultural reference of most students. Stories were narrated to an accompaniment of simple drawings. The story took 8-10 minutes of

each programme, the rest of the time being devoted to giving practice in the structure illustrated in the story. Folk tales, however, are rarely collected in published form which students can read, and, as one of the aims is to encourage students to read, it was decided to write an original serial story concerned with the adventures of two Ethiopian schoolchildren, each part ending with a cliff-hanger. This could be adapted to the technical facilities and staff available. It was a basis for graded language patterns and for reading exercises practising the structures, and introduced students to the kind of reading material available to them in libraries at school and at foreign institutes.

69-272 Stevens, E. K. Progress in transition-class teaching in Sarawak. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 146-50.

The transition class provides a year of concentrated English for pupils about to enter a government secondary school. Several months are spent eliminating errors in pronunciation and structure before anything is done about vocabulary-building. [The author lists the commonest difficulties in structure and pronunciation met with in such a class. She then describes an oral technique for dealing with these, and for introducing the required vocabulary.] Strict control is necessary in remedial work. The habitual mistakes must be avoided and close attention given to pronunciation. Detailed blueprint lessons are provided. The children re-learn, in English, all they have learnt of other subjects. The lessons improve the teachers' own English. There is also a teachers' manual, and films showing teachers at work. Radio lessons form part of the programme. There are books for reference and silent reading. Marked improvement has resulted from this system.

- 69-273 Ubalde, Dolores T.** Securing coherence through sequence-signals. *Philippine Journal for Language Teaching* (Quezon City), Special Issue 1 (1966), 1-54.

Filipinos have difficulty in writing compositions in English which are clear and coherent. One of the causes may be the absence of sequence signals in Filipino or lack of correspondence between the sequence signals of the two languages. [A comparative analysis of Filipino and English sentences reveals differences in personal pronouns and the absence of the substitute verb *do*, and is followed by advice on how to secure coherence within the sentence, between sentences in a paragraph, and between paragraphs. Instructional materials, practice exercises, and a lesson plan follow.]

- 69-274 Ure, Jean M.** The mother tongue and the other tongue. *Ghana Teachers' Journal* (Saltpond), 60 (1968), 38-49.

Many people in Ghana know more than one language. A language is learnt as part of the response to a social need. Adaptability contributes most to bilingual or multilingual talent. Different patterns of language behaviour (registers) are appropriate to different circumstances. Students should be helped to acquire a set of useful registers, and in a multilingual society an adult register range will draw on more than one language. Where two languages complement each other, this fact should be taken into account in planning. There should not only be courses in English and Ghanaian languages, but a 'bridge course' in which students are made aware of a range of language varieties. Knowing a register means knowing what kind of language to expect from others, and what they will expect from us. Some registers are firmly established, others not. Practice in numerous registers is of value to writers. The bridge course must be a practical one. Registers are needed for different personal relationships, social purposes, and kinds of subject-matter.

FRENCH

69-275 Clark, John. French in the primary school. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **6**, 2/3 (1968/69), 96-9.

Primary-school French teaching requires an aim other than simply preparation for secondary-school work. A survey of ten-year-olds learning French showed a majority hoping to use the language for holidays, writing letters and reading magazines, and learning a little about France. Long-term teaching aims are to provide the country with linguists and the highest aim is to widen the pupil's horizons and enrich his personality.

For psychological reasons the contemporary oral approach to language learning is most effective at primary schools. The age of puberty and inhibition is not the best time to ask pupils to make foreign sounds and to express themselves in a foreign language. If they have been introduced to this at an earlier age it is easier for them to continue. French in the primary school will succeed or fail in so far as it integrates with other activities in the primary curriculum and conforms to the modern educational principles of concept development and the growth of personality.

Teacher shortage is the central problem at present. Patience, enthusiasm, money and massive in-service training are needed, as well as local language centres to co-ordinate work and organize courses and exchange schemes.

GERMAN

69-276 Bodi, Leslie. Cultural background material in German. *Babel* (Melbourne), **4**, 2 (1968), 8-10.

It is necessary to know what background knowledge a student of German should acquire and how this can be tested and examined. Some basic information must be given on the geography of German-speaking parts of Europe, information about outstanding German, Swiss and Austrian writers, musicians, politicians and scientists, some historical facts, mainly from the nineteenth and

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twentieth centuries, and some knowledge of social and political conditions in present-day East and West Germany, Austria and Switzerland. This kind of study will be done in English. In addition students can be asked to investigate individual topics demanding a more intensive study in one field of civilization or literature. University departments of German could help teachers to introduce better schemes for background teaching by providing up-to-date bibliographies and organizing seminars on relevant subjects.

RUSSIAN *See also abstract 69-236.*

69-277 Kann, M. Из опыта программирования обучения глагольному управлению. [An experiment in programmed teaching of the government of verbs.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 6 (1968), 46-53.

A minimum number of constructions governed by the instrumental case was compiled, based on the frequency of occurrence in speech and on the incidence of particular types of mistake made by Azerbaijan students in learning these constructions in Russian.

In their experimental programme, after several exercises and tests to ensure a thorough knowledge of the formation of the instrumental case endings, information was imparted concerning which prepositions of place normally combine with verbs expressing location and a substitution exercise set to test the lexical meanings of the prepositions. The use of *между* was considered when used with one noun in the singular or two nouns in the singular or plural, followed by one practice and one test exercise. Certain prepositions were taught in combination with verbs of motion to express the idea of motion in a place. Care was taken to distinguish between this idea and that of motion towards a place in connexion with two particular prepositions. [Multiple-choice questions follow, in which possible answers contained typical errors, covering the range of points so far taught.] The use of the instrumental as an agent was presented in contrast to its use with *с*, with a list of verbs most frequently found in these contexts. Exercises followed where the key often contained the

reasons for the answers required, as this technique offered supplementary training in understanding the correct use of the material. Multiple-choice testing on this topic was effected by teaching machines.

69-278 Mukhanov, K. Связь морфологии и синтаксиса на уроках русского языка. [The connexion between morphology and syntax in teaching Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 4 (1968), 24-6.

Attention to the syntactic links between words in sentence construction during the process of learning to speak Russian has a threefold advantage. It underlines the view that word combinations are the basis of the correlation between the main grammatical categories, provides an opportunity for the practical study of this correlation, and helps to eradicate students' errors arising from the inability to define the limits of possible word combinations. This inability leads to so-called lexical-stylistic errors.

To teach the language in the form of units, rather than isolated words occurring in paradigms, encourages appreciation of the three syntactic categories of word combinations: agreement, government and parataxis. As a result of teaching Azerbaijan students Russian, it was found that the noun could be successfully taught according to these three categories, particularly in combination with adjectives, pronouns, ordinal numbers and verbs in the past tense.

To give effective results, practical habits of language usage, based on composite speech units, must simultaneously accompany the study of individual elements of grammar. Carefully chosen word combinations, embodied in sentences, are expedient in defining specific meanings, in teaching the various forms of words and in assisting the successful assimilation of the most difficult grammatical material.

Models of word combinations should be introduced with a view to providing an opportunity to construct sentences for oral practice and to observing how they subsequently develop in the basic structure of sentences.

[On the basis of experimental lessons involving typical word

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combinations in Russian a scheme of oral and written work is recommended together with an order of presentation.]

69-279 Skalkin, V. Подстановочные упражнения и их использование при обучении русскому языку иностранцев. [Substitution exercises and their use in teaching Russian to foreigners.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1968), 48-54.

Two basic types of substitution exercise exist: those consisting of a fixed component in combination with variable components and those composed of variable components only. These may combine to produce the type where fixed and variable components alternate.

The principle of combining components for substitution permits of two possibilities. First, direct substitution, where components of any one column may be directly combined with any of those from an adjacent column. This type of exercise, valuable in initial stages of language learning, promotes phrase-building with restricted lexis and teaches the sentence structure typical of the language being studied. Second, selective substitution, which demands a skill in the choice of components in order to effect desired combinations and so produce a sensible statement. According to the three types of error which may occur, affecting sense, grammar or style, the same number of subdivisions in selective substitution exercises are possible.

The number of combinations in any one frame should be restricted to reduce the likelihood of mechanical substitution by the student. The type of component used—besides verbal—may consist of pictorial illustration or of blanks to be filled, both methods requiring the selection of suitable words to satisfy the demands of adjoining components. Exercises may also be presented orally or consist of an oral variable amongst written components. Linguistic relationships between substitution components may be of a structural, situational or semantic nature and, since these characteristics are not mutually exclusive, they may appear in the same column of a frame.

The use of contextual sequences is favoured by existing textbooks, particularly in the teaching of dialogue speech. Speech patterns are

arranged in the form of substitution exercises in a given sequence and constitute a complete text.

[Over-all aims, order of presentation—repetition, substitution, transformation, combination—and a variety in the type of exercise presented must guide the use of substitution exercises.]

Most of the types of exercise discussed are illustrated in tabular form.

69-280 Veyrenc, Jacques. La syntaxe contradictoire du présent perfectif en russe moderne. [The contradictory syntax of the present perfective in modern Russian.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **62**, 3 (1968), 72-81.

The syntax of the present perfective in modern Russian is normally taught to beginners in two forms; first the form corresponding to the simple future, and later, during the reading of literary texts, the entirely different use corresponding to the past continuous. This reveals the contradiction which is at the heart of the aspect-time relationship, whose solution might throw some light on the organization of the whole system. [The present perfective is studied in conversation, in written texts and in apophthegms and is found to occur chiefly in speech and in apophthegms.]