

Language learning and teaching

GENERALIA

- 68-17 Redman, Vere.** Harold E. Palmer—pioneer teacher of modern languages. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 10-16.

The author, who was personally acquainted with Palmer, gives an outline of his life and activities (especially in Japan) and calls attention to his practical teaching experience, versatility, and industry.

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

- 68-18 Cole, Leo R.** Applied linguistics and the problem of meaning. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **4**, 3 (1967), 107-10.

In language courses with a bias towards the application of audio-lingual precepts derived from linguistic research, there is a tendency to organize material according to the dictates of the sound-system of a language. If one takes complexity of structure as a starting-point for grading material it would seem impossible to organize content as a natural sequence of structures dictated by the situations of external reality.

Emphasis on the concept of intraverbal behaviour has led to neglect of paralinguistic and psychological features of meaning so essential to the language teacher. The semantic aspects of the meaning-acquisition problem are vital if a sound theoretical basis for language learning is to be established. [The author discusses the relationship of language to reality, and stresses the active role of the listener in determining how much meaning linguistic structures convey.]

- 68–19 Fleming, G., E. Spálený and J. Peprník.** The didactic organisation of pictorial reality in new language teaching media. *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **14**, 1 (1967), 160–174.

The major factor in the elimination of mother-tongue interference in the early stages of language-learning is the combination of word and effective pictorial illustration in audio-visual materials. The information content of each visual needs to be selected so as to correspond with the aims of a particular lesson and the visual needs to be composed so as to communicate that information with the minimum of ambiguity.

Photographs and pictures not primarily composed with language-teaching in mind must in general be inferior, for this purpose, to the properly designed drawing because they fail to select from the total picture shown only those elements absolutely necessary to convey the desired information. These elements must be determined by the verbal constituent; any emotional or artistic content must be restricted to serve only the didactic purpose of the drawing.

The principles governing the composition of unambiguous language-teaching visuals are *causality* (i.e. cause, effect and consequence in the situation portrayed), *parallelism* (positive comparisons) and *contrast* (negative comparisons). The use of ‘speech-balloons’ containing printed words or symbols should not be necessary to clarify the utterances they represent; balloons should be avoided by proper use of the representation of gesture and kinesic body movement. The use of colour coding (for example to convey a time sense) is also unnecessary if the notion can be conveyed in any other way visually; and if any use of the mother-tongue has to be made to clarify the significance of a visual, then the authors feel that the point of having a visual is defeated.

The authors believe it impossible to devise a totally unambiguous coding system for visuals giving a one-to-one correspondence between symbol and speech element: indeed such a system may well impede learning. They conclude that further research is needed to establish what the acceptable balance is between the short narrative or descrip-

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tive text (in which dialogue is present but does not predominate) and a restricted number of essential grammatical points to be taught so as to allow the optimal functioning of the visual medium with the minimum of ambiguity.

68–20 Hellmich, Harald. Inhalt und Gestaltung von Lehrbüchern für den Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Content and construction of text-books for teaching foreign languages.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 4, 3 (1967), 129–142.

The theory and practice of foreign-language teaching has undergone a revolution in the last twenty-five years and textbooks need to be adapted to new methods, to programmed learning, and to technical aids, with oral proficiency as a first goal in learning.

German textbooks traditionally had a section of reading passages, a section on points of grammar for explanation, exercises and a vocabulary. An effort is now being made to include special exercises to train oral facility.

Russian textbooks differ from German books in that a relatively high number of reading passages are immediately followed by grammatical material, and exercises for class and homework, which makes the books easier to work with. A new system has been developed in a beginner's Russian textbook which has no translated vocabulary, only brief grammatical notes and material to be used for reading and writing in the texts. A plentiful supply of material for oral exercises appears in the teacher's handbook. Precise teaching aims are evident in the new textbooks and an introduction to the social and cultural life of the speakers of the language in question is given.

Several basic considerations must be borne in mind before a textbook is constructed—who is going to use it (independent students, adults, or school children, people with previous experience of linguistics or language learning, beginners or advanced learners), whether students require a general basic grounding or need the language for a specific career. [The needs of these various categories are then listed.] Finally the provision of a two-language vocabulary is

considered, its value as preliminary teaching in the use of a dictionary, and the advantages of mother-tongue to foreign language vocabulary arranged according to the themes of the textbook.

68-21 Lord, R. and R. Tilford. Modern languages in a technological university. *Modern Languages* (London), **48**, 2 (1967), 70-4.

In planning the University of Surrey BSc course in Linguistic and Regional Studies, the traditional honours courses in modern languages and the work of some European schools of interpreters were examined. A course was evolved on the lines of the traditional British university course but incorporating specialist translation, descriptive and contrastive linguistics, a current-affairs seminar based on intensive reading of foreign newspapers and periodicals, and a course in stylistics which attempted to cover the whole range of foreign languages from poetry to parliamentary reports. Literature was replaced by regional studies except for optional, but examinable, courses on the theatre or modern novel.

Systematic terminological studies, as practised at the interpreters' schools, were also incorporated into the course.

68-22 Wright, A. The role of the artist in the production of visual materials for language teaching. *Educational Sciences, an International Journal* (New York), **1**, 3 (1967), 139-49.

The aim of this paper is to show the number of considerations behind the choice, production and use of visual media in the audio-visual foreign language course.

The paper stresses the importance of constant reference to these considerations and indicates the paucity of objective knowledge in this field, with consequent difficulties for the artist in his attempt to produce optimum results. From his experience as an artist in the Nuffield Foundation Foreign Languages Teaching Materials Project at Leeds, the author analyses the production problem in terms of six factors: (1) the nature of the learner, (2) the learning environment,

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(3) the subject-matter and intended response, (4) the nature and use of available visual media, (5) the need for educational responsibility and (6) the economics of production.

68-23 Zierer, Ernesto. Information theory and language learning. *Philippine Journal for Language Teaching* (Quezon City), 3, 3/4 (1965), 53-4.

[From a summary of a lecture given to teachers at the University of the Philippines.] An effective method of language teaching should take into account the degree of phonemic, morphological, syntactical and idiomatic complexity of the foreign language. A powerful instrument of measuring this degree is information theory.

In foreign-language learning the speaker has to repeat many identical or analogous mental processes. Therefore it may seem convenient to work out a proper algorithm to solve language learning problems of the same type. It is possible, given a problem, to draw up all the different possible ways of solving it. If one tries out each possible selection by asking yes/no questions, one will arrive at a certain number of end-points for each possible algorithm, and, furthermore, each yes/no decision represents a mental operation. Averaging the number of operations necessary to arrive at each solution, the best algorithm will be the one involving the smallest number of operations. The beneficial aspect of this method lies in the fact that the student may be given the opportunity to elaborate his own algorithms, and to discover the most adequate method to solve problems of a specific type.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

68-24 Pimsleur, Paul. A memory schedule. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), 51, 2 (1967), 73-9.

When learning linguistic items by a process of spaced repetition, it is necessary to recall the word at that moment when it still has a good chance (say 60 per cent) of being remembered. A word might be

repeated five seconds after its first occurrence, but thereafter the interval between repetitions should get progressively longer. This principle argues against massing large numbers of repetitions when the word is first presented.

After each repetition of a word, it is remembered for a progressively longer period of time. An ideal, mathematically exact schedule of retention-loss can be depicted in the form of a graph, and this can serve as a guide to the timings of spaced repetitions.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

68-25 Leutenegger, Ralph R., Theodore H. Mueller and Irving R. Wershow. Auditory factors in foreign language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **49**, 1 (1965), 22-31.

A study to measure the auditory factors active in adult English-speaking beginners learning foreign languages was made. Seashore Measures of Musical Talents were employed in conjunction with intelligence of aptitude tests on 283 students of French and 177 students of Spanish at the University of Florida. Multiple regression techniques were applied to the data obtained from nine subtests. Fifteen variables were selected of which only Tonal Memory and Total Reading Score were found significant in predicting foreign-language acquisition, measured against the criteria of students' average scores in tests of achievement which formed part of their language courses.

68-26 Seelye, H. Ned. Field notes on cross-cultural testing. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **16**, 1/2 (1966), 77-85.

The author gives examples of questions used experimentally during the development of an objective test of the cross-cultural awareness of Americans after residence in Guatemala. He discusses the variables of age, social class, sex, and residence, as well as problems of administering and validating the questionnaire. The questions were

pre-tested with both Guatemalan and American groups. The variables of sex and social class were controlled.

68-27 Upshur, J. A. Cross-cultural testing: what to test. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 16, 3/4 (1966), 183-96.

Measures of language ability have limited power to predict who will be able to function effectively in a new linguistic and cultural environment. There is a need for test instruments and procedures which can measure cultural understanding reliably. [The author takes Seelye's article *Field notes on cross-cultural testing* as a starting-point (abstract 68-26).] In cross-cultural testing one is concerned with whether the 'cultural stranger' can behave (non-linguistically) in such a manner that his intended meanings are understood by members of the foreign culture community, and whether he understands their intended meanings when he observes their behaviour or its products. The preparation of such tests involves considerable work. Four aims of testing are recognized: the user wishes to (a) determine how an individual would perform in situations of which the test gives a sample, (b) predict an individual's future performance, (c) estimate an individual's present status on some variable external to the test, (d) infer the degree to which the individual possesses some quality. [The author suggests how these aims can be translated into prescriptions for test construction.]

In some instances the 'cultural stranger' will understand and behave correctly in the foreign culture community by virtue of similarities between his own and the target culture.

A description of the universe of test items must include: (1) the observed behaviour (or behavioural products) to be understood, and (2) the patterns to be appropriately performed. [The author offers a detailed criticism of Seelye's views on Guatemalan and American cultural patterns, and states some further problems of cultural testing which remain to be solved.]

TEACHING METHODS

- 68-28 Bland, Merton and Evan R. Keislar.** A self-controlled audio-lingual program for children. *French Review* (Baltimore), **40**, 2 (1966), 266-76.

Programmed instructional materials can be used by elementary school children to teach themselves to understand and speak a foreign language. This can be accomplished by using the Language Master machine where visual and aural elements can be presented together on single cards. Flexibility is one of the great merits of this system of instruction since frames can be arranged in any order and repeated as often as desired. One limitation of the approach is that there is no automatic correction of the child's speech. The methods described should be used in conjunction with other techniques.

[The authors present statistical data resulting from a carefully controlled experiment involving 125 short sentences on different cards. The objectives, apparatus, content, instructional procedure, criterion tests, and results of the programme are described in detail.]

- 68-29 Bottiglia, William F.** Humanities in French at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **49**, 6 (1965), 354-8.

The four-year Humanities in French programme, started in 1953 for BSc students at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, is described. (These students always spend at least 20 per cent of their time on humanities and social sciences, but may now volunteer to study in French.) Admission to the course is by written test and interview; reading and listening comprehension are considered important.

Classes include analysis of set texts in French and in English, discussion being an important element. [Reading lists typical of the lists used until 1963 are given.] Enrolments have increased, dropout has decreased, and secondary school preparation of students has improved.

Since 1963 a programme entailing concentration on certain periods

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has been devised providing for comparative–contrastive analysis [the new reading lists are given]; the department finds this scheme an improvement and is satisfied that it is providing a broadly liberal education.

68–30 Cole, Leo R. Some basic aspects of audio-visual and audio-lingual theory and technique. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 4, 1 (1966), 28–31.

The strict application of carefully worked out audio-lingual techniques can lead to boredom. The adoption of a set manner of procedure in repetition drills is partly responsible. Stereotyped modes of operation in the laboratory can lead to lack of interest. A variety of drills and spaced repetition help to overcome this complaint. Newness, uncertainty, and surprise can be elements which help the learning process, but these are often absent in the latest techniques.

Meaning is not something to be attached beforehand to the foreign structures to be taught. This lowers motivation. Meaning is something discovered and abstracted from structures.

Too rigid an application of audio-visual and audio-lingual precepts often excludes personal involvement of the student through bodily movement. This motor aspect of language learning, often part of the so-called direct method, should be given more emphasis. Exploitation of material and active follow-up, in which the teacher remains the focal point, are extremely important and audio-visual aids should be adapted to the needs of the individual teacher.

68–31 Cole, Leo R. The visual element and the problem of meaning in language learning. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 4, 2 (1967), 84–7.

The picture may have several useful functions in audio-lingual and audio-visual methods but just how far does it impart meaning to a given sound sequence? The notion that a picture in itself imparts meaning and helps the language learning process is highly questionable. This ‘semantic’ argument should not be used to justify the

value of the visual element. Pictures are ambiguous since they can always evoke several different verbal reactions. Besides definition in terms of external visual stimuli, meaning is also something acquired through intraverbal association.

To associate one structure with one picture is to assume an illusory one-to-one correspondence between the two. The problem of understanding is not solved, as Guberina and some other audio-visual exponents suppose, by means of pictures. There exist varied degrees of understanding: meaning is something which grows through experience of dealing with a vast number of different structures. Rather than as a messenger of meaning the chief function of the picture may well be to serve as an interesting framework for oral interchange.

68-32 Cole, Roger L. Foreign language in the residence hall. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **49**, 6 (1965), 362-3.

The multiple audio distribution system (MAD) in halls of residence at Western Michigan University is described and its use and possible development by the foreign language department are outlined. The department hopes to determine how far MAD can function as a language laboratory does, how it can be co-ordinated with the laboratory and complement its work. Authentic material for foreign language programmes may be acquired in addition to the commercial tapes now used. Multiple audio and video distribution is the ultimate aim.

68-33 Dwyer, Francis M., Jr. Adapting visual illustration for effective learning. *Harvard Education Review*, **37**, 2 (1967), 250-63.

[Dwyer is not satisfied that previous research has produced comprehensive comparative study of the relative effectiveness of all the different varieties of projected and non-projected visual illustrations used in oral instruction and different kinds of learning tasks at all levels of teaching.]

Further investigation is needed to establish: the specific media that

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would best be employed to achieve specific objectives; which details must be conveyed for effective learning of specific lessons; the optimum diagrammatic representation of detail for maximum learning efficiency; to what extent learning is more effective where the student receives instruction individually and can control the length of time he can look at visuals; the effectiveness of colour in photographs and drawings.

[Dwyer describes a controlled experiment conducted with 108 medical students at Pennsylvania State University.] The aim was to test the relative effectiveness of visuals with: (a) abstract linear presentation; (b) detailed shaded drawing presentation; (c) realistic photographic representation; (d) a purely oral presentation of detail.

Results suggested that simple abstract linear presentation is more effective than photographic in promoting the learning of patterns, structures and positions, and the transfer of learning.

For referents of terms, the development of new views or the re-organization of material already mastered by the student, an oral presentation seemed more effective.

68-34 Estarellas, Juan and Timothy F. Regan. Effects of teaching sounds and letters simultaneously at the very beginning of a basic foreign language course. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 16, 3/4 (1966), 173-82.

The trend is now to introduce reading and writing fairly soon. A major objection to teaching all the skills from the beginning is that the orthography creates native language phonetic associations which lead to strong interference. This, however, depends on the language and on the teaching process. Linguistic and psychological evidence suggests that we should start on the phonemic and graphemic rather than the morphological and syntactical levels.

A pilot project was established to find out whether the teaching simultaneously of sounds and letters helps or hinders the student's progress, and whether the sounds and letters could be learnt by self-instructional procedures. [Details of the project.]

The class consisted of forty pupils (with an average age of thirteen)

beginning Spanish. The control group began with tapes and classroom presentation of audio-lingual materials, conventional classroom procedure and laboratory sessions, but no written text. The experimental group was given written programmed materials co-ordinated with audio tape-recordings. [Some details of the problems given.] The experimental group did a little better than the control group in an achievement test given after three weeks. The experimental group then embarked on the audio-lingual materials, and soon overtook the control group in learning dialogues by heart. Experimental group performance was also better in listening comprehension.

The simultaneous presentation of sounds and letters accelerated the pupils' progress in the meaningful learning of long and short utterances. The 'redundancy' provided by the materials overcame interference of native-language habits. All four skills can successfully be taught at the same time.

68-35 Fleming, Gerald. Language teaching with cartoons. *Babel* (Melbourne), 2, 2 (1966), 22-3.

The 8 mm. film-loop for showing in the British Technicolor 800 E projector is a powerful teaching aid. The cartoon commands attention. The coloured animated teaching loop is four minutes in length. It aids visual retention and helps towards thinking in the foreign language and speaking fluently. It can be used in a flexible way to suit varying methodological considerations. Visual stimuli, if attractive, can draw the pupil out of himself instead of allowing him to withdraw into himself as often happens in the case of a written text. The humorous content also helps to make learning less dull and humanizes the teacher-pupil relationship.

68-36 Gelman, Manuel. Dictation for testing and teaching. *Babel* (Melbourne), 3, 1, (1967), 9-11.

Dictation is considered by many to be the best single way of testing general command of a foreign language, but its value as a method of *teaching* is seriously underestimated.

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Recently oral skills have gained supremacy. Since dictation successfully motivates careful listening and helps develop ability in aural comprehension it naturally acquires high status. It can be used from the first year of study and should lend support at appropriate moments to whatever form the teaching may take. It can reinforce (for French) agreement of adjectives, use of *de* and *des*, vocabulary for a specific subject, words of a song, certain spelling rules, pronunciation, recapitulation of a reading lesson, composition, by retelling a dictated passage, translation, by dictation of a similar passage, and on a different level it can rouse a class on a tiring day, give the teacher and class a respite from vigorous oral work, spur on effort and produce satisfaction if the passage is within the comprehension of the pupils. The subject-matter can contribute to knowledge of the foreign country. [Three passages are quoted as examples of dictation used to provide background knowledge of French history, revise a specific grammar point and give an amusing anecdote, serving first for aural comprehension and subsequently for conversation and composition.]

68-37 Gorosch, Max. Teaching by telephone: an experiment in language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 2/3 (1967), 123-39.

It has proved difficult to find in Sweden expert teachers of practical subjects who also have the necessary proficiency in English to teach in one of the developing countries where SIDA organizes courses with English as the medium for instruction. Short intensive training in English did not prove adequate. It was therefore decided to create a reserve of such teachers and a new learning model was devised which allowed teachers to continue in their posts in Swedish schools and increase their knowledge of English while waiting for a posting overseas. The course consisted of (a) three months of study at home under the direction of a teacher (by telephone), (b) a one-week course in Stockholm, (c) a four-week stay in England. [The method of the 'telephone course' is explained in detail.] There were no great technical difficulties in arranging the course. A model lesson to eliminate waste of time on the telephone was developed. Long-distance testing proved feasible. Students found the telephone call a

stimulus. Standards of pronunciation were uneven but corrections by telephone served as extended language laboratory work. The final test was given after three months.

68-38 Howatt, Anthony. The cyclical principle in foreign language programming. *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology* (London), 4, 3 (1967), 185-90.

Programmed learning may be seen as a practical set of techniques for the construction of self-study teaching materials, or as a way of structuring teaching operations according to empirically validated principles of a theory of learning. What we require is not so much a technology of language teaching as an understanding of language and language learning.

Items in the inventory of a descriptive grammar can supply the 'teaching points' of a course. But a descriptive approach concentrates on problems of form, to the neglect of meaning, and a language cannot be accounted for in terms of an inventory of classified items.

If Chomsky's views are applied to language teaching, stress should be placed on the need to provide adequate opportunities for the pupil to listen to and interpret meaningful language and to provide adequate opportunities for the production of spontaneous speech.

We have to decide whether we should regard the grading of a language course in terms of withholding information, or in terms of our predictions and expectations of the learners' developing control of complete language systems. The descriptive approach leads us to interpret language teaching as essentially a *linear* operation, involving the gradual accumulation of sets of verbal habits. The learner is deliberately over-extended by the application of teaching techniques that preserve the illusion of high-level performance by precluding the production of spontaneous speech.

The learner's contribution is essentially the formation and testing of language. In the initial stages we must make considerable use of familiar contexts and situations, proper names, cognate lexical items, and syntactic forms that operate in similar ways in the mother tongue and the foreign language. A programme continues by gradually

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introducing new data. A cyclical principle of continual reconnection with that data operates. In order to test as well as to form hypotheses, the learner must be given opportunities to produce spontaneous language.

If we try to structure the input to the learner so that his natural hypothesis-forming mechanism may operate well, and to try to judge the output according to an empirically validated acquisition timetable which would allow us to interpret error and provide remedial practice, we must admit that we have little research evidence independent of specific teaching operations on which we could base an acquisition time-table. We must also examine the consequences of re-admitting the learner as an active agent in the learning process.

68-39 Newmark, Peter. Some objections to the 'new' language teaching. *Adult Education* (London), **40**, 1 (1967), 7-15 and 18.

In his critique of claims for the structural method of language teaching at all levels of education from primary to adult, the author suggests that some contemporary materials and methods are educationally limited and culturally impoverished. He advocates the inclusion of art, love, sex, religion and politics in a language textbook since life does not consist only of physical situations. Some translation is essential for the acquisition of passive vocabulary and selections of first-rate literature are essential in language courses in schools.

Professional men who need a language for their job may benefit from a structural course with much repetition, before approaching their specialized vocabulary.

68-40 Politzer, Robert L. The effective use of the structure drill. *French Review* (Baltimore), **38**, 5 (1965), 674-80.

Reports a detailed comparison of the procedures used in covering the same material by two teachers in the classroom. Each, independently, improvised pattern drills to reinforce learning. As results secured by one teacher appeared markedly better than those of the other, an

attempt was made to formulate hypotheses as to the nature of superior teaching. These included variety, the use of 'fading cues', revision of previously learned material, use of a semantic frame of reference, permission of students' self-expression, use of writing and flexibility of procedure. Such hypotheses, based on observation, need to be tested by controlled experiment.

68-41 Riddell, Jennie. A plan for French studies in colleges of education. *Education for Teaching* (London), 71 (1966), 37-41.

Students in training should aim at oral fluency and correctness of expression and should be given much opportunity to improve their aural comprehension. Background knowledge of the French way of life is all-important: how the family lives, geographical and economic features, institutions, art, and culture form the basis of studies. Rather than classical literary texts, the student should centre his reading on twentieth-century authors and on French children's literature. Visits to France and student exchanges can be very profitable. [The author mentions specific writers, books, and items which would form the basis for a course which aims to make the teacher 'widely versed in the ways of France'.]

68-42 Rivers, Wilga M. Teaching sounds. *French Review* (Baltimore), 40, 6 (1967), 802-9.

Wrong sounds and intonations can sometimes make it more difficult to understand the foreign speaker than his lack of knowledge of vocabulary and language structure.

The teacher must understand the physical aspects of sound production and use his knowledge to enable the student to correct faulty productions. The role of stress and intonation, often difficult for a non-native foreign-language teacher, must be carefully explained. A young child will enjoy the sheer mimicry of sound learning and is less self-conscious than an adult, who will want to know why he has to learn these new techniques. Chorus repetition will allow many to get away with indifferent pronunciation.

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More adult pupils may appreciate some direct instruction on the differences between the phonological systems of the native language and the foreign language. Sounds when learnt in isolation should be produced first in simple phrases and then in longer sentences and these should be naturally phrased utterances. Tape-recorder and language laboratory will play a very effective role in this work.

Some willing students may prove to be to some degree tone-deaf or deficient in tonal memory, but may be taught to read and write, and with care and relaxation to become reasonably proficient in conversation.

Regular practice is essential at all stages if oral progress is to be maintained. Even advanced students can profit from regular reading from a script where full attention is being paid to articulation and intonation.

68-43 Rocha E Silva, M. I. and C. B. Ferster. An experiment in teaching a second language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 4, 2 (1966), 85-113.

A partly automatic method is described by which students can rapidly be taught the basic structure of German. The method is derived from an analysis of verbal behaviour. The predominant procedure is matching to sample. A teaching machine is used which presents the pupil with textual, visual or auditory stimuli, separately and mixed, and he has to choose among written and pictorial responses.

While following this programme, the student is both listening and reading. The purpose nevertheless is to lead him both to speak and write. The theory was being examined that it was sufficient for a pupil to understand and read a foreign language well to enable him to start speaking it and writing. No attempt was made to correct inaccuracies of pronunciation or intonation. The more competent a listener the student became the more he was able to correct himself. After each lesson and at the end of the programme, the teacher questioned the student in order to test the range of his knowledge at that particular moment.

Eight volunteers, students from seventeen to nineteen, followed the

course which involved fourteen to eighteen hours of work. The results: confirmed the initial hypothesis; showed the programme to be insufficient as a *sole* teaching instrument; suggested further study and application.

68-44 Stock, Heather. Students' opinions of the language laboratory. *Babel* (Melbourne), 2, 3 (1966), 24-7.

A research assistant in the Department of German in the University of Adelaide has attempted an assessment of the effectiveness of the language laboratory by subjective means, asking first-year university students who use it what they think of it. The tenor of their comments was influenced by the course they had been doing and their understanding of the purpose behind the laboratory.

All felt the laboratory work to have been helpful though in various degrees. Certain technical drawbacks were noted; drills were too fast for some and too slow for others. There was variety in appreciation of the programmes, some preferred the naturalness of dialogues while others wanted literary or background material. Almost all wished to continue using the laboratory in their second year, which gave valuable proof of its effectiveness.

68-45 Whiting, C. Experimental use of machines in the training of interpreters. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 5, 2/3 (1967), 141-4.

There are usually three stages in the training of an interpreter: (1) the enlarging of the student's vocabulary and mastering of technical expressions and idiomatic linguistic patterns; (2) the speeding-up of translation; (3) the increasing of ability to retain a large number of words and concepts before translation. Many teachers get no farther than stage (1).

A group of students, bilingual in German and English, who were taught by the author, could not get beyond a certain speed limit. As it was important to increase the speed of the students' reaction, a tachistoscope was used. A list of key words was drawn up, the words presented on the tachistoscope and the students' responses tape-

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recorded. An average increase of 25 per cent in speed of translation of both ordinary and technical texts was noted and the method is recommended for all trainers of interpreters.

68-46 Wright, N. P. The sixth form in the language laboratory. *Modern Languages* (London), **48**, 2 (1967), 77-80.

For sixth form pupils, the newness of the language laboratory has worn off, and its use can become casual and unproductive. Mechanical drilling will no longer be very acceptable and the laboratory can be better used for reference purposes. It can serve as a library extension with tapes of scenes from plays, talks from foreign broadcasts, anthologies of prose and verse, voices of famous people, and the teacher's personal commentaries on set books or background topics; on the language side, dictation exercises, answers to questions on passages heard on tape, and, for the best linguists, some oral précis and simultaneous translation.

It is important, however, that no work should be done in the language laboratory which could be done equally well elsewhere. It is too valuable an aid to be misused.

ENGLISH. *See also abstract 68-37*

68-47 Baird, Alexander. Language in the literature class. *Teaching English* (New Delhi), **9**, 2 (1966), 20-4.

The article is directed towards those situations where English language teaching at college level is accepted in principle but where the new teacher may nevertheless be regarded as an intruder.

Teaching English language at an advanced level requires tact, particularly if the students have studied only literature for some time and feel over-confident of their language knowledge. It may be useful to re-introduce language study by examining a text. The choice need not be limited at this level by vocabulary and the teacher can encourage his students to refer to a good dictionary. Structures can cause more difficulty and cannot be looked up. A battery of questions

will show whether structures have been understood and experience shows where mistakes are most likely to occur. The language teacher has the advantage in one field of literature—he is in a better position to comment on poetry, and to guide the rhythm and intonation of oral reading.

Both poetry and prose passages can be recorded and the students can listen several times first with a phonetic transcription and then with an orthographic text. This study should be integrated with a classroom critical examination of the text. A literature specialist may not be able to accept such treatment of literature, but the language teacher can help to clarify the linguistic difficulties which the literature specialist acknowledges but is unable to deal with. The students should gain a basic appreciation of the individuality of the phonetics and literature of the foreign language they are studying.

68-48 **Barnard, Geoffrey.** On supplementary readers. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 78-81.

Supplementary readers should provide a re-handling of patterns first acquired from the basic course, and new vocabulary whose meaning is made clear by context and/or illustration. The inclusion of word lists is harmful. Such readers should be easy—a revision or extension device. They should not be used for intensive reading, they should not be the subject of tests or examinations. Simplified texts are not true supplementary readers. The subject-matter should be interesting. There should be only a few copies of each book. Speed in reading is important. Supplementary readers can be home-made.

68-49 **Carroll, George R.** The battle for better reading. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 34-40.

An initial examination was made of the (Zambian) pupils' reading habits, which were reflected in poor written composition. The bad effect of gangster/sex stories on composition was shown. Quick reading without dictionaries was encouraged. The pupils were asked to fill in an assessment form for each book read. [Detail.] Certain

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books proved to be more popular than others. Reading-aloud periods were devoted to silent reading. The desirable effects of good reading-matter were visible in the pupils' writing. Confused ideas about reading were corrected.

Lists of books of proven suitability for particular forms should be drawn up. Local booksellers should be persuaded to stock a variety of titles. Experiments in extensive reading should be examined in order to establish their relevance to the teaching of English as a second language.

68-50 Clark, Eburn. The teaching of spoken English. *West African Journal of Education* (Ibadan), 10, 1 (1966), 11-13.

Correct use of voice is as vital as awareness of correct pronunciation or diction. Asking students to imitate sounds will rarely help and linguistic explanation brings awareness of problems but does not correct. The author has used paralinguistic sound to teach children to produce a vowel or consonant which is causing difficulty. Feeling the breath explosion with the hand can also help in the production of a correct sound. The School of Drama in the University of Ibadan has been offering courses to teachers on spoken English for the past two years. Student teachers find it difficult to teach children to fit thoughts expressively to words. Improvisations and oral composition built round the actions of one of the children help.

68-51 Congleton, J. Teaching English to immigrants. *NATE Bulletin* (Birmingham), 2, 3 (1965), 21-7.

The author examines and discusses the linguistic, social and psychological problems posed by the non-English-speaking immigrant, and suggests ways of tackling them.

Linguistically, the communicative aspect of speech is essential. A sound aural-oral foundation is crucial. The author stresses the teaching of words, as well as the identification of phonemic sounds, until a firm grasp of the speech structures of English has been attained.

In the case of young children, the infant school can provide the best pre-reading experiential background in the second language, but for the seven- to twelve-year-old child, the author advocates a reception centre to prepare the child for a 'readiness for reading' stage. Within the school community, withdrawal periods are suggested and remedial teaching with a 'situational approach' implemented by audio-visual-lingual aids as well as stress on the vocabulary essential for classroom work; for the older immigrant, a remedial centre and help from radio and television services.

Socially and psychologically, there are problems raised by culturally deprived environments, and since, basically, the immigrant is compelled to accept a different set of social and political values, care must be taken not to strip him of the dignity associated with identification with his own culture. Libraries should contain books in the language of the immigrant.

68-52 **Davies, Alan.** The English proficiency of overseas students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (London), **37**, 2 (1967), 165-74.

The article reports research on the language difficulties met by overseas students in Britain and on the construction of prognostic tests of English for assessing their ability to follow courses in British colleges and universities. A battery of seven tests of receptive skills, covering phonemic discrimination, interpretation of intonation, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, reading speed and grammar, was constructed and tried out on samples of 496 overseas students in Britain, 238 overseas students in their own countries and (as a control group) 267 native English-speaking students. As criteria of the validity of the battery, students' grades or examination results and teachers' estimates of their students' proficiency were used. Except in tests of listening comprehension, reliability coefficients were all above 0.85. Factor analysis suggested principal components of segmental listening, textual listening and a rather more diffuse one of reading comprehension. Comparative figures of performance on the tests showed that of ten home language subgroups, Semitic, Mediter-

ranean, West African and East/Central African students ranked lowest. Observation suggests that one proficiency standard in English may be accepted as adequate for success at varying academic levels of study in Britain, although this requires further experimentation.

- 68-53 Grech, Myra.** Anomalous finites and the language laboratory. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 44-53.

The author describes a remedial course for adult Europeans given in Australia. She classifies the students' errors and concentrates on the most frequent ones.

The first section of the course is concerned with the anomalous or special finites. Listing a number of common formal errors, she goes on to describe the general characteristics of such verbs. Drills are first given on the contracted forms, the students having tables of verbs in front of them. [Details of the drills are given.] Substitution and other exercises ensure knowledge of the finite and non-finite combinations. Then the negative, interrogative, and negative-interrogative forms of simple tenses are introduced. Question-tags follow, then questions expressed by intonation, then short answers.

The author deals with idiosyncrasies, mentioning *have, had better, have to, need, must, used to*, and *would* and *should*.

- 68-54 Guierre, L.** Ce si simple passif. [The 'easy' passive.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **61**, 1 (1967), 31-4.

A well-known function of the passive in English is to emphasize the object of the sentence by placing it first in a sentence. It is also used to avoid an impersonal subject. The relative claims of the initial object and the agent for the main stress have been debated.

When an active sentence is transformed into the passive the problem of retention of the complement agent always arises. The key is in the lexical value of the verb. Of the auxiliaries for the passive *to be* and *to get*, *to get* represents the dynamic aspect.

- 68-55 **Hill, L. A.** For the young teacher: pronunciation work. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 81-3.

Pronunciation is learnt largely by imitation. Teachers can improve their own pronunciation by listening to records and tapes. In teaching pronunciation, a standard should be aimed at which will make the students internationally intelligible. The teacher should concentrate on sound contrasts which are both essential and difficult. The method of teaching depends on the children's ages. Conscious controlled practice is necessary with older pupils. The teacher must find out what his pupils' difficulties are. The three stages in learning a new pronunciation are: (1) listening to sounds previously confused, and learning to hear the difference between them, (2) conscious practice, (3) practice and overpractice at home.

- 68-56 **Hockey, S. L.** Are spelling lessons effective? *West African Journal of Education* (Ibadan), **10**, 3 (1966), 126-30.

An experimental group of 500 West African children was provided with a book which was used as a reader during spelling-lesson periods for nine weeks. Instead of specific lessons on the spelling of words, they read the text, discussed it and wrote exercises on it. A control group of similar size was given spelling lessons, based on the words in the same book. An objective test was given at the end of the period. Results showed that spelling was learnt as well incidentally as through spelling lessons.

The method of teaching spelling informally also gave a much wider and more varied educational experience. The results also seem to confirm that children of less than average ability learn more easily 'by rote' than by 'insight'. Word-study devoid of elements of comprehension, pronunciation and connotation, or any element in which the use of a word is experienced, might produce a response which appears to be 'spelling ability', but would have little value in normal language situations. A lot of spelling is learnt outside lessons. Words correctly spelt in a formal test can be consistently misspelt in compositions. There is a personality factor in learning to spell.

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Work has been done on the early stages of learning to read and spell, but less on methods of continuing to teach these systematically. Children should only be set to learn to spell the words they need to use and those they do not know already. [The author gives a pattern for a week's spelling lessons.] Testing followed by study of the words is more effective than the reverse.

68-57 Hohmann, Heinz Otto. Die Erziehung zur Idiomatik im Englischunterricht der Mittelstufe. [Teaching idiom in English classes for the 12-14 year old.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 14, 3 (1967), 236-43.

English is probably the richest language in idiomatic expressions. 'Standard English' has almost come to mean idiomatic English.

Idioms belong in the first place to a student's passive vocabulary and will be acquired mainly from hearing his teacher use them. It is much more difficult to learn to build idiomatic expressions into the student's own speech. The learning of lists of idioms will be of little use and they will soon be forgotten. A student needs to understand clearly what an English idiom is—some tend to think of proverbs or vivid pictorial expressions instead of simply two or three words taking on a new meaning when put together. His attention needs to be drawn particularly to idiomatic language in a text, and the idioms must later be used by the student himself. [Detailed suggestions are given for making and using a collection of idioms.]

An understanding of idiomatic expression is basic to an understanding of the English language and culture. It demands discipline in the foreign user because nothing in an idiom can be changed without destroying the expression.

68-58 Knapp, Donald. Teaching 'parts of speech'. *TEFL* (Beirut), 1, 3 (1967), 1-2.

It is unlikely that learning the parts of speech will help pupils to use English but the words are used in examinations and drills and pupils must know their meanings. The author suggests: (1) that *definitions*

of parts of speech should not be taught, (2) that they should be introduced indirectly, (3) that only one should be taught until it is mastered, (4) that something the pupils can see in a word be associated with the name of the part of speech, (5) once a name is mastered, its use should be practised.

68–59 Murray, W. A. Towards an integrated policy for English overseas. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 16–22.

Short-term considerations may soon have a bad effect on the national effort to support the teaching of English overseas.

In territories formerly ruled by Britain, English was the means of westernization, the medium of higher education, the means to technology, the language of commerce and contact. Elsewhere in the non-English-speaking world, English literary culture has been a shadow of what it is in Europe. It is sometimes argued that English literature is a civilizing influence for the non-European. It is claimed that the teaching of English literature has created national literatures which express their creators' experience more completely than might have been possible without English. But many African writers have had a struggle to discard derived forms and styles. Our literature is probably not relevant to the experience and inner life of an African or Asian people.

An academic study of English literature has also been justified because it forms part of general European education. It is, however, an expensive luxury which can only be justified for a tiny majority. Short-term pressures encourage effort in language teaching. English cannot discharge its historical role as a world language unless it is taught as a complete instrument, a language both of thought and feeling. We should base much of what we do in the language class on our literature, taken in a broad sense.

The language laboratory should be developed at university level in order to introduce students to literary texts and to present them alongside ancillary materials. We have lagged behind in the provision of modern aids and in the development of integrated training.

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A widespread active use of English for practical purposes of communication is the best guarantee that our literature will find the readers it deserves.

68-60 Owen, R. A. Past perfect and simple past. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 54-9.

The past perfect tense is hard to master. In certain contexts native speakers use either the past perfect or the simple past, apparently indiscriminately.

The past perfect is used as the past form of the present perfect, as the past form of the simple past, as a means of emphasizing that one action had been completed before another took place, as a means of emphasizing that an action had *not* been completed before another action took place, as an expression of a cause-and-effect relationship between two events, and as a means of stating positively that something which might have happened did not happen. [Examples are given for each of these points, the second one being dealt with in considerable detail.] The past perfect can also be a means of stating an unfulfilled or unlikely condition. The past perfect may be preferred to the simple past, and vice versa, for reasons of an implied meaning or of style as well as for grammatical reasons.

68-61 Perren, G. E. Testing ability in English as a second language: 3. Spoken language. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 22-9.

Speech is fugitive and employs a more complex balance of constituent skills than writing. Spoken English is less standardized than written English and criteria of proficiency are more difficult to establish.

In tests of comprehension, problems arise from the weight to be attached to memory span, from the choice of pronunciation and the content of material, all of which affect the reliability of tests. While recordings may be used for testing skills such as phonemic discrimination, comprehension of stress/pitch patterns, the sum of such isolated tests may not cover total proficiency. Intonation patterns are unstable

and not uniform among native English speakers, and there is insufficient information about their frequency for proper sampling. [Examples of test items.]

Production of speech is difficult to test. 'Conversation tests' are often artificial, while material cannot easily be standardized or reliably scored. Oral skills cannot easily be isolated from auditory skills. [Examples.]

Basic problems arise from deciding the relative weighting to be given to constituent elements, from eliciting comparable samples, from scoring and from finding enough time to test spoken English.

Second-language users should not be judged by standards of correctness not habitual to native speakers, and a wide tolerance of variations in pronunciation and intonation can be accepted provided that efficiency in communication is not affected. At present, tests of the gross skills rather than of separable elements of communication seem more valid. Tests derived solely from contrastive analyses of English and the students' mother tongue may be misleading.

68-62 Wallwork, Jean F. Language needs in post-School Certificate education. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 29-33.

For second language speakers, School Certificate English is often not a solid enough linguistic foundation on which to build higher education. Non-linguistic factors are also important. Needs in a given situation must be evaluated by means of diagnostic tests, both objective and non-objective. Language deficiencies may be classified under incorrect use or comprehension, lack of use or understanding, and slowness. The first of these has to be dealt with largely on an individual basis. Extensive reading helps to overcome the second. The third is often associated with lack of confidence; this must be increased, and the student trained to read more quickly.

68-63 West, Michael. The problem of mistakes. *Teaching English* (New Delhi), 9, 2 (1966), 11-15.

From a collection of nearly 400 common errors in English, the author considers the various causes of mistakes and the best remedy for each sort of mistake—prevention, cure, or evasion.

A minimum adequate vocabulary and grammar are needed for a student to have a reasonable grasp of the language and it should be the teacher's aim to give him this as soon as possible. Mother-tongue influences will persistently cause difficulty. Overload of new material will cause some items to be overlooked and mistakes will occur. Carelessness will cause some mistakes and ignorance others. Looking up words in a dictionary is a counsel of perfection, but students should always be encouraged to ask for help rather than to guess. The pupil learns to write correctly by writing correctly. Advanced learners can be asked to keep a 'black book' or errors marked in compositions. They can be examined on these at intervals. Once the correct form has become established it can be struck off the list.

FRENCH. *See also abstracts* 68-28, -29, -41, -42

68-64 Aupècle, Maurice. Pour un enseignement moderne du langage. [Modern language teaching.] *Le Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 47 (1967), 20-1.

Early French colonial policy aimed at giving exactly the same teaching overseas as in France. The old form of 'direct method' language teaching was used initially as the teacher often did not know the local language. A certain number of pupils succeeded under this method, but the greater proportion failed. Political conditions have now changed and in North Africa today a modern variety of the direct method is being used. Its main tenets are: (1) a language is a unity, not a combination of parts; (2) it is a means of communication: teaching is therefore based on authentic dialogue; (3) the most useful kind of language must be taught first in all its aspects, grammatical and phonetic.

Audio-visual aids play a large part in such a conception of language teaching but developing countries do not always have such aids at their disposal and audio-visual methods are not yet adapted to many local situations. In the meantime, an outline method for the first years of language teaching in Arab-speaking countries is offered which has been tested and found effective in the field.

- 68-65** **Bouloc, Pierre.** L'utilisation du film animé dans l'enseignement d'une langue vivante. [The use of films in teaching languages.] *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 4, 2 (1966), 75-82.

By using moving film in teaching languages the sound structures are continually associated with actions, gestures, and situations which clarify meaning. Knowledge of the language can be built up through knowledge of the country and its people. Teaching by television presents many problems which class teaching with film can overcome. The film series *Les Français chez vous* (ORTF) can be effectively used with students who have followed an audio-visual course such as *Voix et Images de France* (CREDIF). Students brought up along traditional lines take a little time to adapt to the audio-visual approach. [The author demonstrates how the teacher would plan and conduct a particular lesson from the film series.]

- 68-66** **Burstall, Clare.** French in primary schools research project. *New Research in Education* (London), 1 (1967), 76-81.

After preliminary research from 1963 by the Ministry of Education, the pilot scheme for the teaching of French in primary schools was started in September 1964, in the hope that it would lead to the earlier and easier introduction of a second modern language at the secondary stage than had previously been possible. Long-term evaluation of the scheme was undertaken by the NFER.

Effect of French on general attainment. Control groups, not learning French, within the chosen primary schools were established where

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possible to discover whether other aspects of education and general intellectual development gained or suffered and these children will be followed through to the second year of secondary school.

Low-ability children. Tests were to be carried out to see whether there was a level of ability below which it was not expedient to teach French.

Effect of length of exposure to French on level of proficiency. Comparisons were to be made with groups of secondary pupils who were introduced to French at the age of 11+ and 13+ and who have been taught French for the same length of time but who are aged respectively 14 and 16; and with two experimental groups at 13+ of secondary school pupils who have only been taught French for two years.

Organizational and teaching problems posed by the introduction of French in the primary schools. A detailed study of these is being made.

Oral tests have been developed as the language is taught predominantly by oral methods and further tests are being developed.

Data of results are included in an interim report to the Department of Education and Science in 1967.

68-67 **Debyser, Francis.** Le rapport langue-civilisation et l'enseignement de la civilisation aux débutants (2). [The link between language and culture and the teaching of culture to beginners.] *Le Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 49 (1967), 16-21.

Debyser makes practical suggestions for teaching the French way of life through the most common words of everyday communication such as those to do with the home and family relationships. Idiomatic phrases, current in everyday speech, may be difficult for a foreigner to understand because the point of view adopted to communicate simple experiences is different. It is inevitable that the information imparted to those with less experience of the language will be contemporary, avoiding excursions into history. If a pupil is taught to *understand* differences of culture and civilization, he will have been prepared to *accept* them. This cannot be done by limiting teaching to the mechanism of communication.

- 68-68 Kellerman, Marcelle.** Le français à l'école primaire. [French in the primary school.] *Le Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **43** (1966), 32-6.

A brief survey of the state of French instruction in Great Britain reveals an increasing movement towards the teaching of French at primary level. It also reveals three attitudes towards audio-visual aids from those who use them, those who have used but abandoned them, and those who refuse to use them.

The problem is the following: how to reconcile modern pedagogy with the correct and systematic teaching of a second language. The author proposes a method which, while following the grammatical expression of the audio-visual methods, advocates varied topics and a lexicon greater than the basic minimum. A foreign-language teaching programme must create in the child a motivation towards the learning of that language.

The proposed linguistic programme consists of three phases: *the first phase*, purely auditive, makes phonetic and sensory impact and requires repetition, without understanding, of short spoken passages in French [the author illustrates a first lesson]; *the second phase*, intellectual and active, where understanding is essential, requires manipulation of simple short sentences to reconstitute verbally a given theme [the author illustrates a lesson]; *the third phase*, based on the second, entails fixation of the material learned, by means of verbal reconstitutions and descriptions formulated by the children themselves [again a model lesson is given].

- 68-69 Lanneau, A.** Une méthode à base audio-visuelle pour le français seconde langue dans le cycle supérieur du secondaire. [An audio-visual method for French as a second language in the senior secondary classes.] *Revue des Langues Vivantes* (Brussels), **33**, 1 (1967), 57-86.

An example of a tape heard by pupils who have just watched a series of related transparencies introduces an exposition of this particular method. Although the pupils are no longer juniors, their hearing is

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not yet sufficiently trained to be able to dispense with visual support. The aural-oral work aims to make active the vocabulary and structures which the student has acquired over a long period and it is only when this has been done that the student is asked to write down what he has said. Everything is learnt in a context, never in isolation. Grammar is explained from a context which has already become familiar. Once a new point is taught, much repetition is used to reinforce the points. Gradually the pupil is forced by the exercises to produce more in his own replies, and finally to produce his own answers unaided. [All the points are illustrated by quotations from the tape.]

A detailed explanation follows of the technique of composing and taping material to be used with such a method, covering the pictures, types of exercises, organization of material, questions of phonetics, and advising on speed, amount of repetition, explanations before a literary text is spoken, frequency of exercises, and need for revision until correct usage becomes automatic.

Such a method, although technical, should help the pupils in that it not only aims to teach them to read and write but it maintains an awareness of the whole language and keeps the analytic side of traditional teaching. At the same time it develops judgement, sensitivity and taste. The literary text is also of prime importance as the whole lesson leads to the study of this manifestation of culture.

The language used for this method is chiefly in dialogue form aiming at natural expression and adequate practice.

68-70 Lester, Kenneth A. Audio-visual programs in France. *French Review* (Baltimore), **40**, 2 (1966), 277-83.

The term 'audio-visual method' is often used in France in relation to teaching materials. Misconception has arisen because some Americans interpret 'audio-visual method' as a French version of the audio-lingual approach, which it is not. The various centres (CREDIF, Centre audio-visuel de Saint Cloud, BELC, the Alliance Française) that produce materials often differ in their methodology, especially with reference to the manner in which reading and writing are introduced. [The work of these centres is described.]

Although there is a general shift in goals and techniques towards the spoken language, total change in schools to audio-visual methods is far from being realized in France.

68-71 Linell, Rosamund. Primary classes in the language laboratory. *Teacher* (London), 9, 6 (10 February 1967), 21.

The only school under the Inner London Education Authority to try out primary-school language teaching together with a language laboratory and mechanized teaching by audio-visual methods is the George Eliot primary school. Four French lessons are given per week, one of which is spent in the language laboratory in a nearby school. It has been found that children progress at roughly the same rate in French as they do in other subjects. The *Bonjour Line* course is used in which the written language is not seen for the first year. The pupils cannot build up a passive vocabulary but must use everything they have learned. The method is very demanding on the teacher and its use really calls for special training, whereas few primary-school teachers are qualified to teach languages at all.

In spite of the practical difficulties, the George Eliot school teaching is efficient, the method appeals to the children and gives them opportunity for self-expression.

68-72 Pereira, Keith. Adapting the Saint-Cloud course to secondary schools. *Babel* (Melbourne), 2, 2 (1966), 11-14.

This is a description of using the *Voix et Images de France* course at secondary-school level. Among the students there was a desire to write before they were confronted with the graphic form. This led to a script of their own invention. To combat this, reading was begun early. The author recommends that the native voice on the tape be supplemented by the teacher's own repetitions. The need was also felt for different testing and translation techniques from those recommended. When reading is introduced, it is still necessary for the

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student to hear the taped version of the script while he follows the printed word. [The author makes a general assessment of the course as used under classrooms conditions.]

GERMAN. *See also abstracts* 68-43, -45

68-73 Gottschalk, Günter H. Closed-circuit television in second-semester college German. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **49**, 2 (1965), 86-91.

The article presents some of the experimental details and results of a television course in second-semester German for college students, produced by the University of California at Santa Barbara. Current course materials were analysed and a selection made of materials and exercises which would profit from visual presentation. The aim was to maintain high-quality language programmes in spite of rapid growth of the student population, and to reduce experienced staff time in elementary language teaching. The television programme covered aural comprehension exercises, grammar review, and enrichment. The approach in grammar discussion was largely deductive and the emphasis finally was on aural comprehension, formal grammar and phonetics. The students were given three questionnaires at different stages of the experiment to investigate their attitudes to the course. The vast majority felt they were learning more in the television course than in a conventional course and even more realized that television instruction put more responsibility on their shoulders. Criticism pointed to lack of student participation and the impersonality of the medium. In the final examination the television group performed better on comprehension than other groups conventionally taught.

The importance of student and teacher attitude to any new course was stressed.

One of the most obvious advantages was the use of visual material in the course. Voices of different native speakers were used in the aural comprehension exercises and in the demonstration of German sounds. Subject-matter had to be divided into small steps as the

students did not have the opportunity to ask questions. The recording of answers was adopted to eliminate cheating where students were unwilling to work alone.

A later experiment was conducted in which a conventional German course was partly taught by closed-circuit television and the television-taught group out-performed a non-television group in an additional part of the final examination—translation from English to German.

68-74 Holt, R. F. German composition. *Babel* (Melbourne), 2, 3 (1966), 14-16.

Composition comes into German teaching at the leaving level, where it assumes a stilted role in the general preparation for examinations. Composition can be oral as well as written and is important at *all* stages of language learning. Their written compositions will appear childish to adolescents—they lack the command of language to express more mature ideas—but there are ways of engaging the student's interest from the beginning. Twenty-six practical suggestions are made, from completing sentences to précis work, with suggestions for work on anecdotes (usually humorous). The principles are summarized as follows: (1) story or essay leading to aural comprehension, (2) questions leading to aural comprehension and oral composition, (3) producing a written composition, (4) correction, oral reading, revision and explanation of grammar and vocabulary.

The advantages of the method are flexibility, adequate oral practice, reduction of the disparity between active and passive vocabulary, and the presence of motivation. Composition practice becomes meaningful. The skill in communicating is at once rewarding. [A brief bibliography is appended of texts which can help teachers to develop oral and written composition.]

68-75 Rado, Marta. Teaching the German subjunctive. *Babel* (Melbourne), 2, 3 (1966), 19-21.

Language has never been static and today people are less concerned about shades of meaning in conversation. Every day German speech is

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constantly breaking the grammatical rules of the purists. In the case of the subjunctive it is difficult today to obtain a definitive ruling and there is a marked tendency to replace the form by the conditional. It does not therefore seem reasonable to spend much time and effort on teaching the subjunctive but it does need to be presented to senior classes if only to discourage its indiscriminate use.

The author habitually explains the form from the translation of a brief text in which some students will recognize the subjunctive form from their knowledge of Latin and French. The Indo-European origins of all these languages are then briefly explained and from this the links with ancient Greek and its verb forms. The 'emotional' colouring of the straightforward indicative by the optative and subjunctive forms are pointed out and the special flavour of the subjunctive form is discussed, the students being encouraged to find the answers for themselves. The two forms of the subjunctive are introduced with illustrations from poems and folk songs. Finally the choice between the conditional and the subjunctive is discussed and when this outline has been established ways of avoiding the form are raised.

RUSSIAN

68-76 Faust, G. W. and R. C. Anderson. Effects of incidental material in a programmed Russian vocabulary lesson. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington), **58**, 1 (1967), 3-10.

Two experiments were made to demonstrate that incidental material can facilitate learning from programmed material, when overt responses are conditioned by requiring students to notice the stimulus before making the response. Two versions of programmes to teach Russian vocabulary were prepared, one using primitive copying frames with a single 'prompt' sentence, and the other using copying frames in which the 'prompt' sentence was presented in a context of five English-Russian sentences. In both experiments the groups using context material recalled more Russian words in later

tests than did the others. For those who worked through the programmes quickly the advantage was greater. It is suggested that the addition of context material to the copying frame improves associative learning, despite possible interference from such materials.

SPANISH. *See also abstract 68-34*

68-77 Barrio, Margaret Moye del. Emergence of a Spanish television course for FLES. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **49**, 4 (1965), 212-16.

Since the start of the FLES programme in Detroit public schools, three main areas have been considered: the creation of the curriculum for the teaching of Spanish, the development of techniques and visuals for teaching by television, and the involvement of the child in active participation during the lesson and in follow-up activities directed by viewing teachers. This article deals with the *escenitas* (dialogues) which serve for presentation and from which the basic speech patterns are taught. Experience confirmed that knowing nouns did not lead children to talk. The material had to be structure-centred. The essential features of the *escenitas* are: (1) to train a child to participate in talk, (2) to be child-centred in interest, (3) to be a source for a variety of follow-up activities for children. It became evident that the *escenitas* had to be natural live talk. Out of this natural speech, sentences could be taken for pattern practice. Some artificial talk is deliberately built around grammar items or specific noun categories. [Examples of natural and artificial dialogue for teaching parts of the body and days of the week are given.] The *escenita* should involve the child personally in a brief scene which is neither too babyish nor too adult. It should be of four to six lines, short enough to be memorized. Speech patterns must be both natural and colloquial. Long complete sentences may be unnatural and unrepresentative of live, natural talk. Exclamations, interjections and transitional words add life to a dialogue and children enjoy learning them. End-of-term programmes proved that the children talked, not controlling the entire language but very creditably within the limits of what they had been taught.

- 68-78** **Blickenstaff, C. B. and F. Woerdehoff.** A comparison of the monostructural and dialogue approaches to the teaching of college Spanish. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **51**, 1 (1967), 14-23.

In the dialogue approach selection and diversity of structures depend on the situational context. The dialogue is learned by mimicry-memorization before pattern practice takes place.

In the monostructural approach the situational context is not used as a device for presenting structures. Structures are mastered singly and in a sequence designed for optimal learning efficiency. There is less mimicry-memorization. The approach also makes use of the older student's powers of analysis and his ability to arrive at concepts.

In audio-lingual teaching, what is the relative effectiveness of a monostructural and a dialogue approach? After carefully controlled experiments and tests designed to find the answer to this question the authors conclude that in the reading and writing skills the dialogue group achieved better results as measured by the MLA tests. No significant differences were observed in the audio-lingual skills. Monostructural materials could have been more effective had they incorporated spaced reading selections.