Theory and Principles

See also abstracts 78–268, –288

78–264 Bondzio, B. Теория валентности и обучение языку. [Valency theory and language teaching.] Иностранные языки в школе (Moscow), 6 (1977), 14–25.

A short introduction on valency theory is followed by a review of syntactic models based on valency criteria and a discussion of the relationships between lexical units of X valency and given syntactic structures. Particular attention is paid to the form and meaning of sentences through an analysis of three types of relations: logico-semantic, grammatical, theme/rheme. The second part of the paper is devoted to pedagogical questions arising out of the preceding theoretical discussion and particular attention is paid to the question of vocabulary learning and methodological principles of presentation. The examples are taken from German.


Noting that a great deal has already been written on the content side of foreign-language teaching since the educational reform of the upper level of the Gymnasium, the paper presents a quantitative study of the ensuing changes. Statistics quoted show differences between the individual regions within the Federal Republic of Germany regarding the combination of subjects offered, the place of modern languages within the curricula and the possibilities of specialisation in languages.

The pupils' motives for choosing particular subjects, including languages, are examined statistically, particularly with regard to the relative difficulty of subjects; the most difficult, according to examination marking statistics, are mathematics and modern languages. It is pointed out that unified and complete statistics for the whole Federal Republic are not available. [Several statistical tables are presented which allow comparisons to be made between regions.] On the whole, negative tendencies are noted in the position of languages. On the basis of the material presented, it is suggested that similar quantitative studies could help to identify areas where action could be taken to improve the foreign-language situation in education.

In a critical review of the discussion on the relation between linguistics and language teaching, the authors identify aspects of the discussion which explain lack of progress. One of these is terminological: sometimes terms are not defined precisely enough, sometimes not at all, while new terms are introduced redundantly. The second aspect concerns the adaptation of linguistics for pedagogical purposes: some of the theoretical bases of linguistics are misunderstood or ignored, and there are few systematic attempts to lock linguistic grammars onto pedagogical grammar. The article goes on to discuss in more detail approaches to the pedagogical adaptation of linguistics, relative to the thesis that pedagogical grammar has an autonomous educational task with its own set of priorities, and discusses in outline a proposed systematic typology of pedagogical grammars.


This study examines the relationship among the variables of practice, instruction and performance of adult learners of English as a second language in the United States. All learners were at intermediate and advanced level and were given a questionnaire to determine the amount of English use outside the classroom, number of years of formal English instruction, and time spent in an English speaking environment. Analysis of the data showed that student performance, as measured by teacher rankings, correlated with the amount of instruction received but showed no correlation with the amount of use of the language or with the amount of time spent in an English-speaking environment. These findings seriously question some basic assumptions about the role of the environment in improving language skills above the beginner level. Formal instruction, it is concluded, is the most important determinant of student performance in language learning at this level because it provides a structured environment for feedback.
A model of second-language learning is presented and aspects of the model are examined in two experiments with high-school students learning French. The model describes learning in terms of three parameters – learning processes, learning strategies, and learner characteristics. These parameters may be used to explain the general process of second-language learning as well as discrepancies in the competence achieved by particular language learners.

In the first experiment, the relationship between individual learner characteristics and achievement is examined. Attitude and the use of certain learning strategies prove to be the most important predictors of proficiency. The second experiment investigates more precisely the role of inferencing, one of the learning strategies hypothesised in the model, in language learning. The opportunity to infer was found to improve reading comprehension scores. The results of both experiments are interpreted in terms of the model and suggestions for further research are discussed.

Three groups of subjects were tested in an elicited imitation study. These were 8-year-old, 11-year-old and adult native speakers of Arabic who were learning English as a second language. The subjects were asked to repeat sentences of seven different grammatical structure types. Previous research with 4-year-old native speakers of English has found that three of the structures were easy to repeat (Type A structures) while four were difficult to repeat (Type B structures). In the present study, a similar difference in the repeatability of A and B structures was found for the youngest subjects, but there was no such difference for the adults and only a moderate difference for the intermediate group. The pattern of results suggested that this was not a function of differences in the subjects’ English-language backgrounds, but represents a developmental difference in the ability of second-language learners to repeat certain grammatical structures. The theoretical reasons for the variability in repetition difficulty for the different structure types were considered.
PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING


A review of the four main explanations given as to why adults appear to be less successful language learners than children: psychological, cognitive, social/psychological, and the demands of adult vs. child discourse. It is concluded that the very learners that the optimal age hypothesis would not hold high hopes for, are, in fact, the better language learners, i.e. the adults. Perhaps the appeal of the hypothesis is that adults are never satisfied with their progress in a task which is never-ending. [References.]


Adults were tested for the way in which they process four types of subject and object relative clauses. The results support an anti-interruption and anti-rearrangement constraint that has been proposed by Slobin. The reason why interruption and rearrangement of linguistic units is hard for adults is explained in terms of language-processing strategies that they are hypothesised to be using, in particular the Adjacency strategy. Adult behaviour is compared to the performance of four- and five-year-old children described in a previous study. The results of these two studies support the claim that children and adults are following the same strategies in processing these sentences – and that the difference between them is in which strategies they rely most heavily on, and, consequently, which sentences they make the most mistakes on.


The purpose of this study was to discover student attitudes towards language, learning, and language learning. The subjects were 155 students entering the first year of the English course at the University of Isfahan, Iran. A questionnaire of 50 statements concerning language, its nature and functions, and learning, particularly language learning, based on a five-point scale, was given by teachers in the classroom during 1974. A Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation was computed. The matrix was factor analysed by the principal axis method and then rotated to varimax criteria. Twelve factors were extracted. The attitudes of the students are pragmatic, informal, and somewhat unformed, but they demonstrate a sophistication developed by experienced language learners. These attitudes seem generally favourable to
foreign-language learning, apart from two factors. Students place a strong reliance on vocabulary memorising as a way of learning to comprehend language. They also fail to grasp the importance of syntax in the comprehension of language, especially reading comprehension. The study suggests that students and teachers might well give some time to the consideration of concepts of language and language learning.

**ERROR ANALYSIS**  *See also abstract 78–309*


Areas in which Greek learners of English are likely to make errors are described. Difficulties with the use of tenses arises mainly because Greek uses only one present and one past tense, where English has two of each; Greek also has different usage of the present perfect [details]. [Errors with verbs of similar or related meaning.]


A classification is made of the main misrenderings which a Spanish-speaking student makes in translating from English. Three general types of misrendering are presented on the basis of their source: omission, addition, and substitution. Within each type, other subtypes are analysed. [Some didactic implications of these misrenderings are given.]

**TESTING**  *See also abstract 78–251*


Setting a 'comprehensive' test for a heterogeneous group of candidates presents considerable problems. One solution is to arrange the content on an incline of difficulty, with easier parts preceding more difficult parts. An experiment for 16+ students is described, based on a pre-test, and first and second stages. [The test is given in the Appendix.] The paper contained a half-hour test of reading comprehension (narrative passage plus multiple-choice questions in
French) and a half-hour writing test (four pictures plus questions). Comparisons were made between the experimental test scores and marks and grades achieved by the same students in GCE and CSE examinations. The rubric gave warning about the incline of difficulty but weaker students still tended to go on to the end of the paper. It was concluded that more pre-test experience is probably needed, so that levels of difficulty can be more accurately estimated, but an incline appears to be feasible. [Problems for the examiner are outlined.]


Researchers in the field of second-language learning need a reliable method for measuring the proficiency of their subjects. This paper reports progress to date on an index of development. The procedure began with an analysis of written compositions: they were first divided on an impressionistic basis into five levels of proficiency, and were then analysed to identify features which were typical of each level. Measures of length (number of words and sentences) were felt to be more objective features than commission of errors, also the total number of T-units per composition, and average word length per T-unit. [Discussion of results.] The quantitative analysis showed that there was a noticeable correlation between number of words and proficiency – the better students wrote more than the poorer ones. The mean length of T-units increased steadily but was not statistically significant. As proficiency increased there were more error-free T-units. Findings to date are inconclusive but they show that measures of length and number of error-free T-units per composition could serve as a basis for an index of development.


The paper begins with a discussion of some of the drawbacks of assessing the progress of language learners on a purely quantitative basis, which can lead to distortions if not interpreted correctly. For example, if one pupil is better than another at the beginning of a series of tests, he will show less progress at the end, simply because there is less room for improvement in relation to the maximum performance set by the later test. [A number of other factors are mentioned which may distort the results.]
Tests using LLRA and Poisson models are described. [Examples are given of a large number of relevant factors which can be tested independently using these models.] The tests show that classroom learning, laboratory work, and the textbook all contribute to improvement in performance; laboratory work is three times more effective than classwork in the conventional components of vocabulary, grammar and knowledge of pronunciation; vocabulary and grammar can be improved more than comprehension and knowledge of pronunciation in the laboratory; active pronunciation is improved far more in the laboratory than knowledge of pronunciation. Girls benefit from laboratory work more than boys, though it remains unclear how this result should be interpreted. For each pupil, contrary to the results of Keating and Ortner [references], the intelligence of each individual pupil did not influence his or her absolute progress. In general, it is suggested, didactic models, such as LLRA, Rasch’s model and Fischer’s Poisson model will be useful in future tests in language-teaching didactics.


There has been little attempt to show an interdependence in primary-school children between language-learning aptitude and special second-language skills. This study reports on some attempts to predict the aptitude of nine-year-olds learning English in their last year in a primary school in West Germany. The tests used were a German adaptation of Carroll’s Modern Language Aptitude Test, and an informal test developed by one of the authors. The main test predicts success for pupils in three types of secondary schools: secondary modern (Hauptschule), technical (Realschule) and grammar (Gymnasium). The predicted type of school was compared with individual pupils’ actual choices and with teachers’ marks (findings varied with the different classes tested). In the prediction of linguistic abilities and skills, there were both clear-cut and more vague predictions, but overall the findings support a continued use of objective tests of language proficiency in predicting academic achievement. [Correlation matrix.]

LANGUAGE PLANNING


This article discusses one aspect of the problem of taking proper account of cultural diversity: language in the schools and the need for bilingual–bicultural
education. It discusses (1) the language problem in the United States which precipitated calls for widespread bilingual education, and (2) the manner in which the U.S. government has sought to solve the problem. [Brief history of bilingual education, and the Bilingual Education Act of 1968.] The Office of Bilingual Education was set up in 1974 to help provide equal educational opportunities for children whose first language is other than English. It has funded numerous programmes, with the emphasis mainly on primary education, though some projects have been concerned with adults, drop-outs and vocational education. [Functions and organisation of OBE; discussion of progress made and of OBE as a language-planning agency.] [References.]

**CURRICULUM PLANNING**

See also abstract 78–265


Although many foreign-language teachers have traditionally been interested in the aesthetic value and vocational opportunities offered by the study of their subject, relatively few have emphasised the non-vocational value of language study. The current emphasis on career education in the curriculum has prompted many subject areas to investigate the relationship between career education concepts and their subject matter content. The area of foreign-language instruction appears to have taken a lead in developing a rationale, curriculum guides, and resource material in order to facilitate the blending of career education concepts and foreign languages. The major focus of this endeavour is on foreign languages as an ancillary skill. Any attempts to blend career education concepts and foreign languages are best facilitated through the co-ordinated efforts of individuals and agencies, i.e. state departments of education, institutions of higher learning, local school systems, etc. The charge to such a task force should not only be to develop the conceptual framework for the curricular change but also to initiate positive action toward implementing that change.
COURSE DESIGN See also abstract 78–255


Traditionally audio-visual courses have taught model sentences which are unmarked for social relationships. But Un niveau-seuil gives prominence to 'speech acts'. What are the implications for course progression? The old sequences sacrifice situation to grammar. The newer, situational, sequencing seems to help students to revise better than to teach true beginners. [Examination of sequencing applied to speech acts.] A framework is suggested for course planning for teachers and course compilers. [Illustrative table.]


An account of the re-structuring of the first-year French course at Bradford University. The experiment required a kind of team-teaching approach. The main aims were to integrate the various language activities where possible; to see whether changing priorities would result in poorer performance in prose composition and translation; to place more emphasis on those skills in which post-A-level students are deficient; to examine the role of the language laboratory; to discover student attitudes to the new kind of language work. [Goals of the course; selection of the required skills and ways of practicing them; the language activities and order of teaching elements.] The conclusions were that students who took part in the experimental course performed better in the oral and summarising tests, and their written essays improved, though their translation did not. The efforts made to link the exercises strengthened the motivation of both staff and students. More work is needed on the role of the language laboratory at this level. Student reactions were generally favourable. Assumptions about oral competence were often unfounded, but shortcomings to written language were more serious. This approach shows that advanced language work can proceed along non-traditional lines. [References.]


The use of student evaluations has been shown to be a valid and reliable method of evaluating instruction; however, student surveys designed for general use
This article presents a 35-item, scaled questionnaire which includes questions designed to elicit information needed to evaluate the effectiveness of foreign-language teachers and the perceived value of course content, plus data needed to determine relevant characteristics of students taking part in the survey. Uses of the information obtained are discussed. The results of a survey using this questionnaire carried out in first- and second-year Spanish classes at a large public university are presented, in addition to a comparison of data from the administration of the questionnaire in first-semester Spanish and a second administration three semesters later. Significant improvement in several areas had occurred.


Work at the Colchester English Study Centre in researching, designing and testing EFL teaching materials is described. The most important stage in mounting an ESP course is the stage of preparation leading from an investigation of the students' needs to a definition of learning objectives and syllabus content [discussion of the basic approach to the three main areas of investigation: the student, the subject matter of his specialism, and the language requirements]. In designing the syllabus, a prototype unit is first drafted and tested. Teaching techniques depend on the students' requirements, but each teaching strategy is considered in relation to the development of communicative skills.

**TEACHER TRAINING** *See also abstracts* 78–241, —296


An attempt is made to review the research on non-verbal communication in classrooms in relation to the teaching of foreign languages. Language teachers tend to rely more on histrionic techniques than teachers of other subjects, especially in the early stages, in order to demonstrate the meaning of the language being learned; dialogue is the activity by which language is practiced and internalised. There is a wide area of non-verbal activity by teachers which is (a) directly related to the aims of language teaching, and (b) capable of control and extension by the teacher. Its evaluation is in terms not only of frequency and intensity but of appropriateness. The kind of behaviours suggested are relatively simple techniques (and in common use) which teacher
training can make more explicit [details]. Classrooms will need reorganising so that small groups can interact. [References.]


The advantages of peer-group micro-teaching in second languages are enumerated; it is an efficient first step towards teaching. In order to provide more objective evaluation, however, the reactions of participants in micro-teaching at the University of Minnesota were assessed. [Rating instrument; data analysis.] Results showed that most students found the experience helpful, especially after actual teaching experience. Students majoring in foreign languages found the experience more useful than minors. Observing others teaching was felt to be as important as actually teaching. Students found they received more ideas from single-language groups than mixed-language groups (i.e. a Russian lesson for the teaching of French). Interest in the micro-teaching method fluctuated according to the novelty of the situation. The method was cited as the most important aspect of the pre-student-teaching courses. [Tables of results; references.]


The training of students who are to become teachers of French is faced with two difficulties. Firstly, because of the *numerus clausus* more and more students with only a very basic knowledge of French start to read French language and literature. Secondly, universities traditionally tend to train philologists who are able to discuss a given text scientifically: they do not train teachers who will have to teach French as an instrument of communication. If university education is to be efficient, one has to take into consideration the demands of the school and adapt the academic curriculum accordingly.

The importance of linguistic practice is gradually being recognised, as is shown by a comparison between the number of practical language courses offered in universities in 1976 as compared with 1972. The survey also shows that translation is still the most important subject, accounting for more than 40 per cent of the lessons, whereas oral expression, reading and writing skills remain in the background. However, the latter are the skills the future teacher will have to develop in his pupils. The importance of translations at university level has its origin in the examination regulations for the *Staatsexamen*. It is argued that
TEACHING METHODS  

these regulations have to change radically throughout the Federal Republic of Germany in order to make practice-orientated curricula possible. Language teachers at the university must be better trained, and a substitute for the Lektor be found. A longer stay in France during university education is the other important necessity for the achievement of full linguistic competence.

TEACHING METHODS  See also abstracts 78–296, –301


The most widespread foreign-language teaching techniques in the U.S.S.R. are those associated with the predominant teaching method, the Practical-Conscious Method (PCM). This is founded on the broad principle that understanding or cognitive mastery is basic to learning, and on this foundation automatic habits should be developed. The language teacher’s job is (a) to present and explain new rules, structures and idioms, (b) present the material in communicative themes and units (sentences), (c) develop each theme in a realistic situation by using drills, and (d) constantly make contrasts with the native language. [Brief review of Soviet learning theory: Vygotsky, Gal’perin, Belyaev, and A. N. and A. A. Leontiev.] This theory sees learning beginning as an external, social, activity, which becomes internalised through the medium of language. The foreign-language learner begins with physical activities such as hearing sounds, then internalises rules, then uses the forms themselves to categorise the environment. Having attained a skill, he must progress to a habit. The organisational nature of learning is thus stressed. The theoretical, psychological basis of the Soviet method is what distinguishes it from language-teaching theories in the West.

78–289  Gorčev, A. Ju.  Речевая тренировка и типология тренировочных упражнений в устной речи. [Speech practice and the typology of practice exercises in spoken language.]  Иностранные языки в школе (Moscow), 6 (1977), 45–53.

Two teaching strategies are considered: (1) the strategy in which material is first presented with preparatory exercises and then developed by practice (langue before parole). This strategy is considered unsatisfactory. (2) The strategy combining practice and communication in one activity. Exercises of this type lead to speech habits from which speech skills are synthesised. They appeal to extra-linguistic data (they are not purely formal) but they are done according to a varying model (i.e. they are structured). [Examples of aural exercises are given.]
This article suggests how a French lesson based on the reader *Cours de base, Premier degré, Lektion 7*, could be introduced. The teaching goal is comprehension and expression (*code oral*) and the training of reading, understanding, and writing skills (*code écrit*). Details are given of how grammatical problems are first introduced with the help of a known vocabulary and of how the new vocabulary is acquired, while at the same time those words and structures already mastered by the pupil are continuously practised. Then the new text is read, and its understanding is checked by questioning. Short scenes invented by the pupils and based on the material of the new lesson help to exercise the new achievements.

Written exercises have two functions: they strengthen oral skills, in particular the mastering of important collocations and grammatical structures, and they focus on the special vocabulary and grammar of the *code écrit*. These skills are taught in five steps, beginning with the learning of short sentences with the help of tapes and an overhead projector, and leading up to difficult dictations. The mechanisation of language use is taught by structural exercises. The mastering of new words and the application of oral and writing skills are checked at the same time.

A brief historical sketch is given of the teaching of foreign languages in the United States. The goal of the assimilation of immigrants into American society is not conducive to foreign-language study. The success of the audio-lingual method is questionable. Current terminology uses such terms as ‘creative’ and ‘cognitive’ but no text programmes go very far in developing the student’s creative use of the target language. Likewise textbooks claim to present language in ‘meaningful’ situations but for something to be meaningful for the student, it must relate his own ‘life space’. To find out what this is, involves the teacher in conducting regular personal interviews. The classroom environment should be student-centred, not teacher-centred. Some procedures are mentioned which can be used to stimulate communication in the classroom, such as conversation groups. Motivation will be determined by the student’s success in communicating in French. Instead of the usual ‘closed system’ of education, the learning experience should encourage experimentation and challenge the student’s cognitive abilities.

On the basis of principles common to the approaches underlying both first- and second-language teaching, some current ESL practices are challenged. Four major methodological points are contrasted: (1) ESL – mastery of linguistic structures precedes fluency; Language Arts – fluency precedes accuracy. (2) ESL – linguistic structures should be sequentially ordered; Language Arts – not all students are ready to learn a given concept or structure at the same time. (3) ESL – the teacher is a model of appropriate spoken English; Language Arts – the teacher’s role is to organise successively more challenging tasks for the student. (4) ESL – acquisition of linguistic form precedes function; Language Arts – function precedes form. It is suggested that the first-language methodology is more congruent with current linguistic and psychological theories and leads to more productive classroom activities. Some ways in which the first-language teaching practices could be used by ESL teachers and curriculum developers are suggested.


This paper presents the results of the 1974/5 evaluation of the bilingual education programme initiated in 1970 by the Elgin County Board of Education in St Thomas, Ontario. The study covers grades two to five and is a follow-up to previous evaluations. Background information on the programme is to be found in the earlier reports. The evaluation was carried out by the Bilingual Education Project of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education as part of its investigation of innovative programmes in second-language instruction in Ontario. Summaries of the previous findings precede each set of data in the present paper.

It is concluded that the relative merit of the partial French immersion programme is difficult to appraise. While the grade five findings are satisfactory, those at lower grades are less so. [Comparisons with total immersion results.]

[References.]
Changes in theories and methods of language teaching may be perplexing to the English language teacher. Current stress on communicative functions and involvement of the learner’s cognitive processes in language learning, though stimulating, has yet to be realised in generally accessible teaching material. Some methods of teaching narrative are outlined, adopting an approach stressing the correlation of verb form and language function. Emphasis is placed on the salient features of narrative, notably chronological sequence. Actual teaching material is used to show how tabulation and information transfer techniques can be employed to practice story-telling while also promoting the learner’s understanding through his active participation in the learning activities with which he is presented.

This study attempted to identify specific speech characteristics in the English of a group of bilinguals which might account for their relative positions on a scale of least to most accented. It was found (1) that unlike the Brennan et al. findings, phonetic differences alone do not account for the reliable scaling of accents; (2) that reading style may be an important factor in the perception of accentedness and therefore needs to be investigated; and (3) that since regional accents may interact with foreign accents in subtle ways a better understanding of what constitutes regional (and perhaps substandard) dialects is necessary in order to understand accentedness. [Suggestions for future research.]

The teaching and correction of pronunciation in the EFL/ESL class is far more complicated than is indicated by the methodological procedures usually suggested in teacher training. The complexity consists of blending appropriately the linguistic knowledge and specific techniques of the teacher with a sensitivity to the point of view of the learner, reasonable expectations of progress and control, the classroom behaviour of the learner, interpersonal relations, and
TEACHING METHODS

the proportionate importance of pronunciation to language-learning. Six methodological principles are discussed which may lead to a more productive attitude by the teacher, and ten approaches are identified. Both principles and approaches derive from observation and supervision of large numbers of experienced and inexperienced teachers and teaching assistants at intensive-language centres.

VOCABULARY TEACHING  See abstract 78–314

LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES  See also abstracts 78–284, –310


Technical language is defined as a sublanguage which uses mainly the structure of the common language but a partly different vocabulary. In order to construct manuals of the different technical languages, one has to find out not only the basic vocabulary but also those lexical and grammatical features which are particularly common in a given technical language (e.g. words derived from Greek or Latin, passive constructions, use of infinite verbs, etc.).

There are five categories of people to whom manuals of this sort could be useful: (1) skilled workers, (2) polytechnic students, (3) university students, (4) postgraduates and scientists, (5) interpreters. Universities have to establish courses for groups (3) and (4). The ability to read is the primary teaching goal, the next step being the improvement of hearing, speaking, and writing skills. English chemical language is taken as an example to show how a manual can be constructed. The need for schools to take part in the teaching of technical languages is stressed.


A distinction is made between technical and scientific language. In the former are found a set of technical terms that may occur in any technical language, a set of terms that occur only in the technical language of a specific discipline or field, a relatively small set of different syntactic patterns, and a predominance of descriptive expressions over interpretative statements. A scientific language has, in addition, the feature that its topic is a scientific one, which is treated...
in a scientific way (logical reasoning, proper defining of new terms, use of symbolic expressions, etc.). The difference between the language of cultural sciences and that of natural science or mathematics is pointed out. The influence of the particular language upon scientific languages within it is stressed.

READING  
See also abstracts 78–249, –255

78–299  

A study is described which aimed to discover what reading strategies were used by successful and unsuccessful readers in a second language. [Procedure used; description of notational system for data analysis; excerpts from interviews with readers, and the ‘reading map’ and ‘computer print-out’ (symbols for marking proficiency) constructed for these readers.] A procedure is suggested for using the ‘think-aloud’ technique in the classroom, where unsuccessful readers can learn from analysing the techniques of their more successful fellows.

COMMUNICATION  
See also abstracts 78–289, –311

78–300  

The main requirement for individualising instruction in a classroom with a large student/teacher ratio is the provision of learning experiences which are not managed directly and personally by the teacher: this frees the teacher to work with individuals or small groups. A programme of conversational practice is described which is regular and systematic and can be handled by aides, substitutes or even advanced students. Advance preparation and a high degree of structuring are found to be essential, at least for beginners, and use is made of the ‘directed response’, the directions being given in the mother tongue. [Discussion of creating materials.] For more advanced students a further phase of free conversation can be employed after a transitional activity, narrative paraphrase of stories [details].
TEACHING METHODS

78–301 Portine, Henri. La notion de communication dans l’enseignement dans langues. [The notion of communication in language teaching.] BULAG (Besançon), 5 (1977), 60–74.

Research in functional linguistics has purposely avoided examining self-expression; situational linguistics made inventories of physical communication styles (telephoning, letter-writing). For learners to handle interpersonal relationships, their teachers need a methodology based on more abstract categories, such as personal involvement, suasion, i.e. a communication theory which accounts for a speaker’s attitudes. [Examples; references.]

WRITING  See abstract 78–313

COMPREHENSION  See also abstract 78–249


It is a commonplace in research into the reading and writing disability of young children that sufferers exhibit a strongly marked weakness of auditive discrimination. As German orthography often signals length of vowels with the help of following consonant(s), the frequent occurrence of such mistakes has been explained by saying that the sufferers are unable to distinguish between long and short vowels. However, only 2 per cent of all the errors can be discriminated by hearing alone, namely Dehnungsfehler and Doppelungsfehler.

A test was carried out, in which all German long and short vowels had been juxtaposed. The results substantiate the claim that weakness of auditive discrimination in children who show a disability in acquiring reading and writing is a consequence, rather than the cause, of their handicap.


A comparison of spoken and written French reveals several zones of divergence, which must be taken into account in any course that purports to teach the spoken language and the skills required for participation in speech. It clearly reveals some of the reasons why a course in written French so often leaves
pupils floundering on their first entry into the new language community, and offers some suggestions as to how this problem may be partially resolved by a more adequate and realistic preparation of the learner.

RADIO AND TELEVISION


Ways in which radio and television broadcasts can contribute to language learning in terms of motivation, enrichment and direct teaching are briefly described. Broadcasts can provide massive amounts of listening experience but listening practice needs to be purposeful. They can provide not only topics for discussion, but the necessary language for it. They can help with reading both at the level of decoding and more rapid reading. Writing can be helped by transcribed passages used for cloze techniques, transcriptions, summaries, and essays based on broadcasts. [Ways of exploiting broadcasts for practice in comprehension, speaking, and writing are outlined. List of current broadcasts in the language series for the 16–19 age group.]

INDIVIDUALISED INSTRUCTION  See abstract 78–300

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES  See abstract 78–277

IMMIGRANTS  See also abstract 78–312


There is a growing demand from teachers and parents that Indian languages should be systematically brought into the school curriculum. The EEC declaration about the promotion of education in immigrants’ own languages makes necessary a realistic reappraisal of the issues. It is difficult in the first place to define what is meant by mother-tongue teaching. Is English to be an extra subject or the medium of instruction? Pilot schemes are needed to show whether the teaching of infants in their mother tongue is effective. [Spare-time schools run by Asians are briefly described – their main disadvantage is the time required outside school hours.] Special treatment for Asians in schools has its own dangers of highlighting racial differences. Practical obstacles include costs. In the meantime, the best solution may be after-school centres.
The modal system in English is unique among verbs (lack of an s ending, occurrence without to before an infinitive, tense forms without corresponding time reference), with individual modals – partly because of gaps and overlaps, partly because of idiosyncratic signification – unique in their structural-semantic distributions. They therefore constitute a considerable learning burden for second-language learners of English. The learning problem can perhaps be reduced by a careful delineation of semantic functions for individual modals and an understanding of the reduced semantic coverage possible for perfect constructions compared to simple forms. The use of individual modal perfects can be taught effectively by presentation – form by form and meaning by meaning – in highly precise contexts or mini-situations. When individual functions are adequately familiar, the modal perfects can be grouped together in more complex contexts that illustrate their use in contrast.

One way of minimising the difficulties ESL and EFL learners have with the English verb phrase is to associate a clear function with each form. One important function in most learning situations is that of description. An area of 'core description' pivoting on the stem and stem+s forms of the verb in sentence patterns SVC, There VC, SV, SVO and SVOO can be established. Learners can express most necessary concepts in core terms. Development is along the line of learning more sophisticated ways of expressing the same concepts. In both beginning and remedial situations errors can be controlled by developing from stem+s to stem forms and from stative to dynamic verbs. In the establishment of form and function, the one should never be isolated from the other in mechanical drills. For the most efficient learning all material should be self-motivating.

The concept of current relevance has been referred to in many discussions of the usage of the present perfect; however, it is a difficult idea to teach because
it deals with factors outside the present perfect sentence in isolation. In this study the inadequacies of rules governing the present perfect in isolated sentences are discussed, and two contextual factors which are thought to be connected with current relevance and the use of the present perfect are described. The factors, the existence of a situation to which a present perfect sentence can be related, and the expression of this situation in the present tense are experimentally shown to influence the use of the present perfect to a significant degree.


A contrastive analysis is made between British English and Egyptian colloquial Arabic speech phenomena, based on an analysis of actual errors observed over a long period of practical teaching at all levels. It covers consonants, vowels and diphthongs, stress and rhythm, and intonation.

French See also abstracts 78–252, –268, –275, –281/2, –287, –290/1, –303


Mexican mathematics teachers, aged between 30 and 45 and said to be complete beginners, who wanted to be able to read about modern developments in the teaching of mathematics in France, followed a course (four hours a week for three months) based on texts and documents in their field of interest, which aimed to equip them to take part in a seminar on teaching geometry in secondary schools. The emphasis was on a group approach to solving problems and the students' progress was assisted by similarities between French and Spanish and by their familiarity with the subject matter. The course was conducted entirely in French. The pronunciation of French and rules of French orthography were taught and oral exercises used to practice basic structures, but there was no attempt to follow a hierarchy of structures. A suitably qualified teacher and adequate sources of documentation are essential for a course of this kind.
FRENCH


Identifying the development of communicative competence as the major general aim of foreign-language teaching, the paper discusses the teaching of French to older pupils in relation to the aims set out by the educational authority. Communicative competence consists essentially in social interaction in which speakers realise their potential as individuals. Accordingly, it is argued, pupils should be taught to master situations, using the linguistic structures which have been systematically and progressively placed at their disposal. [Details are given of the components of linguistic activity which are to be developed, e.g. both comprehension and expression.] Older pupils (secondary level II) have, in comparison with younger pupils, a greater degree of self-consciousness, which gives rise to additional problems: spontaneity is impaired; interference from the native language system is likely to be stronger; the discrepancy between the complexity of thought and the simplicity of the available linguistic resources is greater. The solution to the resulting problem of inhibition is seen in developing, and building on, the pupils' own motivation.


As part of a long-term programme of education and training for the building construction industry, full-time courses lasting three months and including both language teaching and vocational training were organised for groups of 15 unskilled or semi-skilled labourers with some knowledge of spoken French. An approach based on a progression of grammatical structures was rejected in favour of one designed to meet the workers’ needs on the job, to win promotion, and to cope with their social environment. The language required was carefully analysed and objectives defined. The approach is illustrated with reference to two typical areas of language need: applying for a job, and reading and writing of the type required on the site.

Teachers of French as a foreign language on a course of further training at the University of Paris III made a study of the teaching of the written language to beginners and of the materials used. They stressed the importance of student motivation and the differing needs of different groups of students, and also the primacy of comprehension over expression where written French was concerned. The artificiality of most of the reading and writing taught was strongly criticised and the whole concept of the transfer from oral to written language was called in question. (The problems of students illiterate in their own language were specifically excluded from this survey.)

See abstracts 78–264, –302.


Vocabulary teaching has two aspects: the quantitative or extensive, traditionally taught through centres of interest and lists of words (immediately forgotten by students because they did not learn their function); and the selective, i.e. selecting or rejecting from the stock of known words and learning their use – something not systematically taught in the past but considered to be acquired gradually. But in fact both aspects are complementary and reinforce each other. The approach suggested is illustrated in relation to an extract from a work by Pio Baroja but can be adapted for use with languages other than Spanish, taking into account the specific characteristics of each language.


In a survey conducted at the University of Texas at Austin, more than 2,000 lower-division students of Spanish and Portuguese (mainly non-language majors) were asked to describe their long-range professional goals, and to speculate how, if at all, the ability to understand, speak, read or write Spanish or Portuguese could be an asset. While over 80 per cent of the students...
surveyed indicated their belief that second-language competence could be valuable in their future work, their statements also provide reassuring evidence of the degree to which the cultural and humanistic goals of language study continue to be valued by the current generation of undergraduates. [Description of the survey and its results; implications for the development of specialised, career-oriented language courses and teaching materials.]

RUSSIAN  See abstracts 78–255/6