

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

73-258 Bennett, W. A. The place of linguistics in language teaching. *Modern Languages* (London), **54**, 1 (1973), 32-6.

Many language teachers have been disheartened by the complexity of language demonstrated by theoretical linguistics, and by the disputes between supporters of different theoretical models. [Developments in linguistic theory and the question of their practical implications are discussed.]

EPQ ED ADN

73-259 Halsall, E. European policy and national implications for modern-language teaching. *Modern Languages* (London), **53**, 4 (1972), 157-68.

Radical changes have taken place in the teaching of foreign languages during the last fifteen years. Pressures for change have come from several international bodies such as the Council for Cultural Cooperation at the Council of Europe and the several conferences of European Ministers of Education. Many recommendations have been presented concerning the promotion of effective teaching of the spoken language, the training of teachers and refresher courses, the development of research into methodology, the use of audio-visual aids, and teaching foreign languages in the primary school.

EPQ ED AFL 940

73-260 Ingram, Elizabeth. Differences of opinion. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3014** (2 March 1973), *Extra* p. 12.

Two fundamental problems in learning a foreign language are considered. First, an enormous amount of learning has to be done before

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a foreign language can actually be used because of the unpredictability of the language forms that may be encountered by a learner, even in a simple situation. More is required if the learner is to function so as not to be a lesser person when using the foreign language than when using his own language. Because the learning load is so large it will inevitably take a long time before a 'language', as it is defined by a school course, comes anywhere near the language which is required for actual use. Secondly, learning depends on practice and practice leads to boredom. [The audio-lingual theory and the cognitive code theory are defined and discussed.] It is the author's belief that there are several kinds of learning, all hierarchically related. If concept learning is to be more than relatively empty verbalizations with no consequences for actual behaviour, the integrity of concept learning ultimately depends on practice. [Problems of motivation and 'success' are discussed as they relate to adults and children and suggestions made for varying material for practice.] There is no evidence that concentration on spoken language will improve command of the written language, since students in general learn precisely what they have been taught. [The dangers and advantages of implicit and explicit teaching are set out, with examples. Short bibliography.]

[There are in all sixteen pages of articles in the *Modern Languages Extra*.]

EPQ ED

73-261 Titone, Renzo. Some factors underlying second-language learning. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 2 (1973). 110-20.

The analysis and classification of psycholinguistic factors is important because a psychologically based method of language teaching must strengthen the factors which promote success. Views on language aptitude vary. As Carroll suggests, it consists of ability to code auditory material, to recognize the grammatical functions of words in the context of sentences, to learn a large number of associations quickly, and to infer linguistic forms, rules and patterns from new linguistic content.

Emotional attitudes and social interests sometimes exert great

influence. [The author reviews some of the research, particularly an experiment in the adaptation of counselling relationships to foreign-language teaching which tended to suggest that older learners feel more insecure and threatened in learning a new language than younger learners do and that there is a threshold of confidence to be passed.] Learning can be facilitated by the establishment of an understanding and accepting relationship with the pupil. A comparison of the relative effectiveness of audio-lingual techniques and particular conventional procedures of language teaching made by Scherer and Wertheimer demonstrated that the audio-lingual method produces more desirable attitudes and better habituated direct association. A situationally oriented approach is more likely to stir motivation and provide better integration of linguistic performance with behavioural elements. [Bibliography.]

EPQ ED EG

73-262 **Zimová, Jaromíra.** Jazyková komunikace a vyučování cizím jazykům. [Language communication and foreign-language teaching.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), 16, 7 (1972/3), 297-306.

The Soviet foreign-language methodologist E. P. Shubin persuasively argues in his recent work, bearing the same title as this article, that methodological problems of foreign-language teaching cannot be separated from the psycholinguistic interpretation of the main types of language communicative activities (listening, speaking, reading, writing). The ability to participate in language communication (denoted as 'communicator') requires a difference of approach in these activities as they are marked by two processes of a fundamentally different nature - reception (R) (the receiving of the linguistic message) and transmission (T) (the transmission of the linguistic message). The consistent application of the psychological principles underlying (R) and/or (T) necessitates a new analysis of what is called the 'sign product', which is a completed carrier of semantic information that is transmitted or received for the purposes of the formation of a communicator for (R) or (T) in the foreign-language learner's mind. This analysis must be applied to the com-

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position of foreign-language textbooks and aids. In particular the various types of communicative activity must be reflected in the construction of exercises and therefore R-exercises and T-exercises must be clearly distinguished and their overlapping avoided. The psychological principles of the two types of language exercise are illustrated and discussed in detail.

EPQ ED EG

TESTING

73-263 Düwell, Henning. Die Integration von Tests in Fremdsprachenlehrwerken. [The integration of tests in foreign-language textbooks.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **20**, 2 (1973), 121-7.

The question of how far tests can be integrated in a foreign-language textbook depends on the aims and structure of the book. The aims must be detailed and capable of achievement, so that end behaviour can be measured. One test may fulfil two purposes but the results must be differentiated. General aptitude tests given before starting a foreign language act not as eliminating but as prognostic tests. Aptitude tests for individual languages would be valuable. Achievement tests can be suitably distributed through the book and should complement the teacher's judgement. Ideally tests should increase motivation. The choice of exercise or stimulus will depend on the skills to be tested, but questions of relevance, degree of difficulty and effects on the learning process must be borne in mind. The advantages of integrated tests are a unity of method in teaching and testing, regular checks on progress and early diagnosis of difficulties.

EPQ EHP ELP

73-264 Ingram, Elisabeth. English standards for foreign students. *University of Edinburgh Bulletin* (Edinburgh), **9**, 12 (May 1973), 4-5.

An investigation into the standard of English of students who are not native speakers of English, and their academic success, has been going

on at Edinburgh University since 1968/9. All first-year students from abroad are required to take a test of English as a foreign language, though there is no question of passing or failing. The test used is the English Language Battery (ELBA), developed and administered by the Department of Linguistics. Part I tests aural comprehension; Part II is written and tests grammar, vocabulary and comprehension. Each testing session lasts two-and-a-half hours. [Details given, with a table of the number of students tested over four years, and the numbers for whom examination results are known.] Two other tables indicate clearly that the higher the score on ELBA the greater the chance of passing academic examinations. Students scoring 70 per cent and above in general do well. Almost half those who score below 50 per cent fail their final examinations. (420) EHP EMT

73-265 Kollárik, Teodor. Niektoré poznatky so zist'ovaním spôsobilosti učiť sa cudzie jazyky. [Some comments on aptitude testing for foreign-language learning.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), 16, 5 (1972/3), 206-11.

An aptitude test, constructed on the basis of Carroll's MLAT, was administered to 113 adult students (aged twenty-nine to forty-nine) at the Institute for the further training of managerial staff in Slovchémie, Bratislava, Slovakia, at the beginning of their part-time release foreign-language course. The results of this test were matched with the result of the final examinations of the course (both oral and written) and fully proved the predictive validity of the aptitude test. It was also investigated to what extent the results of the aptitude test and of the examination results could be compared with the level of intelligence. IQ was measured by means of a non-verbal test which was not considered fully adequate, so its results were only of an informative and indicative value. The group of students with a high IQ achieved better results in the test and in the examination than the group with a lower IQ. The comparative results, however, do not indicate whether the good results in the examination are primarily due to a high level of IQ and/or to an aptitude for learning languages (apart from other factors determining success in learning). But the

relations existing between the parameters, which have been computed, justify tests for assessing the aptitude for learning languages and demonstrate their potential.

EPQ EHG EMV

73-266 Stoldt, Peter H. Kontrolle mündlicher Sprachfertigkeiten in Unterricht und Prüfung. [The assessment of oral linguistic skills in the classroom and examinations.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **20**, 1 (1973), 33-42.

The methods used in the oral examination in English of the *Volkshochschule* certificate for adults could equally well be applied to school children. Three oral skills are distinguished: (1) *Discrimination* – ways of testing the ability to differentiate between similar-sounding words or sentences. (2) *Aural/listening comprehension* – the pupils distinguishes between pairs of homophones or responds by actions to simple commands. He sits a series of aural comprehension tests with pictures or printed multiple-choice answers. At a higher level more elaborate tapes may be used, but care should be taken to avoid creating tests of memory or of specialized knowledge. Pre-testing the questions individually can help to obviate these dangers. (3) *Oral production*: (a) *Reading aloud* – which should not be judged by general impression but marked for specific points; three types of test are described. It is essential to keep the assessment of reading aloud separate from the assessment of other oral skills. (b) *Oral production* – various types of guided conversation are described, some of which use pictures. These methods are more objective than the use of free conversation; but it is felt that the latter should be part of every oral test, if only for its ‘back-wash’ effect on teaching methods. [Numerous examples given. Bibliography.]

(420) EPQ EHP ATD (943)

73-267 Townson, Michael. Testing oral skills at university level. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 2 (1973), 199-205.

Attempts made at the University of Erlangen to improve the oral examinations in English are described. Free conversation between examiner and student was the traditional form of test and its ‘natural-

ness' was felt to be more important than the fact that it was hard to score. To overcome the subjectivity of the test, certain safeguards were introduced. An evaluation sheet, listing all the features to be observed and providing a rating scale for each, was drawn up, a criterion of 'near-nativeness' of speech being adopted. [Details of the sheet are given.] In practice, however, it was found difficult to distinguish fluency from grammar and vocabulary, and between the various levels of auditory comprehension. It was also realized that fluency and speed of delivery are influenced by factors unconnected with command of English. It was decided that the assessment of fluency was sufficiently covered under other headings. A trial examination was conducted to eliminate discrepancies between examiners' judgement, but almost total agreement was found on every test. The problem of converting points into numerical marks has not been solved. There is the question of how much importance should be attached to each feature and also of where to place the pass mark.

(420) EPQ EHP EMT ATD (943)

TEACHER TRAINING

73-268 **Girard, Denis.** L'expérience pédagogique acquise par l'assistant. [The teaching experience acquired by the foreign-language assistant.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 97 (1973), 97-101.

Prospective teacher or not, the assistant goes abroad ostensibly to improve his handling of the target language and increase his experience of life in the country. He is quite unprepared professionally for teaching, is not recruited as a responsible teacher, is expected to speak his mother tongue and talk about his native country. Despite these facts 43 per cent of a sample of assistants thought their year abroad would help to prepare them for a career in teaching; only 23 per cent thought their prime gain would be in knowledge of the foreign country. Reasons adduced for these beliefs are that students experience the organization of education from the inside, glimpse the drafting of curricula, learn to live with colleagues in the common

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room, and discover the importance of being socially accepted by the adolescent groups they meet for conversation practice. They study objectively for the first time aspects of their native tongue which they have previously taken for granted. Not less important is their participation in extra-curricular activities. The most useful feature of their experience is that they are engaged in teaching conversation, for conversation is the essence of language teaching. The ideal would be for teachers to make a similar visit when they have already had considerable foreign-language teaching experience in their native country.

[This whole issue is devoted to the foreign-language assistant.]

(440) EKF ELJ

73-269 McAleese, W., Raymond and Derek Unwin. A bibliography of microteaching. *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology* (London), **10**, 1 (1973), 40-54.

Microteaching is defined as a form of simulated teaching, including some use of 'reduced complexity' (eg small classes, shorter lessons and simpler objectives) and of feedback (eg objective assessment and videotape playback). [The bibliography on microteaching brings up to date the authors' previous bibliography (1970) and includes work on simulation in general.]

EPQ EKF ELV

TEACHING METHODS

73-270 Hawkins, Eric W. Teaching modern languages across the ability range. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **1** (1973), 6-25.

Expansion in the teaching of French in Britain has brought to the fore the double question of whether, and how, those pupils judged unsuitable for an academic curriculum should be taught a modern language. Language teaching is unique in that there exists a model (the native speaker) against whom pupil and teacher can be measured. A great deal learnt at school is soon forgotten, and often it is the attitudes left by the experience that matter.

Less able pupils show in their use of their native language the influence of their restricted home background. The language classroom calls for qualities counteracting the language habits these pupils bring to school, and the working-class child has often found in the study of a foreign culture a new dignity and acceptance. Study of a foreign language forces pupils to compare concepts. Aural discrimination practice arouses children's curiosity and critical awareness. Because they imply no criticism of the pupils' own speech, comparisons are emotionally neutral. Foreign-language study is an important part of the programme of verbal education needed by all children, but especially by the less able, to whom communication skills can also be taught.

Extrinsic motivation is dependent on the reward work brings. Parental encouragement is a key factor. [Techniques are suggested for increasing parental support.] Intrinsic motivation is provided by attraction towards the new learning for its own sake. The foreign-language teacher's problem is to find ways of challenging his pupils with incongruities that are not too dissimilar from their previous experience. The ear has to be educated, and the language teacher should collaborate with the teacher of music in daily ear-training. Medium-term memory depends on linking the new material with what has already been stored. Linking items by association is less efficient than linking by insight into pattern. Pupils' short-term memories differ greatly and must be tested regularly.

In the teaching programme there must be as much individual attention as possible. (The disadvantaged child's severest handicap is deprivation of 'adult time'.) Group work can often be taken by trainee teachers and older pupils. Links with schools abroad should be nurtured, and there should be exchanges of pupils and class visits to the foreign country. Children pass through three stages of learning: enactive, iconic, and symbolic. [The author makes a number of practical suggestions for the presentation of the foreign language at every stage.]

(440) EPQ EL EFN

- 73-271 **Iliewa, Anna.** Bewusstheit und Imitation im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Conscious knowledge and imitation in foreign-language teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **10**, 2 (1973), 75-84.

A balance must be achieved between conscious knowledge and automatic reproduction. The learner needs to know the structure and the communicative function of a unit of language. The ability to transfer knowledge of an utterance to a new situation is vital for foreign-language learning and for stimulating thought processes. A basic knowledge of how the language works allows a student to work independently and to correct his own errors. Mere repetition without understanding is useless for learning and retaining what has been learned.

The timing of imparting language information is crucial. After typical examples of a particular structure are introduced and repeated in a situational context, rules can be formulated by teacher and pupil together. Repetition then reinforces memory of the form, meaning and use of the new item. If conscious knowledge comes after initial imitation it confirms the perceptive student's intelligent guess and enables others to use the information in further work. Under conscious knowledge can be included rules, grammatical tables, guidance on methods of working and the sequencing of material into a logical progression.

EPQ EL EG

- 73-272 **Wilß, Wolfram.** Die Funktion der Übersetzung im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [The function of translation in modern-language teaching.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **26**, 1 (1973), 16-24.

The use of translation in language teaching was discredited by linguists influenced by Skinnerian behaviourism, with its emphasis on the internalization of linguistic structures by repeated pattern practice. Moreover, translation was seen as a specific skill in itself often too difficult for the pupil's abilities. However, as the theory of language learning based on habit formation by reinforcement gave way to a

cognitive-code learning theory, a place could again be found for translation, especially into the mother tongue.

An example is given of an English sentence that may be translated into German in three different ways. These translations should be considered on four planes: (1) the descriptive plane, where the sentences are broken up into their immediate constituents and compared and contrasted from a grammatical viewpoint, then from the viewpoint of a literal and non-literal translation [diagrams]; (2) the explanatory plane, where the pupil consciously attempts a choice of different translations and through discussion is brought to realize the correlations between economy of language and syntactical complexity; (3) the evaluative plane, where the writer differentiates between the semantic and stylistic equivalents in a translation, and (4) the applicative plane, where through retranslation the pupil becomes aware of interlingual equivalents, similarities and differences in structure. Translation undoubtedly has a role to play in language teaching, though finding the right method of using it with advanced pupils is a question of experience. [Copious references.]

(430) EPQ EL ARG (420)

CLASS METHODS

73-273 Allen, Robert L. Using drills creatively. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington DC), 10, 6 (1972), 4-13.

Teaching English without using the learners' language or introducing any formal grammar is a time-consuming and strenuous business. Pantomime, humour, and the use of odd objects will make a lesson more lively, but students still associate *water* with their own word for it. It is useful to supplement these techniques with a judicious use of the learners' language. [Examples from the author's experience of teaching English in Turkey.]

In the initial stages of foreign-language learning it is important to learn the items that signal grammatical meaning. Possibly they are best taught by means of mechanical drills, in particular by drills involving nonsense words. Opposites should not be taught in the

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same lesson. [The author describes how he taught different kinds of words with the aid of different colours.] The emphasis should be placed on teaching that helps learners grasp the new structures to be learnt and immediately gives them an opportunity to create sentences of their own.

Much programmed material requires the learner to go on practising a pattern even after he has mastered it. Sentences can be read from some substitution tables without thought of the meaning. [A teaching diagram is described that can be used in place of such drills.] Interest is maintained by keeping drills short and rapid. [Examples are given of drills on the use of the indefinite article, the possessive suffix, on recognizing and producing vowel sounds, on verbal forms, tag questions, and stress.]

420 EPQ ELD

PRONUNCIATION

73-274 Davison, Walter F. Preliminary considerations in writing pronunciation drills. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 2 (1973), 150-7.

[The author concerns himself mainly with the preliminary problems to be faced in working out materials for the teaching of segmental phonemes to elementary and intermediate adult students of English.] The units to be presented must be sequenced, and the students' language background must be taken into consideration. The next step is to collect suitable words containing problem sounds or clusters and to begin writing the drills. The materials need to be arranged in such a way that the student is first made aware of the problem. If a problem is known to exist, recognition drills should precede production drills, but it is unnecessary to keep rigidly to this pattern. Non-contrastive drills are sometimes better placed after contrastive drills, rather than before them. There should be a progression from simple to less simple items. Previously introduced material should be revised but sounds and words not already presented should be excluded. Pronunciation problems must be presented in the context of real language. Many grammatical or transformational drills can be

adapted for pronunciation work. Tongue-twisters and rhymes also help to lend variety. [Ways are suggested to make the content of drills more interesting.] (420) EPQ ELD EMV AJT

MIXED ABILITY

73-275 Wheeldon, Peter. Mixed ability classes. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **11**, 1 (1973), 39-48.

The author discusses the use of the language laboratory for foreign-language teaching in the first two years of the comprehensive school, and gives in schematic form an organizational framework for teaching pupils of a wide range of ability at class, group, and individual levels. All language teaching goes through the stages of presentation, practice and exploitation, with periodical testing. In the two-year common course, the skills are important in this order: listening, speaking and reading, writing. The language laboratory uniquely offers the learner the opportunity of listening to the language as long as he wants, and at his own pace, and of speaking it for long periods. The language laboratory learner is also involved in doing as well as listening.

Presentation can be done either in the classroom or in the laboratory. The practice stage offers the greatest variety of activity. [Detail of various types of listening exercise is given for discrimination of sounds, discrimination of stress, situational meaning, word meaning, and grammatical meaning.] Speaking follows a long way behind listening. The main levels are repetition, reproduction, manipulation drills, and short narration or description. The practice stage is followed by an exploitation stage, which the author considers under the headings 'listening' and 'speaking'. EPQ ELD EFN ELY EMS

73-276 Thacker, Jean. Conversation classes for Asians. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3018** (30 March 1973), 24.

An experiment in adult education which began four years ago is described. Conversation classes are held weekly in the Language

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Centre for Immigrant Pupils in Reading. These are supplemented by regular home visiting and opportunities to make social contacts are provided. The emphasis is on practical oral teaching and the women (largely Indian, Pakistani and Polish) are taught in three separate but flexible groups (beginners, intermediate and advanced). English is taught through Keep Fit classes and a variety of other activities involving native speakers, and a lending library is available. The children of members of the club are looked after in a playgroup. It is planned to expand the classes to include English and West Indian children in special need.

EPQ ELD EMV ENT ATD

VISUAL AIDS

73-277 **Hall, V. P.** Applications of the overhead projector (OHP) to the teaching of English as a foreign or second language. *English Language Teaching* (London), 27, 2 (1973), 165-70.

The uses of the overhead projector are described under the headings of oral practice, the teaching of reading, introducing new words, introducing the past conditional, and oral and written composition. The OHP slide provides a context for the use of sentences. Unlike the blackboard sketch slides can be preserved. New words and sentences can be written on the slide and dealt with one at a time. Here the advantage of the OHP is its apparent sophistication, which appeals to post-primary pupils and adults. The past conditional can be contextualized by a sequence of slides. For oral and written composition a story-telling sequence is needed. [The teaching procedures are described in detail.]

(420) EPQ ELD ELS

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

73-278 **Attwood, D. C.** Language laboratory work in a 'traditional' German department. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), 11, 1 (1973), 33-8.

A basic problem is the lack of suitable teaching materials for more advanced students. It was decided in the German department of the

University of Hull that language laboratory work must be incorporated in an existing course. Conversation practice, prose composition, and translation from German were retained, with some modifications. Pronunciation practice in the language laboratory sometimes replaced the conversation class, which was stimulated by the occasional use of taped material. The translation class was sometimes replaced by comprehension exercises, re-telling and translation practice in the laboratory. Demonstration tapes were used in conjunction with lectures on German. There were also prose composition classes in the laboratory. [The procedure followed with prose composition, seen and unseen, is described in detail.] It is a disadvantage of the occasional introduction of a laboratory session that there is insufficient time for preparatory and follow-up lessons. A scientific assessment of the new material or method is also made difficult. However, time was allowed at the end of each session for a discussion of the content of the material and of the method.

EPQ ELD ELY EMT

73-279 Oltmann, Klaus. Sprachlabor und Anfangsunterricht. [The language laboratory and the teaching of beginners.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **22**, 3 (1973), 144-8.

In the early stages of language learning it is necessary to combine the use of a language laboratory with the personal encounter of live teaching, which is vital for establishing elementary communicative skills. The specific possibilities of different types of language laboratory for different levels must be established and exploited, so that urgently needed audio-visual and audio-lingual courses for these laboratories can be developed. [Subject room for first year pupils, a combined laboratory and classroom, is described in detail.]

EPQ ELD ELY EMS

73–280 Zolotnitskaya, S. P. and others. Дидактический материал для парной работы в языковой лабораторий. [Teaching material for pair work in the language laboratory.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), **1** (1973), 64–70.

The opportunity for oral practice can be increased in a language laboratory equipped with a telephone link. In pair work one pupil completes the exercise, the other acts as a control. Specially prepared teaching material is necessary. The authors suggest a collection of cards of instructions should be made, each card having a different set of contents, for instance, for pupil A: exercise one and key to exercise two; for pupil B: key to exercise one, and exercise two. Material should have a communicative purpose, and instructions to textbook exercises could be rephrased to give this effect. Visual aids also help [example]. Exercises can involve the expression of agreement, disagreement, surprise, an answer, or any other form of response. Phrases to be practised in the exercises can be printed on the instruction cards. Instructions should be clear and simple. With older pupils the work can also be based thematically, allowing a guided variation of answers [example], or on a question and answer basis. Pair work is more effective if preceded by imitation drills relating to the new material. Experimental work in some Moscow schools shows that the language laboratory increases the oral practice time per pupil, the range and rate of speech, and the interest in learning the foreign language. Paired work reduces the psychological barrier to speaking a foreign language.

(420) EPQ ELD ELY ATD (440)

ENGLISH *See also abstracts* 73–264, –266/7, –272/4, –277, –280, –288

73–281 Breitzkreuz, Hartmut. ‘False Friends’ und ihre unterrichtliche Behandlung. [‘False friends’ and how to cope with them in teaching.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **22**, 2 (1973), 70–4.

Every German teacher of English has to cope with the problem of

words which appear similar to those in the mother tongue but which differ in one of several ways. Three main types of 'false friends' are considered. The first type consists of words which differ in spelling, eg *metal/Metall*. Such words should be listed in a notebook, the spelling differences underlined in colour, and the tricky letters set out in a parallel list [examples]. The second type involves words in German for which there are two meanings in English, eg *Preis: price/prize* [further examples given]. There is a connected group of English word pairs which have similar spelling but which are different in meaning and which are translated by separate German words, eg *economic – wirtschaftlich; economical – sparsam*. The meaning of these words should be made clear by contrasting sample sentences. The third type concerns cases where the English meaning of a German word is different from the English word which appears similar, eg *get – bekommen; become – werden* [a list of examples is given]. These can be handled by organizing an occasional team-quiz in class.

420 EPQ EL ALD 430

73–282 Connolly, Patrick G. How to teach families of words by comparison. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 2 (1973), 171–6.

The writer analyses the use of the verbs, *shove, drag, fling, shift, heave, pitch, push, jerk, haul, hurl, toss, tow* and *pull*, classifying them according to the direction and medium of movement, and indicating how such a classification can be applied to teaching. He shows that a similar approach can be made to the teaching of words (such as verbs of desire and verbs containing a negative idea) which have important similarities and dissimilarities and can be used in the same sentence. A framework is provided which the student can use himself. [Short bibliography.]

420 EPQ EL ALD

73–283 Grannis, Oliver C. The definite article conspiracy in English. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich) **22**, 2 (1972), 275–89.

Teachers of English as a foreign language find difficulty in teaching

the definite article, and often fail because of inadequacies in most descriptions of article usage. Structural and generative-transformational grammars pay insufficient attention to the definite article, and because they do not give central importance to meaning can deal only superficially with problems of reference. Generative-transformational grammar attempts to account for the definite article on the basis of a restrictive relative clause or of a previously recurring indefinite article. [The author gives reasons for rejecting the two hypotheses as unsatisfactory and unsound.] It is not necessarily true that previous knowledge is always behind a decision to use the definite article, but it is an important factor.

Traditional descriptions of article usage have been much more successful than those made by transformational grammar, but nobody has found a principle to account for all the uses of the definite article within a single conceptual framework. Certain 'frozen' uses of the definite article are predictable and have to be taught separately. Other uses must be accounted for on the basis of uniqueness within a conversational situation. The speaker must assess his listener's knowledge and expectations. If he has reason to believe that the listener has enough information to help him focus on a single referent or group of referents, or if he is providing him with such information, then he is justified in using the definite article, and is inviting or compelling the listener to share in a 'conspiracy' of uniqueness.

420 EPQ ED AK

FRENCH *See also abstracts 73-268, -270, -280*

73-284 Lerat, P. Le champ linguistique des verbes 'savoir' et 'connaître': problèmes de méthode dans l'apprentissage du vocabulaire. [The linguistic field of the verbs 'savoir' and 'connaître': problems of method in vocabulary teaching.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **20**, 1 (1972), 53-63.

Many attempts have been made to systematize the teaching of vocabulary, for example by lexical sets, but conceptual fields are not linguistic fields, nor do semantic fields always coincide. *Connaître* and *savoir*

are in opposition in several ways: experience/notion; subjective/objective; concrete/abstract. This rule of semantic selection determines certain syntactic constraints: *connaître* cannot be followed by *que* + proposition; *savoir* cannot bear a prefix. Derivatives of *connaître*, with prefixes or in verbal groups, point to further oppositions: discontinuous/continuous; animate/inanimate. All these oppositions set the rules for use of both verbs.

Two more lines of investigation must ensue: (1) to study the semantic relations of the two verbs, from which it appears that aspect can function as a sememic feature: *savoir* is *avoir appris*; (2) to study utterances which are acceptable in performance. Teaching can benefit particularly from analysing performance, from which derive common usage or the norm, grammar of utterance (technique of discourse), and idiom and clichés. [Examples of use of both verbs illustrate these four ramifications.] This system is only valid synchronically.

440 EPQ ED ADF ADN

73–285 **Rivers, Wilga M.** Nos étudiants veulent la parole. [Our students want to talk.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 94 (1973), 23–30.

Structured courses and controlled exercises are still not leading to spontaneity of communication in a second language. [Quotations from students in 1948 and 1970 compared.] The problem is to move from knowledge of the structure of the target language to the deployment of that knowledge in interpersonal communication. The danger is the development of ‘pseudo-communication’, where the student correctly combines elements in new forms, but does not produce ideas emanating from himself. Even exercises based on real situations (‘What did you have for breakfast?’) may produce pseudo-communicative answers as seeming to the student less risky than attempts at true expression, while trap situations where the stock answer is inappropriate [example] are suspect as being oriented to the teaching situation rather than to true communication.

It is necessary from the beginning of the course to give the learner the opportunity to use the target language for communication. This

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does not replace, but supplements and develops, the process of training for competence, and is an integral part of that process. The session must be based on the interests of the learner. [Twelve categories of interpersonal communication are listed and examined.] Correction should not be made until after the communication session, preferably with learner participation in the identification and correction of errors. [This article also appears (in English) in *TESOL Quarterly* 6, 1 (1972).]

440 EPQ EL ATD

GERMAN *See also abstracts* 73–272, –281

73–286 Becker, Norbert. Versuch einer Übungstypologie für den fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Attempt to establish a drill typology for subject-oriented foreign-language teaching.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 1 (1973), 1–10.

As a new approach to foreign-language teaching, Spanish students of mathematics, physics and chemistry will be taught to develop reading comprehension of scientific German. The required level of understanding can be superficial or profound, according to the importance of the texts, but in any case the aim is to acquire only passive knowledge of the language. Apart from nouns there are few other indispensable information carriers in highly specialized scientific texts, and many categories of words and grammatical structures are redundant for the purpose of passive comprehension. The knowledge of vocabulary, which should also be passive, should be limited to the most frequently used words particularly characteristic of the specific subject. Bearing in mind these limitations, a number of drills have been devised. (They are taken from a book of specialized German for Spanish scientists soon to be published, of which N. Becker was co-author.) [Nine kinds of drills and exercises are listed and illustrated: missing-word drill, substitution drill, transformation drill, decision drill, illustrative drill, reading comprehension drill, vocabulary drill, questions relating to the text, and specifically oriented sense analysis.]

430 EPQ EL ANG ASP ATL (946)

73-287 Dickson, Keith A. Let's make a 'Hörspiel'. *Modern Languages* (London), **53**, 4 (1972), 174-7.

A project is described in which pupils write their own dramatic dialogue, and then make a tape-recorded *Hörspiel* out of it. It developed from a study of German ballads, treated on an oral basis, in a mixed-ability class of boys aged sixteen. Each ballad was divided into sections, new vocabulary was explained, the ballad read aloud and recapitulated with a simple *Nacherzählung* exercise and a rudimentary form of literary criticism in German. The class wrote a prose synopsis on an outline provided, and finally a scenario. Groups worked on different scenes, which were pooled and marked, and a corrected version was written up by each contributor. The best were collated as a basis for the final script. [The collective adaptation of Schiller's *Die Bürgschaft* is described and sample excerpts quoted.] The dialogues were recorded and music, sound effects and a prologue were provided by the boys. [Other German ballads are suggested, and other genres.]

430 EPQ ELD EMS EPS

SPANISH

73-288 Sancho, Anthony R. Spanish: a new approach for bilingual programs. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), **6**, 4 (1972), 333-8.

A description is given of two methods adopted to develop co-ordinate bilingualism in Spanish and English among children. The children had first to be made aware of the two languages as separate systems corresponding to cultural entities that are part of their environment. Teacher-directed instruction was given in Spanish as a native language and as a foreign language. Because of the diversity in command of English, the instruction was in part individualized. Bilingual switching lessons included practice in identifying and producing the two languages in response to visual and verbal clues. Rhetoric lessons, using dramatization as a means, aimed at developing the children's ability to express themselves while using the language as a means

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of cultural understanding. The second method involved the formation of small heterogeneous groups. [The advantages of doing this are listed.] Task cards and varied instructional displays were used. A teacher's most important task is to establish an atmosphere conducive to the social as well as the academic growth of the child. Day-to-day demonstration in the school of the value attached to the language the child brings to the classroom is essential.

460 EPQ ELD EFG AFG (420)

RUSSIAN

73-289 **Beznosenko, L. N.** О некоторых видах работ по устной речи на продвинутом этапе. [On some aspects of work to develop oral ability at an advanced stage.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1972), 64-7.

The article deals with teaching Russian for special purposes. Practice in developing oral work can be divided into three kinds: preparatory, pre-speech and speech. The aim of preparatory exercises is to master certain language habits. After the text is read, the transition from text to exercises is made by gradual stages: by exercises in observation, imitation, habit formation, transformation, and by guided sentence composition. These can be broadened by introducing other known constructions. The pre-speech exercises test how well the new material has been acquired by means of question from both teacher and students, and by multiple choice answers. Schematic diagrams can be used. Students are encouraged to use the maximum variation of structure. Speech exercises should enable students to express themselves freely on the topic. Use can be made of material which the students have covered in their specialist work. Diagrams and tables will help. Some students are called on to make the initial contribution, others are asked to develop the subject. The work can be extended to more general topics.

491.7 EPQ EL ATD

73-290 Curtin, Constance and others. Teaching the translation of Russian by computer. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **56**, 6 (1972), 354-60.

At the University of Illinois a special Russian reading course has been devised which teaches the decoding of technical and scholarly Russian prose by visual signals from a computer. The grammar is limited to the requirements of the specialized course, and each student is taught at his own pace with the aid of the PLATO computer system or Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations. [Sample units of instruction on transliteration, translation and grammar are given.] The student studies a list of vocabulary before running through an exercise at the computer. He is drilled until he responds satisfactorily before going on to the next item. Brief grammatical explanations are shown on the screen, and reinforcement and remedial sequences are provided. The computer keeps track of the kinds of error made by each student, and individual help is given to overcome them. [Details of teaching case-endings and verb forms, numerals, collectives and dates.] Timed drills are used to increase the speed of translation: at one point the student chooses whether to be given two, five or ten seconds for his responses. [Description of participial drills as a prelude to translation exercises.] An account is given of the Sentence Judger which identifies only key words (or their synonyms) in the student's answers as correct, or not: other words are allowed, but not required, and specific words may be prohibited from appearing. [Examples of the variety of correct student responses that the computer will accept.] Graduates and undergraduates taking the PLATO course have in general learned more quickly and efficiently than those conventionally taught. [Assessment was made by an outsider and figures are given.]

491.7 EPQ ELD EMT ARG ASP AXM

73–291 **Gentilhomme, Yves.** Esquisse de méthodologie pour un enseignement accéléré du russe, véhicule d'information scientifique. [An outline of a more rapid method of teaching scientists to understand scientific texts in Russian.] *IUT: Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy) **18**, (1972), *Langues Vivantes* **13**, numéro spécial: langue de spécialité, 40–91.

Existing intensive courses do not give scientific experts adequate training in the scanning and decoding of Russian specialist texts. A scale can be drawn up of the scientists' needs, extending from the ability to scan a table of contents in order to assess a book's usefulness to the skill required to deliver a specialist lecture to a Russian audience. This order of priorities may clash with the order of priorities for efficient language learning, but it is dictated by student motivation, which is highly important. The students span wide ranges of variation in age, linguistic maturity, specialist maturity, academic disciplines and personality types. They cope better with Russian if they have prior experience of inflected and syntactically complex languages. The teacher of Russian who has a literary training must adjust to his students' quite different aspirations and must plan his training sequences accordingly. Rather than use lengthy verbal explanations he should exploit diagrams, graphs and even formulae. There can be a healthy educative interaction between the scientist explaining his field to the language teacher and the teacher elucidating the patterns of Russian to the scientist.

As he deals with a foreign text the scientist draws on his stock of knowledge to interpret the content, proceeding from a global awareness of the subject matter by successive deductions, approximations and refinements to detailed comprehension. Mathematical formulae, names of processes, the characteristic layout of deductions from experiments and hypotheses are all familiar. For his part the teacher displays the patterns of meaning which Russian develops through its morphological variations. He gives special training in the interpretation of cursive script and the transliteration of units of measurement. The scientist can benefit if he learns to read mathematical equations in Russian.

Information retrieval lends itself to the establishment of formalized procedures; thus a scientist can use, as it were 'algorithmically', a check list of a dozen instructions in sequence to save both time and effort when scanning a foreign text. He will need training in the use of monolingual scientific dictionaries and in compiling glossaries for his own specialist use. The Russian teacher can exploit various theories of language in order to contrive teaching schemes [examples from structuralism and transformational generative grammar]. For handling syntax a modified form of Tesnière's approach has proved the most effective. [Example of a typical decoding sequence which displays: the use of 'algorithmic' processes; the interaction of the student's prior knowledge of Russian grammar; a schematic layout of syntactic relationships within the text. Over 100 bibliographical references.]

491.7 EPQ ELD ANG

73-292 Kazakova, K. A. Упражнения в составлении предложений как средство активизации изучаемого языкового материала. [Exercises in sentence construction as a means of activating the language material being studied.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 5 (1972), 58-64.

The active construction of sentences is advocated as one of the surer methods of giving pupils attending non-Russian schools a practical means of acquiring the Russian language, particularly in its spoken form. Exercises in sentence construction enable the pupils to assimilate speech models at the same time as grammar rules; psychological evidence is presented to show that conscious participation in these exercises strengthens the memorization of the various linguistic points. The article is divided into three main sections. The first gives a detailed description of how teacher-guided exercises in sentence construction may be used, especially in the teaching of Russian cases [examples]. Exercises of this kind are usually thought suitable for eleven- to twelve-year-olds, but may well be of interest to older groups. The second section analyses four possible forms of independent sentence building by the pupils acting on instructions from

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the teacher [numerous examples]. The third section deals with the value of response to questions and suggests three categories of questions which may be used to prompt pupils to either a structured or an unstructured response. [Several long examples are given from a wide variety of source materials as well as a verbatim scheme of work.]

491.7 EPQ ELD EMS AT

73-293 Terent'ev, L. T. Поэтапное формирование у учащихся умений и навыков составления сложных предложений. [Phased teaching of compound sentence construction skills.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **6** (1972), 58-62.

Many pupils in non-Russian eight-year and middle schools do not use compound sentences when they communicate in Russian or will construct them incorrectly. Observations carried out in a Chuvash school showed that only 30 per cent of the senior class used compound sentences in their Russian speech and many pupils avoided using them altogether. Most Chuvash mistakes occur from the wrong use of conjunctions and other link words, and of the aspect and tense of verbs in main and subordinate clauses. Pupils appear not to be taught clause construction effectively and usually form compound sentences using their native language structure as a model. Analyses of fifty observed lessons indicated that ineffectual teaching methods were used, in particular in attempting to teach subordinate clauses all at one go. A new method which took account of the peculiarities of the pupils' native language was proposed and tested. It defined three essential stages in the teaching of compound sentences. First, the pupils should be made aware of the structural and semantic peculiarities of each type of subordinate clause and the essential elements of each should be defined. Then these various elements should be analysed using specially prepared sentences and finally complete compound sentences should be constructed according to given examples. [Examples of Chuvash mistakes in Russian, and exercises

designed to eradicate them.] The new method was tested with a senior class from an eight-year school; another senior class was used as a control group. Most of the exercises were worked through orally. The results showed a convincing 20 per cent superiority of performance in the experimental group over the control group.

491.7 EPQ EL EMS AKN ATD