Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

72–300 Leont'ev, A. A. Мышление на иностранном языке как психологическая и методическая проблема. [Thinking in a foreign language from the psychological and methodological viewpoints.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), **1** (1972), 24–30.

A careful consideration is made of the term 'thinking' in a particular language. Language is not able to dictate the path of intellectual activity but acts rather as a support for it and as a means of its realization.

Four stages in the process from thought to its expression in speech are detailed: first, motivation by a problem situation; secondly, formulation and analyses of the situation; thirdly, a start is made on solving the situation, and inner programming of the nature of the required utterance occurs by means of subjective coding units, the speech intensity of which varies with the individual; fourthly, there is a realization of the utterance required by means of an objective linguistic code [the details of this are discussed as a dual process]. Although various codes may be used following the third stage where speech activity is programmed in accordance with thought processes, it is stressed that this point relates only to speech and not to the processes of thinking as such. Less weight is therefore attached to Belyayev's idea that learning a foreign language entails switching thought processes in one language to those in another, than to the possibility that each learner uses his own personal type of coding units when thinking and before verbalizing his thought in a foreign language. The term 'thinking in a foreign language' should therefore be regarded with caution in the light of these points.

(491.7) EPQ ED AD ARG

72–301   Millar, Elizabeth and Eva Kobersky. Semantic problems. *Contact* (Berne), **18/19** (1972), 38–42.

Our understanding of an utterance must be based on: (1) an assumption that the language is stable, (2) the context in which the speaker finds himself and the aids to understanding he gives. The differences between languages do not lie merely in the different names given by different speech communities to objects of human experience. In wide fields of activity there are no parallels in the human experience of each speech community. Belgian students brought up on the grammar-translation method are unable to react satisfactorily in communication situations in English. [The authors discuss and illustrate the semantic problems of French-speaking students learning English.] If mother-tongue interference is to be reduced to a minimum, the foreign language must be assimilated in foreign-language situations in its own structure. Foreign-language learning should start with simple every-day situations and appropriate language reaction. Semantic units have their full value only in context. Meanings can be defined by translation but this gives only a rough equivalent. After the language has been mastered orally and a spontaneous way of expression developed, the student will also be able to cope with writing situations.

(440) EPQ ED ADF ATD AYM (420)

72–302   Willis, Frank. Linguists for a united Europe. *Times Higher Education Supplement* (London), **30** (5 May 1972), 14.

The newer modern-language degree courses which tackle linguistic and cultural differences are discussed in the light of Britain's signature to the Treaty of Accession. The emphasis is on communication, on a sound practical command of the modern spoken and written forms of the foreign language, and importance is given to an intimate knowledge of the culture in which the language operates. The main emphasis is on non-literary aspects. The student must spend a full academic year abroad, in some cases in industrial or commercial firms. Background studies are often firmly based on courses lasting one or two years on the politics, economics or social structures of the areas where the target language is spoken. The schools' examining boards,

252

and consequently school syllabuses, are described as obstacles, in general, to the new courses. Finance is another constraint since practical and inter-disciplinary courses are more labour-intensive than conventional literature-based courses. Figures are given for the output of graduates from the newer programmes in British tertiary institutions. [Cartoon.] **942 EPQ ED EFG EMT 940**

72–303 Bell, Paul W. Bilingual education – a second look. *TESOL Newsletter* (Washington DC), **5**, 3/4 (1971), 7, 29–30.

In 1961 the Dade County Public Schools, a large urban system, undertook to educate Spanish-speaking children in their own language and culture, as well as in English. Qualified American teachers were trained in teaching English as a second language and former Cuban teachers were employed as aides. The confidence of Cuban immigrant children remains high, and the original curriculum has been expanded and defined. In 1963 the Coral Way Elementary School offered *all* pupils instruction for half the day in Spanish and half in English. The pupils will continue this programme until they leave High School. Other bilingual courses, chiefly for Spanish-speakers or Indians, are now available, all using an audio-lingual approach. The Dade County Schools project, which has been running sufficiently long for evaluation, seems to have achieved success: by the sixth grade Cuban children are equally proficient in reading in the two languages.

Although qualified bilingual teachers are in short supply, curricula and materials to support bilingual education are being nationally developed in California, Texas and Florida. In Florida a Spanish Curricula Development Center has been established to support bilingual education in the primary grades. Programmes are so designed that a school will be able to use any single strand or combination of strands. [Examples given.] The staff at the Center reflect the national target populations, and some thousands of children will be involved in the field testing of curricula. It is hoped that, with federal support, more university courses will be offered to train bilingual teachers. **(460) EPQ ED EFG EKF ENW 973**

253

72-304 MacGowan, Kenneth. Language teaching and RSLA. *NALA* (York), **3** (1972), 5–8.

A survey of the past decade of language teaching reveals the need for vigorous re-examination of motives and methods, particularly in view of an increasing and increasingly mature school population. Comprehensive schools will offer the greatest challenge. Intensive language teaching is proposed for those most likely to benefit. Foreign-language teaching is an exact science, and should be based on a thorough study of the mother tongue, with stress on accuracy of expression. There should be a parallel and solid course on European studies for those whose interests lie elsewhere. Useful language and cultural contacts should be developed. If minority languages are to be added to French, an uneconomic staffing ratio or the careful planning of peripatetic teachers must be accepted.   **EPQ ED EFN**

TESTING

72-305 Bubeníková, Libuše. Formy jazykových testů. [Language-testing techniques.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **15,** 5 (1971/2), 198–207; **15,** 6 (1971/2), 253–64; **15,** 7 (1971/2), 298–307.

Authors of foreign-language achievement tests must consider three basic questions: which aspects of the language are to be tested, which techniques or forms should be employed (recognition or production testing), and which material is to be built into the test.

Response-item techniques (recognition testing) include the choice between alternatives, the correct ordering of items according to meaning, reading aloud (not allowing for group testing), dictation (partial dictation, ie filling the blanks in a text is considered useful for the regular assessment of progress), dictation and its translation (only recommended for testing interpreters), texts with inserted words (valuable to test reading comprehension speed in the foreign language at an advanced level only).

Multiple-choice techniques deserve special attention in foreign-language recognition testing. In spite of certain drawbacks this form

has proved useful in testing comprehension through reading, comprehension through listening (preferably combined with visual pointers), often including sound discrimination, vocabulary resources (by means of synonymy, antonymy, definition, paraphrase and substitution tests) and grammar (proposed answers should not include incorrect forms). Authors of multiple-choice proficiency tests should have a clear idea of what they want to test. Separate language aspects should not be combined in one test (eg vocabulary tests should not include features of spelling or phonemics), nonsense forms should be avoided (eg *writed*), if possible all tested problems should be referred to in the context of a sentence (or pictorial situation), all choices in each item should be presented in a uniform manner, no visual indication of the correct choice should be implied at first sight, and in a test battery multiple-choice items should alternate with other techniques.

Production testing (free response items) can be divided into objective free response items (only one independently encoded answer is possible), subjective composition (the essay type), tests of written and oral expression and translation tests. Objective free response tests may include substitution tests (eg stimulated by pictures), changes in sentence structure (stimulated by one word), completing the end of sentences and forming enlarged sentences on the basis of a nucleus of words. In tests of oral and written expression students should be set a well-defined task based on a pictorial framework (limited in content) on a dialogue, and on the reproduction of a spoken or written text. In translation tests partial translation is favoured, ie the student is asked to translate only parts within a given framework of a foreign-language text. **EPQ EHP 943.7**

72–306   Castigliano, Luigi. Il controllo della preparazione. [Assessment of preparatory work.] *Scuola e lingue moderne* (Modena), 7, 9 (1971), 212–22.

The teacher's aim must be to teach; pupils should learn, not simply receive marks. Language teaching at the lower secondary level should: (1) help towards the child's general education; (2) provide him with the basic skills of comprehension, speaking, reading, writing. Testing

255

provides the teacher with feedback on a class's progress, and therefore on the efficacy of his own teaching – the real point of testing. Work must be repeated when results show that the class, or part of it, has not absorbed a particular structure. An individual's failure to make progress cannot be ignored but must be analysed and remedied, just as under compulsory school requirements each child must be promoted in due course. Any failure indicates that more efficient schooling is needed. Intensive drilling is necessary and should cover a given amount of ground at a steady pace.

Outdated teaching methods (which should be discarded) allow only for traditional testing methods, eg grammar-translation; passive learning gives scope only for comprehension tests. Modern active oral techniques are adaptable in themselves to testing, and can be graded for difficulty and variety and used for linguistic or content value. Marks need not be awarded in the early – or more difficult – stages in order not to intimidate the pupils; encouragement and reinforcement of positive motivation should be the guiding principle. It is often sound practice to award a mark for group work. Various activities can be fitted into a one-hour lesson, cooperative or individual, and tests done on each. This increases motivation and satisfies pupils and their families. Of testing methods, traditional ones should be avoided; more 'scientific' and objective methods are preferable, including test batteries, with simple or multiple-choice options. These, however, can be difficult or lengthy to prepare. Aptitude tests are useful at the beginning of a year to gauge the homogeneity of a class. The results of end-of-year examinations, accompanied by aptitude or IQ tests if required, can be worked out on a graph mark-scheme [example shown] and the mark-range adjusted for particular purposes.

For the *licenza media* examination, written papers are inconclusive because of the chance element, and interviews are not always practicable. Objective tests are to be preferred. Since, at the end of their brief secondary school course, pupils are not in a position to have a command of the target language, it might be better not to have a public examination at that stage. While reform is pending, the teacher is best advised to relate his tests closely to his class work.

EPQ EHP 945

72–307 **Farrington, Brian.** A computer-aided test of aural compre-
hension. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **9**, 2
(1971), 71–7.

Aural comprehension deserves special attention because it is the
easiest to test of the skills that can be trained in a language laboratory,
because it is a valuable skill to acquire, and because it is directly
related to the use in the laboratory of a variety of linguistic material
for listening. The function of the language laboratory is to increase a
learner's exposure to the foreign language.

In one basic type of listening comprehension exercise transcription
of the text is required, in another questions are set on the text. Partial
transcripts are more valuable than complete ones. It is less useful to
require students to answer questions from memory. The author
describes a test developed in conjunction with a course in which com-
prehension exercises were prominent. Multiple-choice questions were
used to test the recognition of the spoken version of familiar linguistic
forms. The indeterminate true/false type of test was adopted, and the
examination took place in a language laboratory. Multiple-choice
questions enable the test as a whole to be used to evaluate its parts.
[The author describes the construction and marking of the test in some
detail, and examines the difficulty of setting a norm or pass-mark.]

EPQ EHP ELY ATL

72–308 **Page, B. W.** Content in modern language teaching. *NALA*
(York), **3** (1972), 19–22.

Custom and guesswork at present prescribe the syllabus for modern
languages. Some CSE boards have tried to solve this problem, with
alarming variations in the information given and the volume of know-
ledge expected. [The syllabus and papers of various CSE boards are
compared, and two items are considered in detail: active and passive
vocabulary, and the tenses and moods of verbs.] Two points arise
from this study: (1) teachers require more precise information on
course content, (2) the syllabus of the various examination boards of
CSE should be coordinated to give valid and comparable grades.
Detailed minimum standards offer a realistic goal to weaker candi-

dates, while spurring on the abler who know that they will gain credit for knowing more than this minimum: eg one board regards *le français fondamental* as the *core* of the examination material.

It is time for Ordinary and Advanced level and final honours degree French to be defined. If it is not possible to define A-level French, for instance in terms of a particular area of grammar and lexis, the argument for allowing prescribed dictionaries and grammars in the examination room is incontrovertible.   **(440) EPQ EHP**

TEACHER TRAINING

72-309   Keller, G. and W. J. R. Barclay. Versuch zur Erlangung einer Lehrbefähigung für Neusprachler im Ausland. [An attempt at gaining abroad a teaching qualification for modern language teachers.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **25**, 1 (1972), 32–6.

Expanding international activities mean more modern-language pupils, and highlight the need for international cooperation in education. Pupil exchanges are not enough. Modern-language teachers should be able to teach abroad according to the standards required in that country. Present assistant exchange schemes are inadequate, so an attempt at a new system was made between the Studiensseminar II at Kassel and Jordanhill Teacher Training College in Glasgow, using a four-week exchange. The aim was to improve teaching skills and knowledge of the school systems and of the language concerned. German teacher trainees in Scotland had a week's observation in schools, two weeks' teaching practice and a week of college lectures. The college proposed textual study as a test of teaching skills. [Set out in detail with examples.] Emphasis was placed on skill and under-standing of the method, and a certificate was issued at the end. Scottish teacher trainees in Germany had a similar programme.

The attempt was rated successful. Good students did equally well in both countries but moderate students did less well abroad. If the scheme is recognized by present governments further oral and written tests might be introduced.   **(430) EPQ EKF ELJ (420)**

72-310   Mueller, Klaus A. Judging the competency of teachers on the performance of their students. *Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colorado), **56**, 1 (1972), 10–12.

The most difficult aspect of the training of teachers is determining responsibility for their subsequent performance in the classroom. Methods of assessment exist, but the trainers of the new teacher of foreign languages are virtually unaccountable for his teaching skill. A programme is needed for regularly testing the performance of teachers in terms of student achievement. The promotion and pay of teachers should depend in part on the results of these tests, which should be devised by professional associations of experienced language teachers. If a teacher cannot impart the skills specified as goals in the curriculum, students should be free to transfer to other teachers or schools. The professional organizations should make available to inefficient teachers remedial programmes and refresher courses for which teachers would receive 'in-service' credit as an incentive.

Though there would undoubtedly be objections, today there is greater openmindedness than there was a few years ago towards achievement-testing. Teaching for the tests should become a desirable and specified objective. Some professional associations are now defining the various stages of foreign-language programmes, which could ultimately lead to the development of national model curricula. Uniform, responsible and competitive programmes should reduce the dismally large numbers of underachievers in foreign languages. Less time should be spent on specifying objectives for teacher performance, and more time on measuring the students' attainment, which would in turn provide useful feedback to effect changes in the methods of training and coordinating the performance of foreign-language teachers.   **EPQ EKF EHL**

72-311   Paulston, Christina Bratt. Language training via video-tape. *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington DC), **17**, 4 (1972), 30–2.

Experiences with videotape during the past year at the University of Pittsburgh are described in training teachers of English (and French

259

and Spanish) as foreign languages. The use of videotape in teacher training presents initial difficulties and is exceedingly time-con-suming. However videotape has three useful roles in recording: (1) a collection of demonstration classes for observation (against this variety the experienced as well as the novice teacher can measure his own performance); (2) practice classes to encourage self-analysis by the student; (3) examples of practice from which to derive theory [examples supplied]. It can be edited to suit a particular curriculum, and then saved and indexed in a reference library at relatively little cost.

Videotape helps students to examine their own teaching objectively and analytically and as a matter of course. The student-teacher introduces his taped micro-lesson of roughly eight minutes on one specific teaching point. The class of fellow-students fills in a checklist and discusses the lesson. The instructor and the student-teacher speak only at the end of the session. [Technical problems and pro-cedures are discussed. The cycle of seven steps is fully set out and a specimen checklist given.]   **EPQ EKF ELR**

TEACHING METHODS

72–312 Holley, F. M. and J. K. King. Imitation and correction in foreign-language learning. *Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colorado), **15**, 8 (1971), 494–8.

The assumption that children learn by repetition and imitation, on which much current foreign-language teaching is based, has been questioned. Evidence points towards children forming hypotheses about the language they hear and developing their own grammar in successive stages. Usually content is more important in a child's communicative process than grammar, while correction does not seem to play a significant role. A classroom experiment was set up to determine how harmful correction was and how important was recognition rather than repetition of patterns. The experiment con-centrated on class response. Hesitation in answering met with a re-phrased question or a cue, and sentence generation was encouraged.

TEACHING METHODS

Teachers allowed completion of an utterance even if incorrect, and
then produced the correct model without drawing attention to the
actual mistake. [Examples in German.] Lessons were livelier and
there was greater participation, but more research is needed into
whether increased learning would take place over a longer period.

(430) EPQ EL AGR ATD

72–313 Lee, W. R. Does the 'what' determine the 'how'? (reflex-
ions on practical issues). *English Language Teaching*
(London), **26**, 2 (1972), 107–16.

Pupils should be taught a style of pronunciation which is as widely
intelligible and acceptable as possible, but teachers should be more
tolerant about different styles of pronunciation.

Linguistics is progressively giving us a better idea of what there is
to be taught, and is potentially of use to the course-writer and the
teacher. Decisions on where in the course to teach various learning
items can be influenced by changing and expanding knowledge of
what the language consists of, as the sequence or grading can be more
intelligently set out. First-language acquisition is not fully understood,
but we cannot assume that a high degree of complexity in pre-
sentation is one of the factors promoting success. The amount of ex-
posure and the meaningfulness of some of the language material met
seem important factors. Learning a language is essentially learning to
associate forms with types of situation. In order to make a linguistic
form meaningful we should present it with its situational base.

EPQ EL

72–314 Salibaev, V. Kh. Психологический анализ пересказа
текстов на втором языке. [A psychological analysis of the
reproduction of texts in second language learning.] *Русский
язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **4** (1971), 72–84.

Three series of experiments are described aimed at investigating the
variables at play in reproducing a given passage, when this exercise is
used as a method for second-language instruction. The first series

261

revealed that aural presentation of the passage was more effective than visual presentation; that conveying the meaning of expressions in the passage by explanation in the second language resulted in more accurate, but shorter reproduction of the text, while a fuller reproduction – albeit with more variants in content than the original – was normal, if meaning was conveyed in the native language. Despite its content difficulties, narrative style was found generally easier to reproduce accurately than descriptive style.

The second series studied how performance varied according to the language in which the text was not only presented, but also reproduced. The fullest and most detailed results occurred with presentation in the second language and reproduction in the native language, although the original was often freely augmented. A fair degree of fluency in the second language was required to achieve an accurate reproduction when the exercise was presented and re-told in the second language; while the meaning of the original was generally not adequately expressed if the passage was presented in the native language and re-told in the second language – due to 'inner translation' difficulties.

The third series underlined the necessity for the ability to abstract, analyse and synthesize ideas while working in the second language in order to be able to carry out both selective and short reproductions entirely in that language. Account of the varying levels of learners' cognitive development should therefore be taken when working out teaching methods with a view to the exercise of language reproduction.

EPQ EL AT (947)

CLASS METHODS

72-315 Deyes, A. F. Learning from dictation. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 149–54.

How a pupil spells what he thinks he hears is less important than the reason for the spelling error. [The author explains and gives examples.] All the words in the dictation passage must be familiar in meaning, but new words can be introduced before the dictation is given. At an elementary stage the passage is studied beforehand. Narrative is suit-

able at an intermediate stage, and a comprehension or reproduction exercise can be given after the first reading. With advanced students a discussion of the topic treated in the passage can be held in advance. New words should be left on the board.

In preparing to give a dictation, the teacher should take note of instances where the confusion of two homonyms can arise and clear them up. An attempt must be made to correct the learner's pronunciation. A passage containing a number of minimally contrasted words can help to make the pupils aware of the importance of the context and of the difference in pronunciation of the sounds. [Examples.] Pupils should be asked to read back a dictation passage of this kind. Dictations can make teacher and learner aware of the learner's difficulties with spelling, with the recognition and production of sound segments, and with aural comprehension and grammar. [The author suggests various ways in which the traditional dictation exercise can be modified.]   (420) EPQ ELD AT

SPEECH

72–316 **Edener, Wilfried.** The development of oral and written skills by free expression. *Modern Languages* (London), **53**, 1 (1972), 18–22.

Listening, speaking, reading and writing are not so much four skills as four groups of skills. [The various levels of achievement included in speaking are described.] A wide gap is apparent between the level of the teaching materials even of 'complete' language courses, and their target level of mastery of free oral and written expression. Mechanical drills of structure patterns are not the answer. It has been demonstrated that functional language is closely related to linguistic and situational context. Contextualism demands that materials be integrated in realistic situations. It is only when the learner is emotionally engaged that he will feel stimulated to respond spontaneously in a foreign language. [An example of lesson text material is given for ten-year-olds beginning English as a foreign language.]

Free expression must be encouraged early by lively dialogue

263

between the characters of the story, and by the use of situations where something seems to go wrong. The problem of finding situations in which the necessary repetitions appear to be natural can frequently be solved by the use of emotional dialogue. Guided dialogue is not 'mimicry and memorization', for the learner cannot remember the complete 'response': he is challenged to practise *Situationsversprachlichung*, the turning of situation into language. Methods are suggested for the functional prompting of questions rather than answers. [Four examples of drill techniques in French and English on these principles are given: (1) a series of 'mini-situations', (2) an overall situation drill, (3) a guided dialogue, and (4) a structural anecdote. A bibliography is given.]   (420) EPQ ELD ATD EMS (440)

72-317 Farmer, S. P. The monologue: a neglected aspect of language learning. *Modern Languages* (London), **53**, 1 (1972), 23–5.

Few language teachers and learners appear to be aware of the possibility of greatly increasing one's fluency in a foreign language by simply talking to oneself. The monologue regularly plays a part in the child's learning of its mother tongue [examples]. Monologue, provided the adult learner has a model, is a useful substitute for or addition to unrestricted access to native speakers or to language laboratories. It helps to build confidence, and despite the dangers of interference, is a helpful complement to passive familiarization with proper pronunciation, vocabulary and structures. [Examples of free and controlled structures are given, the latter grouped round *se méfier de* and *en vouloir à quelqu'un*.] Monologue helps to transform passive into active vocabulary and discourages the learning of mother-tongue and foreign-language 'equivalents'. It is best concentrated on structures most alien to the mother tongue. [A four-stage example is given to introduce a class to monologue in school and for homework. Short bibliography.]

(440) EPQ ELD ATD

72-318   Raz, Hana. Art in English. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), **22** (1971), 24-8.

[The use of paintings is discussed as a means to provoke class discussion.] Each group of pupils is given a different picture and asked to comment on it. The group leader jots down their reactions, or they are recorded. The teacher helps with vocabulary and types out the comments afterwards. Then the pupils are given the text, the teacher adds her comments, and there is more discussion. The choice of pictures is important: one should start with the more obvious.

Language is not merely a tool of communication, but a means of expression of our thoughts and feelings and of the whole personality. A foreign language will become important to the student if he feels he can express himself in it. [Three pictures are reprinted with the pupils' comments.]   **(420) EPQ ELD ATD ELS**

72-319   Veselý, Josef. K otázce automatismů při osovojování a užívání cizího jazyka. [Automatisms in foreign-language acquisition and use.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague) **15**, 7 (1971/2), 289-98.

In speech at normal speed, ie at about ninety words per minute, the construction of the utterance as a whole is automatized and only the content of the message is dependent on conscious control. As long as the construction of the utterance is not independent of conscious control, we cannot speak of real mastery in a foreign language. [Three stages in the development of automatized skills in foreign-language learning are described.] In the acquisition of automatized skills two levels must be distinguished: the lower level when the pupil performs the skills in drill, the higher level when he uses the skills in active communication in the foreign language. The progress of automatized skills may be deduced from the number of errors and hesitation phenomena in the use of the foreign language. The acquisition of automatized skills is based on the 'conscious-practical' method, ie cognitive learning precedes automatizing skills.

The development of automatized skills is a highly complex problem. The most significant factors in this process are: (1) the purposeful

selection of a minimum of speech phenomena (carefully chosen structural patterns) which are to become automatized skills of the learner; (2) a rationalized system of exercises and drills, carefully graded according to the degree of difficulty and the risk of negative interference by the first language, with constant attention to the awareness of the content of the meassge (ie precommunicative drills and communicative exercises must be constantly balanced).

EPQ ELD ATD

RADIO AND TELEVISION

72–320   **Hill, Brian.** The contribution of radio and television to language teaching. *Visual Education* (London), (April 1972), 9–11.

A quarter of a million children and roughly the same number of adults will be involved in language learning by radio and television in Britain this year. Though the first language programme was broadcast in 1926, significant developments in this field were slow. The first separate publication of reinforcement materials appeared in 1956, and a BBC language unit was formed which integrated beginners, intermediate and advanced courses, produced material for evening institute classes, provided teaching kits and began to teach more exotic languages, eg Russian, Mandarin and Arabic. Radiovision courses started in 1964 to provide teachers with realistic audio-visual material, and local radio stations have taken the opportunity to experiment [examples]. Television has produced thirty-three series of language broadcasts at all levels. At primary level basic French courses are being phased out, since good commercial material is now more readily available, but enrichment material for primary and secondary schools featuring topical items has had some success. [Examples.] Further education has been the field of sophisticated experiment in television language broadcasts. Suggestions are offered for improving present school series: presentation, practice and reinforcement should take place against a realistic background.

The use of television in schools demands specialized skills from the

teacher, which should be taught in colleges of education. Video recorders, despite their cost, should be more widely used. Greater cooperation among teachers, administrators and producers would improve the technique of active viewing by the students. [Illustrated.]

EPQ ELD ELV 942

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

72–321 Bartley, Diana E., Andrée Bergens and Maria Rosa Uria-Santos. 1970 MLA seminar in audio-visual teacher preparation. *NALLD Journal* (Athens, Ohio), **6**, 2 (1971), 33–40.

[The introduction stresses the emergence of the new field of English as a second dialect which will demand the adaptation of the methodology of foreign-language teaching.] The second section discusses the uses and limitations of the language laboratory, and emphasizes that the making of good tapes requires a long and arduous training, and should not be delegated to graduate students. [Details of time required to organize and record material for one tape lasting forty-two minutes.] The place of dictations and scripts in the laboratory is considered. [The use of audio-visual aids in teaching Hispanic language, literature and culture courses is described in the last section.]

(420) EPQ ELD ELY (460)

72–322 Titone, Renzo, A. Amato, L. J. Chatagnier, A. Macchi, G. Plastre, R. Jeanneret. Il laboratorio linguistico e gli insegnanti italiani. [The language laboratory and Italian teachers.] *Rassegna italiana di linguistica applicata* (Rome), **3**, 3 (1971), 237–68.

The entire issue reviews the language laboratory situation in most of its aspects: the auditory sensitivity of students; types of installation; methods of utilization; introductory courses for teachers; the preparation of software.

EPQ ELD ELY 945

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

72–323 Bunyard, John. A comparison of the learning achieved by Nigerian and English children from programmed material. *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology* (London), **9**, 1 (1972), 7–17.

This study was designed to provide information on some of the difficulties of introducing programmed instruction into the educational system of Northern Nigeria, where teachers are in short supply. The experimental groups comprised the whole of the first-year intake for 1969 at a Nigerian government secondary school (eighty-one pupils from different backgrounds, all of whom had experienced seven years of primary schooling), and three unstreamed first-form classes in an English Comprehensive school (seventy-nine pupils). A general science programme, including experimental worksheets and oral work, was written in Nigeria with an accompanying criterion test. These were administered in Nigeria with four ability tests, slightly revised, and the procedure repeated in England in the same year. In addition an attitude questionnaire was given to the two groups, which showed that the attitudes to seven aspects of the programme were similar, except that English children accepted 'answers' and 'experiments' more readily than Nigerian children. [Four tables of results are given, and three figures.]

Direct comparison of the English and Nigerian scores would be meaningless, and was avoided by comparing the correlation matrices calculated for the variables of criterion test gain score plus verbal, non-verbal, reading and spatial abilities. For the English children the coefficients between criterion test gain scores and the four abilities measured were found to be significantly higher than the corresponding coefficients for the Nigerian children. This suggested fundamental differences between the two groups in familiarity with English, and hence in this case in familiarity with concepts [examples], in levels of primary education and in spatial ability, that would greatly reduce the efficiency of a programme written for English children and used in Nigeria. [Bibliography.]

966.9 EPQ ELD EHG ELW EMS EPG 942

72-324   Dowsey, M. W. An investigation into the on-line teaching of programming languages. *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology* (London), **9**, 1 (1972), 34-47.

An investigation is described into the teaching of a programming language by means of computer-assisted instruction or CAI. (Previous experiments to teach FORTRAN are mentioned.) For this course twenty-two first-year undergraduates were divided into three groups to enable comparisons to be made first between CAI lessons and conventional lectures, and secondly between on-line examples sessions and the usual demonstration classes. The groups were determined mainly on student performance in a programming aptitude test, but other factors were considered. The language taught was PIL (Pittsburgh Interpretative Language). [Details are given of the course material, and part of a lesson is quoted in an appendix.] All students were given a post-test in an effort to measure how much they had assimilated during the week. [A flow diagram, pre-test and post-test scores tabulated and in graph form, a table of analysis of covariance and of class observations given.] The conclusions drawn are that the weaker students benefited from the individualized instruction they received. However, CAI students with higher aptitude did not show up as well as expected and found the teaching impersonal and frustrating. It is suggested that the question of motivation should be studied more deeply before any future investigations of this kind are made. [Bibliography and appendix.]

EPQ EL APG ELW EMT

72-325   Hellmich, Harald. Fremdsprachenunterricht und Programmierung. [Foreign-language teaching and programmed instruction.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **9**, 2 (1972), 71-92.

Audio-visual teaching and programmed instruction have in many instances made language teaching too technical and one-sided. Of the numerous publications about programmed instruction only those are taken into account in this article that are of special theoretical interest and recognize the particular aims of language teaching. [The tasks

269

that can best be solved by programmed instruction are enumerated.] The processes involved in teaching and learning a foreign language are part of a dynamic system of many interacting forces. Only a limited number of them can be rationalized and made more effective by programming.

When arranging the teaching material for programmed instruction, a distinction must be made between the areas of knowledge, skill, and ability. [Detailed discussion of guiding principles and practical application.] The need to avoid mechanical assimilation is stressed; learning languages should above all be a highly conscious process that develops the mind and character and leads to genuine communication. The question of feedback is given careful consideration. [Several authors, mainly Soviet, are mentioned and their opinions quoted.] When dividing the material into teaching steps and study steps the approach should not be too formal. Linguistic units must not be regarded in isolation from the overall aim of communication. The suggested study unit is the sentence. [A model is given for the presenting of new vocabulary.] Algorithms are discussed and a model provided.

EPQ ELD ELW

TERTIARY

72–326 Bancroft, W. Jane. Foreign language teaching in Bulgaria. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **28**, 3 (1972), 8–13.

Practical knowledge of a foreign language is stressed in Bulgarian language teaching. In the special language schools, oral practice is emphasized and audio-visual aids are used. At university level class schedules are heavy and attendance at classes is compulsory. [Details given of languages offered and of course structures.] There is a growing interest in experimental methods, and at the Research Institute of Suggestology in Sofia yoga techniques of relaxation have been combined with the Mauget oral method and traditional approaches to produce a unique system for the teaching of foreign languages (French, English, German and Italian). Teachers are trained in

270

'suggestion' (including psychology and drama, and enabling the teacher to elicit the maximum response from each student). Classes meet six days a week, and each of the three courses in a given foreign language lasts a month. During the initial course students are expected to memorize 3,000 word-groups and corresponding grammar. [A class-session is described consisting of revision, presentation of new material and a 'séance' which makes use of audio-visual methods, music, rhythm and the drama of 'inner speech'.]

This system speeds up the assimilation of a foreign language and because of relaxation sessions students are not tired after a four-hour class, while vocabulary and grammar are quickly absorbed. Students converse easily, and recall their verbal knowledge in tests administered up to a year after a given session. [Illustrated.]

EPQ ELD EMT EPS 949.72

IMMIGRANTS

72–327 **Brand, Jeanne.** Development of a special course for immigrant teachers. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **24**, 2 (1972), 145–54.

In 1966 the Department of Education and Science launched four pilot courses for immigrant Asians of recognized qualified teacher status. Each fifteen-month course – equalling one academic year of educational training plus one term of specialized English language teaching – was designed to produce teachers of comparable ability to the average British probationary teacher. At the Nottingham Institute of Education method courses as such took second place to the more fundamental task of basic reorientation. The improvement of both written and spoken English, the study of contemporary British society and of English educational practice at primary and secondary level, and teaching practice at the level of the students' choice, formed the main areas of concentration. [Details given.]

Half the time-table for the first two terms was devoted to improving the students' command of English. This involved language-laboratory work, written English, discussions and talks. Assessment was con-

271

tinuous and was based on course work and teaching ability. All eighteen students eventually completed the course. They have been teaching for two and a half years, and the sixteen who have been assessed have passed the probationary requirement. These teachers had more trouble finding suitable jobs than the average probationary teacher, but they have mostly shown themselves capable of effective teaching in British schools. **EPQ ELD EKF ENT 942**

72-328 Fumadelles, Michel. Motivation et enseignement des langues. [Motivation and language teaching.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 4 (1971), 81–92.

The explanation of motivation has moved towards the notion of *valency* in the individual, corresponding to a goal he has set himself, determined by quality judgements assigned by the individual himself. Motivation leads to behaviour as a function of the positive or negative valencies presented for the individual by objects and situations. It is necessary to take account of the *level of aspiration*. [Various types of motivation are listed and described.] Conflict may arise when a chosen or imposed goal is not reached.

Social motivation is important in directing a student to take up a second language. The family can play a part: some languages are thought by parents to be better or more useful than others. The teacher, through his attitude, and through the examples he draws of the other people and land, can be an important influence. The children of immigrants have a particular problem: they may find it easier to drop their mother tongue than to study it further within the educational system alongside French. As a result they may reject either their mother tongue and culture of origin or the language and culture of their new land. Such cases bring extra problems to the foreign-language teacher. Indifference to the culture of their mother tongue may also affect French native speakers. The child who has already known failure in his mother tongue can hesitate to make the move towards another culture group which is associated with learning a foreign language.

Although foreign-language learning cannot be reduced to the

acquisition of a set of habits the learner is in a different situation from the child learning his first language. Repetition, with variety, and memory are important for foreign-language learning. It is necessary to set aims of a concrete kind for pupils. There is no certainty that the abstract relations implicit in a foreign-language grammar are known to the pupils, even when they are part of their own language. Differences in level of aspiration make it important to individualize work and to give each learner an idea of his progress. The presence of the teacher must be discreet since his authority and prestige can be demotivating if the pupil is too conscious of them. The machine can also antagonize the learner, and it is in any case not a method, nor a motivating factor, nor even a novelty any more. There is a place for audio-visual methods and equipment, providing that account is taken of the psychology of perception.

(440) EPQ ELD EGK ELY ENT

72–329 Quigley, Helen. NFER pre-school project language programme. *Multiracial School* (Reading), 1, 3 (1972), 10–12.

This second article on the project describes the use of the Peabody Language Development Kit with inarticulate and immigrant nursery-aged children. The series of systematically sequenced kits provides material for a twenty-minute daily session to sharpen auditory, visual and tactile activity; to promote convergent, divergent and associative thinking and to develop skills of vocal and motor output. [The pre-school-level kit and its materials are described in detail and an example is given, demonstrating the careful adjustment of the vocabulary.] After one year the eighteen children in the group, and a matching control group that had had normal nursery experience, were assessed on a variety of linguistic and cognitive tests. The 'programme' children showed a marked increase in fluency and free speech, and did better than the control group in a vocal encoding subtest of the ITPA. [Example of two descriptions of a common object that were given to the examiner.] An account is given of the adaptation of the kit in the light of this trial year.   **EPQ ENT AGR EMN**

ENGLISH   *See also abstracts* 72–301, –309, –315, –316, –318, –353, –360

72–330   Augustin, J. J. Native language interference and its impli-cations in English language teaching in National schools. *English Teacher* (Kuala Lumpur) 1, 2 (1971), 4–5; 1, 3 (1971), 5–6.

In a Malay situation, native language interference is the main cause of errors in English. Though these also occur at the phonological and semantic levels of language, this article will be limited to considering interference at the syntactic level. A major contrastive study of the English and Malay syntactic patterns has yet to be produced, but the author recently undertook a study of errors made by adult Malay speakers, and classifies and discusses them under eight major headings: verb usage; vocabulary; prepositions; articles; agreement: (1) subject-complement; (2) determiner-headword; word order, and pronouns. [A figure showing frequencies is given.]

There are several implications of these problems for the language teacher. He should be tolerant of the pupil's consistent production of 'non-grammatical' sentences – that is, sentences expressed in the grammar of his first language. As long as the pupil responds he is trying to generate sentences of his own, and is therefore learning by his mistakes. 'Meaning' begins to take shape when the link is estab-lished between the reality of the situation and the word form or structure. [Examples.] Techniques to establish this link should be simple at the primary level; in the higher age groups an explanation of the rules in Malay saves time and is effective. [Illustrations follow of the author's procedure in establishing the concept of the 'definite-ness' of the article, and examples of drills are given.]

420 EPQ EL EHM AKN AYM 959.5

72-331 **Bonnet, Robert.** Mise en œuvre et mode d'exploitation de documents sonores dans la classe d'anglais. [Use of and method for exploiting recorded texts in the English class.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 4 (1971), 39–49.

Tape recordings as an aid to language teaching are often no more than the reading of the text dealt with in class. The pupil rarely hears continuous English and the recording can be important in providing this experience. The use of recordings can lead to effective learning because of the authenticity of the language, spoken by different voices, and the unrelenting nature of the tape player. Through work with such texts the learner increases his powers of expression directly in the spoken language.

Commercially made tape courses with accompanying text may be unsuitable. The schools programmes broadcast almost daily by the ORTF are a good introduction to audio-lingual methods. The teacher can have selected texts recorded by the *assistant(e)*. Written texts are not entirely suitable as a basis for aural work. The best source of recordings is English radio. Considerations governing the preparation of recordings include the length and difficulty of the text. Recordings of unscripted speech run the risk of including too many idioms, and of containing too much of the fragmentation of language in use.

Recordings must present a variety of voices and registers and must deal with concrete matters. While the book is the proper basis for the study of classical literature, the tape-recorder may be used for teaching modern literature. When central to teaching the recording may be the basis for four specific stages of exploitation: use of the content to explain and demonstrate new items; pattern practice and drills; comprehension exercises; conversation, translation and essay work. [Plans for four or three lesson schemes of exploitation work are given.] Although it is important to introduce a certain variety into the systematic exploitation, it is not possible to make the method less exhaustive.

There is an advantage in using the class and the language laboratory for employing this method. [A plan is given for two sessions in class, two in the language laboratory.] The teacher must use the same sort

275

of judgement in selecting tape recordings as in selecting textbooks. Recordings from English radio also have a part to play in showing the learner that there is a reality behind what is learned from textbooks.

420 EPQ ELD ELT ELV ELY 944

72-332 Breitkreuz, Hartmut. Picture stories in English language teaching. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 145-9.

Picture stories have been introduced into language textbooks as un-contextualized exercises separated from the preceding reading-matter. They have not been fully explored didactically and the advantages of a lesson concentrated on one picture story have been neglected. [The author describes useful types of exercise under the headings: oral presentation of the picture story, forming dialogues, guided language practice, acting the picture story, and guided composition. He gives an example, with pictures.]

420 EPQ ELD ELS

72-333 Douay, J. La lecture cursive. [Reading for fluency.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 5-6 (1971), 33-6.

The author describes how he trained *lycée* pupils to read whole works in English, eg *Great Expectations*, rapidly and intelligently. He takes account of a linguistic factor, concerned with vocabulary and grammar, and of a cultural factor, concerned with raising the pupils' intellectual level. [Teaching techniques examined in some detail.] Key-words in each paragraph are explained briefly, a dialogue is held with the class, and notes are written on the board. Points of grammar are dealt with during the course of this activity. If the chapter is long, only certain paragraphs are fully studied, and some chapters are summarized. A quick interpolation in the following lesson deals with points of style and plot. Monthly written work is set. [The author summarizes pupils' comments, largely favourable, on the method.] The pupils read more English as a result, and learn to read without translating.

420 EPQ ELD ASP 944

72–334   Efstathiadis, S. and P. King. Some lexical and structural errors made by Greek learners of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 159–67.

Greek learners of English make two types of mistake: wrong selection of lexical items, and structural errors. [The authors examine in detail some of the commonest of these mistakes. They do not include errors in the use of prepositions, adverbial particles, tenses or spelling errors.] Some errors are due to the existence of cognates in Greek and English. There is most difficulty when the semantic range of the Greek word is greater than that of the English word. Visualization of the context may help. Translation can be misleading. Command of abstract terms has to be built up slowly. [The authors discuss and exemplify errors in the use of determiners, conjunctions, adverbs, content words and word order.]   **420 EPQ EL EHM 489.3**

72–335   Fowler, W. S. Literature for adult students of English as a foreign language: (2) Proficiency and beyond. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 191–7.

In the Proficiency class those studying literature will be more interested in it than candidates for the Cambridge Lower examination; but they need more help from the teacher. The Proficiency student is able to read unabridged books and to appreciate them for their own sake. In recent years there has been a marked improvement in the selection of books appropriate to the student's interests and levels of attainment. The most difficult novels are those which are too complex in style and theme to be studied without reference to the body of the author's work. Given the limited time available, the most illuminating comment is not that which places a novel in the context of a writer's work but one which places it in a period and helps to explain the novelist's attitude towards society. It is helpful if the teacher encourages discussion and analyses in detail passages crucial to the development of the main themes of the novel.

Lyric poetry can be appreciated only through the analysis of individual poems. Faced with a selection of poems, the student can only

make vague generalizations about the poet's work. He has to analyse poems without the aid of the text and without training in critical evaluation. Where possible, poetry should be introduced as an aid to the understanding of set books written in the same period. [Examples.] An occasional lesson can be devoted to the study of a poem. Poetic drama, in particular Shakespeare, can be studied with the aid of specially prepared editions. Students may read more once examination pressures have been lifted. Once a student has achieved fluency in a foreign language, his interest in that language is retained only if he recognizes the closeness of the link between the social attitudes of a country and its language. [Examples from Spanish.]

420 EPQ EL EMV AVL (460)

72–336   Grosjean, F. and L. Grosjean, E. Lewin and V. Méla.
Vers un enseignement de la compréhension orale de l'anglais. [Towards the teaching of aural comprehension in English.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 4 (1971), 50–7.

Work in aural comprehension has been in progress at Vincennes (Centre Universitaire Expérimental) since 1968. The aim of aural comprehension work is to ensure that students specializing in English can understand spontaneous speech no matter what the speed, the accent or the situation. At the end of three years students fail to reach this, understanding speech only at intermediate speed and with standard pronunciation. Students work on tapes classified according to accents, speed of utterance, frequency of vocabulary items and difficulty of contents. [The preparation of tapes and the order of introducing the comprehension texts is described.] The comprehension texts are presented to small groups by tape-recorder through an amplifier and two loudspeakers. Headsets are not used because there is a preference for naturalness and for contact between teacher and students.

A failure to understand means a breakdown on one or more of the levels of comprehension: phonetic, morphological, syntactic, suprasegmental. The teacher is present to help students, not to check their comprehension. He can explain the basic reasons for failure in under-

standing and arrange follow-up work to suit the students' level and the difficulty of the text.

To check aural comprehension the student may be asked to make an oral response (repetition, answer, summary or continuation), a written response, or paralinguistic response (eg gesture). Detailed comprehension texts and completion exercises are used in which gaps in a written text are to be filled in with items identified in the continuous spoken text.

A research group on aural comprehension was established in 1969. [Experiment described.] The first results suggest that aural comprehension of English as a foreign language is affected by (in order of importance): speed and rate of utterance; syntactic complexity; rhetorical entropy; and the frequency of items included in the text. [Bibliography.] **420 EPQ EL ELT EMT ATL 944**

72–337 Higgins, J. J. Vowel comparison. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 132–5.

The author describes a set of language laboratory exercises made for students of English in Tanzania. The laboratory is used as a library of sound, and students work individually with little console supervision. There is interference from both the first language and Swahili. The tapes practise contrasts rather than sounds. Ear-training and production are regarded as linked skills. The exercises described include discrimination, finishing and choosing sentences, and reading.

420 EPQ EL ELY AYM 967.8

72–338 Horn, Vivian. Using connectives in elementary composition. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 154–9.

Various kinds of connective are used in written discourse, and many have both grammatical and logical functions. [The author lists and illustrates types of connexion under twenty-two headings.] The use of connectives needs to be taught. An understanding of them is as essential in r eading as in writing. **420 EPQ AKN ATG**

279

72–339 Hornsey, A. W. Mr Best's ladder: question-and-answer work in foreign-language teaching. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 124–32.

A text may be exploited in various ways. Classroom communication takes place between two unequal partners and its aim is pedagogic: it exists for the acquisition of new language and not new experience. [The author discusses in detail the question-and-answer work which may be based on short pieces of text, and how this may lead to the production of similar language without the stimulus of leading questions.] The dialogue is controlled so that answers are required only when the teacher knows that they will probably be correct. Good models are provided. The difficulty of what is required is graded, so that the teacher knows at what point his question is too demanding and why. **420 EPQ ELD ATD**

72–340 Hughes, Eric. The use of phonetics in teaching English. *MATE* (Tananarive, Madagascar) **1**, 1 (1971), 33–6.

'Conventional' spelling misleads students of English as a foreign language into unintelligible over-precision in speaking. Practical phonetics can be of immense value in teaching pronunciation, in particular the International Phonetic Association's narrow script, since it is bi-unique – one sign for each of the forty-three phonemes. [Examples of several kinds of script are given and the differences explained.] Educational psychology applied to the learning process (Guthrie's law of contiguous association) suggests that the act of constantly comparing sound and visual symbol should improve both pronunciation and spelling. [Examples and simple exercises are set out.] Transcription exercises provide in many cases the only method by which learners not surrounded by native speakers can systematically improve their speaking ability in English without constant personal attention from a teacher. **420 EPQ EL AJL ATD**

72-341 Kharma, Nayet. Children and the language laboratory – an experiment in Kuwait. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 136–45.

An experiment is described which was conducted in two intermediate schools, in the use of the language laboratory for the teaching of English. The English-teaching situation in Kuwait is outlined and a detailed account given of the situation in the two schools. [The design of the experiment is also explained at length.] Results showed that the experimental group did better than the control group in both schools, that girls scored higher, and that the language laboratory helped the teaching of the recognition and discrimination of sound, and the recognition of sentence patterns. A further experiment in progress in 1970 is described. **420 EPQ EL ELY EMS 953.68**

72-342 Macintosh, Duncan. English as a 'functional tool': an extra-mural programme in Hong Kong. *Adult Education* (London), **44**, 6 (1972), 380–5.

Since 1970 the extra-mural department of the University of Hong Kong has been writing much of its own course material for commercial English, as most of its students need English for this purpose and have little time to devote to study. Tutors are native speakers of English, but most are part-time and classes are so scattered that a twice-yearly seminar is organized so that colleagues can meet and future plans can be developed. [Some course details given.] An entrance placement test is set which is welcomed by students. A fairly advanced level is maintained in spite of large classes and sponsorship of students by employers is increasing. A high proportion of students completes the course satisfactorily. **420 EPQ EL EMV AND 951.25**

72-343 Morris, Tudor. The simple present tense and its relation to time in spoken English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 116–22.

A knowledge of the context of use is essential to a full appreciation of all the time-reference possibilities of a given tense. [The author

281

examines the use of the simple present tense in spoken English in reference to nineteen different times or combinations of times. For each use he describes a context, gives an example, and adds comment.]

420 EPQ EL AK ATD

72–344 Mugler, Georges. Les techniques audio-orales dans les classes du second cycle. [Audio-oral techniques in second-cycle classes.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **65**, 5/6 (1971), 23–32.

It is too much to expect the same teacher to train his pupils to understand, speak, read, and write the language, and also to give a reliable idea of the civilization and the literature of the culture concerned. Foreign surroundings cannot be reproduced at school, and analogous situations must therefore be substituted. Oral work precedes written work and then reinforces it. Visual, oral, and written experience of the language converge. Audio-oral techniques should be used to create a desire to learn and to change linguistic behaviour.

Radio offers the best means of permanent and direct communication with English-speaking countries. Television dilutes the linguistic message. Records, tapes, and cassettes of broadcasts are readily obtainable and of good quality. Centres recording the BBC and Voice of America transmissions are needed, so that teachers have more freedom to choose what suits their purposes. The use of such recorded material makes exercises seem necessary rather than imposed. The teacher listens together with his pupils. The aims of each exercise must be clearly defined. [The author lists in appendices the kinds of broadcast material available, times of transmissions, and recording techniques. He classifies this material under the headings of dictation passages, information, documentary and cultural broadcasts, and dialogues, and discusses in some detail ways in which these various kinds of material can be used in the classroom.]

420 EPQ EL ELV

position; in questions the particle may not be shifted to the front. [Examples of correct and incorrect usage are given.]

The contrastive features of Japanese–English verb usage increase the difficulty, since Japanese direct object expressions cover a larger area than English and include several two-word verbs: whereas English uses *wait for*, Japanese uses the verb *matsu* plus *o* with the direct object, producing errors such as 'I am waiting my friend'. Problems are also caused by the Japanese use of two verbs to encompass the area covered in English by one verb plus a preposition or particle, eg *think of* in Japanese is *omoi-tsuku*, which gives rise to translation errors such as 'I'll think a name for it'.

A third type of mistake proceeds from English two-word homonyms of different semantic classes, eg *turn on* is separable if it means *to excite interest in* but inseparable meaning *to attack*. There are also complications over antonyms, eg *turn up/down* (the radio) is an opposite, *think in/out* is not. The author suggests that two-word verbs should be considered in terms of three subclassifications: (1) pairs which seem to be and are in fact opposites, (2) pairs which seem to be opposites but have different though not opposite meanings, (3) pairs which seem to be opposites but have similar meanings, eg *fall in/out*. These verbs must be memorized, and then practised in class. Students should be asked to which of the three categories various pairs belong. Next, students may be asked to use items in sentences (their own if possible) requiring a response from others in the class by sentence or gesture, indicating their understanding of the usage. [Examples and methods of drilling given.] For classes that are not so quick the cloze technique and paraphrase may be more suitable.

420 EPQ ELD AKT 495.6

72–348 Roux, Edward. Easy English for Africans. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 178–90.

The author describes how, abandoning Basic English, he worked out a list of useful English words known to Africans. Starting from approximate synonyms of Basic words, he devised tests of understanding,

using the test words in contexts which did not give away their meaning. The tests were carried out in night schools in South Africa. Results of some of the tests are shown in tabular form. 200 Basic words were excluded as not being well known or easily understood. 650 Basic words were selected, and 350 added from other sources. This island vocabulary was then used in writing in order to test its defining power. The final list, given in an appendix, is compared with other word-lists. **420 EPQ EL EHP EMV AHT 968**

72-349 Seward, B. H. Teaching cursive writing to EFL students. *English Language Teaching* (London), **26**, 2 (1972), 169–78.

The teacher of cursive writing often fails to see that graphemes have distinctive features just as phonemes have, and that comparative and contrastive teaching methods can be used. [The author describes an approach suited to Arab pupils.] The letters should be simple to produce and easy to read, and should represent a style of cursive writing the pupil is likely to come across. Handwriting practice should be spaced over a number of lessons. A handwriting manual provides a model and gives the opportunity of extra practice outside class. The Arab pupil needs to develop a new set of reading and writing habits. [The author describes in detail the steps to be taken to form these habits, beginning with motion practice and attending first to the lower-case and then to the upper-case letters. The steps are fully illustrated.] **420 EPQ ELD ASG (492.7)**

FRENCH *See also abstracts* 72–301, –308, –316, –317, –328

72-350 Potter, Edithe J. French conversation for young adults. *Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colorado), **55**, 8 (1971), 505–7.

A third-year college French conversation course is described, organized largely round suggestions made by students of Northwestern University. The class was encouraged to practise spoken French during most of the two-and-a-half hours allotted weekly to

the course. Articles on current problems were selected from French newspapers. Reading assignments of two pages were followed by a short quiz to reinforce vocabulary retention and to develop listening comprehension. Short, factual questions invited straightforward answers from the less articulate, and more complex questions stimulated the better equipped students to criticize and interpret the reading material. [Examples.] Volunteers gave short talks or answered questions on specialist topics. Fluency was encouraged by chain conversations, prepared dialogues acted out and by debates. The teacher provided stimulus where necessary, corrected only when communication threatened to break down and noted recurring errors for remedial exercises. **440 EPQ ELD EMT ATD (973)**

GERMAN *See also abstracts* 72–309, 312

72–351 **Brosch, Gerd.** Das Zertifikat 'Deutsch als Fremdsprache'. [The certificate 'German as a foreign language'.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1** (1972), 1–5.

The examination and certificate date from 1971. They were designed to narrow the understandable gap between the aims of reform movements in modern-language teaching and the achievements of language classes in the educational system as a whole. The language proficiency of school and college leavers was not up to the requirements of the period. The *Volkshochschule* was alone able to provide facilities for further education of the appropriate kind, but needed to define the goals of its instruction. A committee established a minimum vocabulary and structure list for English, the first language tackled. Since 1968 certificates have been offered for English, French, Spanish, Russian and German as a foreign language. The introduction of German as a foreign language in German colleges led to the setting up of a minimal word list and a list of high-frequency grammatical structures. These, together with a definition of goals and a description of the method of examination, will be published in a brochure in the middle of 1972. [Address given.]

286

The examination tests knowledge sufficient for coping with everyday situations. The emphasis is on spoken language and on the active use of language. Objective assessment is used and the examination is well defined. The certificate is intended to denote a basic knowledge, although an extension along lines already taken by the English certificate is not out of the question. It can also offer a standard of proficiency in written and spoken everyday German, and a basis for different courses in German.　　　**430 EPQ ED EHP EMV (420)**

72–352　Buscha, Joachim. Zur Darstellung des Pronomens 'es' in einer deutschen Grammatik für Ausländer. [The presentation of the pronoun 'es' in grammars for non-German students.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **9,** 2 (1972), 99–103.

Es is the most complex of all German pronouns and therefore poses a special problem even for advanced students learning German as a foreign language. *Es* can be both a formal and a structural element. In some cases it can be omitted without altering sense or structure and in others it can be replaced under certain conditions. There are cases, however, where *es* is vital to structure and sense [examples].

It is of little use to give the foreign student individual rules for individual cases. For him *es* should be presented within the context of the grammatical system. Existing grammars have on the whole failed to deal with *es* satisfactorily [examples cited]. The author attempts a new systematic approach. The distributory characteristics of *es* are analysed with the aid of transformations, and three basic syntactic functions are established: (1) *es* is used in its original function as a pronoun, ie standing in for another word, and can be replaced by this word; (2) *es* is used in its anticipative capacity, ie pointing to a word or subordinate clause following later in the sentence, and can under certain conditions be omitted; (3) *es* is used as the grammatical subject or object of a sentence.

Within these three basic categories finer distinctions can be made, based on the function of *es* as an element of the sentence, on the syntactic status of the word to which the anticipative *es* points, and on the

287

nature of any additional sentence element that may have to accompany *es* as a grammatical subject or object. With the help of these criteria ten subcategories and twelve subdivisions of these subcategories are laid down. [There are numerous examples and detailed analyses.]

430 EPQ EL AK

72–353 **Butler, C. S.** The language German chemists use: some preliminary observations on the grammar of chemical texts. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular* (Nottingham), **1**, 1 (1971), 10–17.

Attention has recently focused on the technical registers or *Fachsprechen* of English and German. Lexical frequency counts have so far taken precedence over grammatical investigations, but both are important for the construction of a basic course in a language for a special purpose.

Ten articles from German chemical journals were analysed as a first step in devising a short course for English chemists at university level. The grammatical areas investigated were chosen because of their internal complexity, because of the difficulty they present to English students or to check the appropriateness of the features included in most current specialist language courses. They included the frequency of: (1) subordinated clauses; (2) the active, pseudopassive and passive voice of verbs [table appended contrasting their use in organic, inorganic and physical chemistry texts], the subjunctive, modals, reflexives and separable and inseparable prefixes; (3) the expanded adjectival phrase and (4) prepositions.

The language of the experimental sections was much simpler than that of the theoretical sections of organic chemistry texts. In this small sample, there was an increase in grammatical complexity progressing from organic through inorganic chemistry to physical chemistry texts, which correlates well with the types of subject matter treated in the three kinds of text. [Full bibliography.]

430 EPQ EMT ANG 420

72–354 **Fischer, Willi W., Victor E. Hanzeli, F. William D. Love.** Community-based foreign-language teaching in Washington. *Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colorado), **55**, 8 (1971), 514–18.

Despite the current general decline in foreign-language enrolments, the state of Washington has established ten private Saturday schools to provide German instruction for 600 children (and adults). One source of the idea was the Trans-Canada Association, formed to provide a link with the culture and language of Germany for the children of immigrants. In Washington, however, it was decided to involve *all* interested members of the community. Local publicity secured interested and capable teachers and a free or inexpensive hall. Books were often donated, and the running costs and teachers' fees are paid out of contributions made by the parents. [Details of the finance and organization of one school are given.] Roughly one quarter of the students spoke some German on enrolment. Teaching methods are informal, eg drama, music, a choir, folk-dancing and a gymnastics class are all run in German, and a *Maifest* was organized. Teachers are selected for their teaching personality, as well as for their proficiency in the language and their paper qualifications. Summer courses, intermediate and beginner, in other European languages, and workshops on teacher training and the use of textbooks and teaching material have also been offered.   **430 EPQ EL EMV EPS 970**

72–355 **Förster, Ursula.** Zu einigen Problemen der Zielstellung für die sprachpraktische Ausbildung von Deutschlehrern. [On some problems of the aims in the practical training of teachers of German.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **8**, 6 (1971), 337–43.

The more careful formulation of the aims of teaching now current calls for equal care in the formulation of the aims of training teachers. Limitations operating at present on the training of teachers include: (1) future professional needs are not given anough attention; (2) too much theoretical knowledge and too little speaking ability are called

for; (3) themes of study are too remote from daily life; (4) the division of language into phonetics, lexis and grammar prevents systematic development; (5) technical aids are underestimated and under-used; (6) some teacher trainers lack language competence and (7) there is a lack of a proper theory of method.

The main aspects of the training of language teachers are not clearly defined; too much is left to subjective evaluation by teacher trainers. The teacher should be trained in articulation and intonation. Knowledge of grammar should be practical and not concentrated on the abstruse or unusual. Practical speech exercises could be increased at the expense of language theory. No indication is given of the number of lexical items a teacher should know. It is assumed that there are half a million words in German, but the average speaker manages with 6,000–10,000, the educated man with 30,000. Soviet teachers of German are expected to know 4,000 words, and teachers of Russian in the GDR, 3,900. However, pupils learning Russian in the GDR are expected to know 1,650 by sixteen plus, 2,100 by eighteen plus or 3,200 with extended tuition. In comparison, the teachers' knowledge of 3,900 Russian words seems inadequate. Obviously the teacher continually expands his vocabulary but research could clarify this and other problems of training.   **430 EPQ EL EKF**

72–356   Hatherall, Glyn. A service course in German. *Treffpunkt* (Bury, Lancashire), **4**, 2 (1972), 11.

A working session was arranged to study the programming of Eva Paneth's service course in German. This is an experiment in trying to establish the minimum amount of information on German structures needed by students without previous knowledge of the language in order to be able to extract accurate information in their subject from German documentation with the aid of specialist dictionaries. No attempt is made to teach spoken German, and the necessary ground is covered in sixteen double periods. The process involved is one of breaking down rather than building up the language, and it seems rapid and stimulating and may possibly be a useful parallel to a

standard oral/aural approach. The course will be subjected to further critical examination in a colloquium to be held when the material has been tried out. **430 EPQ EL ELW AN ATL**

72-357 Jones, Alan G. An integrated course for advanced students. *Treffpunkt* (Bury, Lancashire), **4**, 2 (1972), 12–13.

A course is described which was designed for students taking a German post-A-level option on the HND Business Studies, and which may prove useful in the first years of a degree course or in sixth forms working for one of the new A-level syllabus examinations. Whereas individual staff usually specialize in particular aspects of the work, eg translation into English or free composition in German, it was decided in this experiment to stress continuity in teaching by giving one of the staff a free hand each week to arrange all the work round one specific topic. The topics cover the background studies course. [Examples of the groupings are given, and a scheme for a week's work on economic geography, indicating the variety of materials used: a lecture, a film, listening practice from a tape, aural précis, a quiz, reading assignments and a conversation with a native-speaker.] Suggestions are invited for introducing more stimulating topics and for more precise grading of the material. **430 EMT EPB 942**

72-358 Jones, David L. The presentation of German plurals. *Treffpunkt* (Bury, Lancashire), **4**, 2 (1972), 2–4.

The problems of the lucid presentation of the complexities of plural forms in teaching German as a second language are discussed, and three traditional methods and their faults are reviewed. [Strong/weak; grouping the endings together irrespective of gender; the aural, individual approach to each plural.] The following presentation was used for a two-year O-level course. It builds on the pupils' familiarity with basic grammatical terms and gender categories, integrating in logical fashion the new material with their established knowledge of

the language. [Four major divisions of nouns are listed and explained and the exceptions discussed. Examples of drills are given, linking a revision of verbs with learning the main categories of plurals. Smaller groups of plurals are distinguished and mnemonics suggested.] Though this is clearly a grammar-based approach, declensions are never mentioned. Pupils are encouraged to use a colour scheme in their notebooks so that the gender of plurals is distinguished in part by visual memory.   **430 EPQ ELD EMS AKN 942**

72–359   Kreft, Jürgen. Der didaktische und methodische Ort der Sprachgestaltung im Deutschunterricht. Überlegungen auf dem Hintergrund der gegenwärtigen allgemeindidaktischen und deutschdidaktischen Situation. [The place of language practice in the didactics and methodology applicable to the teaching of German. Deliberations against the background of present day didactics in general and of didactics for German teaching.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig), **18** (1972), 70–87.

There are three basic determinants of curriculum: (1) knowledge and cultural inheritance; (2) society and its demands; (3) the individual and his needs. Language theory and practice should be integrated with literature to attain the goal of improving communication and encouraging confidence and individuality in students. Too great an emphasis on the demands of the industrial society and a rational approach is as dangerous as too great an emphasis on the reading interests and motivations of the young. The aim of German teaching should be to show the relationship of language, work and authority to other disciplines. The study of language and literature offers a means to the full development of the student as an individual and as a member of society. In practical terms this means opportunities for free and restricted role playing with discussion and interpretation of imagined and literary roles. A continuum of oral practice, written practice and literary appreciation should be the ideal to link literature and life.

430 EPQ ED EFG

72–360   Perl, Matthias and Roger Winter. Zum Problem der 'false friends'. [The problem of 'false friends.'] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **16**, 4 (1972), 183–5.

'False friends', belonging to two or more languages, are lexemes which are similar in sound or analogous in formation but are semantically interpreted differently. Of words which offer such difficulties in translation or interpreting, the following groups can be formed: (1) English lexemes formed analogously with the German, eg *überreichen*/overreach; (2) those which are phonetically equivalent or similar, eg *Gymnasium*/gymnasium; (3) those German lexemes whose semantic meaning covers only part of the English, eg *eventuell*/eventually; (4) those lexemes whose semantic meaning is only partly covered in English, eg *starten*/to start. Only Group (2) words are genuinely 'false friends'; there are also other pairs which offer similar problems, eg *Konzept*/concept. [A list is added of thirty-three German/ English 'false friends' which any serious student of German should know.]   **430 EPQ EL ADF ALD ARG 420**

72–361   Schäpers, Roland. Lineare Progression und konzentrischer Aufbau. [Linear progression and concentric construction.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **1** (1972), 22–8.

Since the end of the last century there have been frequent demands for language teaching to concentrate on giving a command of the spoken language and to be relevant to the learner's everyday needs. Yet language teaching has changed very little, and there has been no definition of spoken language. The organization of material by grammatical categories falls far short of the introduction of relevant language in relevant situations. The practice of using dialogues exclusively, concentric progression in place of linear, rests on the fiction that the learner's language knowledge is greater than it is in fact. More language can be introduced than is specifically taught but this depends very much on the extent of the use of visual material. It is least successful with adults and pupils who have studied by more traditional linear methods. The answer is to use a concentric construction but

293

without overstepping a minimum of new and untaught language items in the progression between the circles in the scheme. The greater the delay between the introduction of a grammatical problem and its systematic treatment, the greater the danger of the learner inducing the incorrect 'rules'. Some topics, eg the problem of the gender of nouns and of the use of the definite article in German, are too large to be treated within a linear progression and tied to any one situation. [Examples.]

Difficulties become greater in the more advanced stages of writing a course. To decide between the formal and familiar presonal pronouns the author must consider particular students. There is also the question of terminology in any attempt to summarize a part of the language system which has been presented and practised. The author of a course must remember that the dialogue or narrative, however well written and produced, can never *be* reality for the learner in the classroom. The course must include material which can serve the real situation: the conversation between teacher and student.

430 EPQ ED AK ATD

72-362 Wazel, Gerhard. Zur Ausarbeitung und Verwendung von Lernprogrammen im Deutschunterricht für Ausländer. [The construction and use of programmes in the teaching of German as a foreign language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **9**, 2 (1971 2), 116–21.

According to H. Utheß the material used in language laboratories can be divided into non-programmed, programmed, and material for use by the teacher only. [Detailed definitions given.] Methodologically prepared tapes are discussed. Utheß bases his classification on the structure of the material to be taught rather than on its didactic function. Although there is a considerable variety of modern teaching material available for German as a foreign language, there is scope for improvement. In so-called audio-visual programmes the visual element is very often missing. More suitable material should be devised, and teachers' reluctance to use it overcome. There are few programmes available for advanced students. From his own experience

294

of experimenting and improvising the author concludes that pro-
grammes for university students should be much more varied and
flexible than hitherto thought advisable. [Various suggestions on
innovations; detailed examples.]

Three types of drill are defined and discussed. The classification is
based on how close the language spoken in these drills comes to the
language spoken in real life. [Examples.] More research is needed into
the success rate and the optimum degree of difficulty of various pro-
grammes as well as into the maximum demand that can be made on
students. The effectiveness of different types of language laboratories
should also be investigated. A closer look at teaching machines is
suggested.   **430 EPQ EL ELW EMT**

72–363   Winterscheidt, Friedrich. Deutsch am Arbeitsplatz.
[German at the place of work.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich),
1 (1972), 13–21.

This scheme was set up to provide a minimum of language proficiency
in a short time for those without a great deal of schooling. The guide-
lines for a course in German for foreign workers were laid down after
the investigation of a number of existing courses. [List of the require-
ments it must meet.] The basic unit of the course leads up to the
standard of the foreign-language pass of the *Volkshochschule*. The
content is closely related to the newcomer's needs at his place of work.
Attention is first given to aural comprehension of imperatives and
simple interrogatives. The course is usually taught within an organiza-
tion. Students are grouped according to native language and according
to job. More importance is attached to structures than to technical
vocabulary. The first part of the course gives thirty-six basic struc-
tures based on the language of the job. At the end of five days the
worker should be able to respond appropriately to common imperatives
and questions.

Motivation is important and is supplied by the closeness to daily
activity of what is learned, and by the setting of precise short-term
goals. Each new structure must be seen by these particular learners as

295

immediately useful. Daily test units are included to ensure that the course matches the learner's needs and to demonstrate to the student his own rate of progress. The first part of *Deutsch am Arbeitsplatz* is built on a series of six basic situations for industrial procedures. [A list of the basic situations is given with an indication of accompanying structures and vocabulary.] The course is essentially audio-lingual, with visuals as a supplement and is therefore also suitable for illiterate workers. [Appendix A gives the scheme for the basic course; appendix B a schedule for the first lesson of the course; appendix C a detail from chapter 2.] **430 EPQ EL EMV ENT APD**

ITALIAN

72–364 Fryer, Alan. Sudden growth in Italian. *Times Higher Education Supplement* (London), **29** (28 April 1972), 6.

A feature of the general university expansion in Britain in the last decade was a sudden growth in Italian studies in new and established departments of Italian. The figures for 1970/71 reveal an increase of over 60 per cent on the previous year in the number of students reading Italian – clearly in part due to a general rise in the numbers of Arts applicants, and in part to the trend to study languages not made stale at school. Italian can now be studied in combination with over forty-five different subjects. [Examples are quoted of fully integrated and comparative courses at Kent, Sussex, Warwick and Birmingham.] New degree courses no longer treat the language as a mere tool for literary appreciation but place the emphasis on modern spoken and written Italian, with supporting courses in linguistics and in the study of Italian history and social institutions. [Details of these and other more traditional courses are given.] **450 EPQ EMT 942**

RUSSIAN   *See also abstract* 72–300

72–365   Abdullaeva, V. S. Развитие навыков слухового восприятия русской речи. [The development of listening habits in learning Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **6** (1971), 29–36.

In teaching aural comprehension through oral reproduction of textual material two basic aims should be observed: the understanding of facts, events and ideas explicitly stated, and the deduction and subsequent expression of ideas implicit in a given passage. [Six kinds of material are recommended to suit the learner's level of attainment, age and interests.]

The content and form of the material used should gradually become more complex, while the exercises set may vary from collective work and the recounting of basic content only, to detailed oral reproduction of specific features, turning direct into reported speech and conveying implicit emotional attitudes. The initial stages should be fully under the teacher's control. The pupils' understanding may be checked by question and answer on restricted portions of the text, and visual support may be valuable prior to full reproduction. Two introductory techniques are vital: emphasis upon key words and expressions and an example reproduction with an accompanying written text, its format designed to emphasize the important items. Initially, a plan should be constructed jointly by class and teacher, the latter indicating how to simplify complex language. To activize their own vocabulary, pupils should use their own words in oral reproduction rather than repeat the original closely. Preparatory exercises on foreseen linguistic difficulties may be necessary at times.

At every stage of attainment, passages should be concerned with the civilization of the target language, should include as many known items and structures as possible and be presented by a variety of oral means – radio, television, recorded and live voices. Formal oral tests to assess audio-oral progress should take place four times a year. [Differences between monologue and dialogue are outlined with recommended guidelines for the pupil-listener and an illustration is

offered of oral reproduction exercises based on a film strip and commentary.] **491.7 EPQ ELD AT**

72–366 Jameson, Andrew. Languages and memory. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **2967** (31 March 1972), 24.

The problem with learning Russian is that of retaining large amounts of unfamiliar information and persuading it to enter a long-term memory store where there is very little with which to integrate it. Entrance to the long-term memory store can be gained only through the short-term store; generally only significant information is transferred. Cramming does not result in permanent acquisition of knowledge since the ST store becomes overloaded and the new information fades before it can be integrated with information already in the LT store.

Two simple principles are recommended for all students learning in a non-Russian environment. (1) Repetition: daily short lessons are more efficient than marathon learning sessions. (2) Integration: language information should be learned in ways that integrate it quickly with students' knowledge of other languages and with Russian already acquired. A notebook should be compiled to serve as an extra LT memory store, recording the odd and the arresting. The Russian should be noted first, the explanation afterwards. This running list should be full of language in action, not dead nominatives and infinitives. A select list should also be made of particular types of language culled from reference books. The notebook should be visually varied, and carried everywhere. **491.7 EPQ EL EGD**

72–367 Vsevolodova, M. V. Употребление кратких и полных прилагательных. [The use of short and full forms of adjectives.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1971), 65–8; **1** (1972), 59–64.

These two articles concern the influence of sentence construction upon the use of full and short adjectival forms. In some cases the use

of one form rather than another is obligatory; the interchange of such forms, while not usually altering the sense of a given sentence, nevertheless influences its grammatical structure. Where both forms are possible, style and sense may be preserved as identical, the style may alter or the sense may alter. Twelve models are adduced grouped under two main categories: the use of the full form, where the construction of the sentence demands it in the predicate; the use of the short form, where the sentence in which the adjective appears is expanded.

The second article deals with the use of the short-form adjective in a non-expanded sentence and with the synonymy of full and short forms functioning as a predicate. [Details of the lexical items governing these constructions are given and a large variety of examples is included.] Methodological advice is given for teaching the material outlined in both articles. Certain factors influence the use of the short form: the characteristics of the subject or group of subjects; the morphological construction of the adjective itself; word-order; the nature of the subordinate clause; the correlation of the adjective with other parts of speech, particularly with adverbs.

With respect to synonymy, certain cases exist where no external factors determine the use of one particular form of the adjective, other than the type of content conveyed by the statement in which the adjective appears. Three such uses may be discerned where the statement conveys information, evaluation or judgement – the first being the most common. A further category concerns some adjectives which assume different meanings in each form. Methodological advice includes recommendations on the selection of models and the presentation of their forms. [Following an outline of criteria, ample illustrations accompany each topic.]   **491.7 EPQ EL AK**

OTHER LANGUAGES

72-368 Gwyther-Jones, Roy. Vernacular literacy: bridge to a national language. *Kivung* (Boroko), **4**, 3 (1971), 161-70.

Over 80 per cent of the adult population of the Territory of Papua, New Guinea, is illiterate. Only half the Territory's children attend school, and the population is growing. Adult education is allotted few resources, though it is well known that children returning from school to largely illiterate adult communities rapidly lapse into illiteracy. Complementary adult education courses may improve the situation. Christian Mission programmes, coordinated by the Summer Institute of Linguistics, now focus on adult education in vernacular languages and Pidgin. Mission publishers are producing an increasing volume of literature for adults. Uncoordinated efforts fail to produce functional literates, and the drop-out is unlikely to make a second attempt or to encourage others. Adults in the Territory are taught the mechanics of reading and writing in their mother tongue by a translator and literacy worker. Instructors are trained from the first 'graduates'. The publication of literature suitable for adults and presented in attractive and durable form is subsidized. Motivation is very important. [A varied sample of factors is quoted.] The transition from the vernacular to Pidgin is simple, though the initiative should always come from the new reader and not from the instructor. Transfer to English requires an extended transition course. [Two appendices indicate the success of past and present programmes.]

(420) EPQ EL EMV AFL AMJ ASB 995