

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

73–180 Arndt, Horst. Tendenzen der transformationellen Schulgrammatik in Deutschland. [Tendencies of transformational school grammar in Germany.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), 3, 4 (1972), 247–65.

There has been a good deal of discussion of the relationship of transformational generative grammar (TGG) and language teaching. It is useful to distinguish TGG from transformational school grammar (TSG). Within TSG many questions have been discussed, and the teaching of a number of languages has been considered from the point of view of TSG. [References.] There has been a wide range in the positions taken by works on TSG. The author sets out to account for the important basic trends which have appeared. The relationship of TGG and structuralism is considered and discussions of the place of pattern practice are reviewed against this relationship.

The author describes and discusses many different views of the relevance of TGG to teaching. An example is given of the incorporation in a TSG of a procedure from TGG, with consideration of the implications for syllabus and teacher training. The determination through TGG of the grammar of a language is seen by many as of importance in the design of a TSG but there are doubts about the applicability of the rules of TGG. [References.] Difficulties arise from the abstract nature of the 'kernel sentence' and the complex relationship between deep and surface structure. What is put forward as the use of 'transformations' is equally well seen as the continuation of well-known conversion exercises. Transformational rules in TGG have an entirely different function. It is incorrect to use the term 'generate' in applying TGG, particularly until the confirmation or refutation of the Chomskyan hypotheses. Although TGG is important for TSG the

direct incorporation of items from TGG is not possible. [Select bibliography.]

EPQ ED EMS ADN (943)

73–181 Bolinger, Dwight. The influence of linguistics: plus and minus. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 6, 2 (1972), 107–20.

In many ways the influence of linguistics on language teaching has been good, but the kind of influence exerted depends on what is meant by 'language teaching'. The linguist's role is not limited to description: linguistics has also helped to determine ways of teaching, attitudes towards language, and motivation. Language teaching and philosophy gave birth to linguistics. The Greek and Roman linguists assumed that grammar categorized reality and also that their language embodied the ideal. Early linguistics not only determined the manner of teaching but also what was to be taught. [Brief history of linguistics from the Renaissance emphasis on the vernacular to nineteenth-century historical linguistics.] Only with the arrival of synchronic linguistics could linguistic science begin working on language-teaching problems.

The linguists of the 'forties were behaviouristically oriented, and thus adopted the notion of conditioning. Their best work was done in phonology, and what was analysed and taught best were sounds and word forms. The prevailing philosophy was empiricism. A language was not regarded as a complete system of mutually dependent parts: the result was concentration on segments and neglect of much syntax and most meaning. On the other hand, the emphasis on speech was beneficial. The scientific imprint is also clearest in the area of pronunciation. An indirect effect of attention to the interchange of messages was more activity, participation, and alertness in the language lesson.

Certain teachers and textbook writers assumed that language was a set of habits and nothing else. Language teaching as habit formation and language teaching as rule-governed behaviour are not mutually exclusive. One result of the decline of structuralism and the use of formalism has been the revival of traditional grammar. For economic

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reasons the direct influence of post-structural linguistics has been slight. Conflict among linguists is turning language teachers away from ties with linguistics and towards ways of getting students to learn. Meaning is not self-evident: it needs to be taught. Both structuralism and transformationalism concentrate on form and neglect meaning.

EPQ ED ADN

73-182 Bretzler, Gerrit. Stellenwert und Darbietungsweise morpho-syntaktischer Zusammenhänge im audiolingualen Fremdsprachenunterricht. [The importance of morpho-syntactical relationships in audiolingual foreign-language teaching and the method of presenting them.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 4/1972, 139-50.

The author finds unsatisfactory both the modern direct method of language teaching with no formal grammar and the old-fashioned 'grammatical' method. His aim is to make the pupil conscious of the morpho-syntactical relationships in the target language. Aural comprehension and the ability to converse are considered more important than competence in reading and writing. Some modern textbooks underestimate the value of grammatical knowledge. However, an understanding by the pupil of the morpho-syntactical system, combined with intensive drilling, reinforces automatic response.

The grammatical section of a course book should be included in the lesson. It is important always to introduce new structures in situations which allow them to arise naturally and in which their function is clear. The teacher should decide whether to discuss a particular grammatical point before or after the reading of the text. In either case the pupil should be led by question and answer gradually to formulate the rules for himself. At the same time the teacher should summarize the structures on the blackboard by means of model sentences and paradigms. It is preferable to use some grammatical terminology, as this obviates cumbersome explanations. Finally the structures may be reinforced by drills, preferably contextualized drills, which lead to free conversation in the target language.

EPQ ED AK AT

73-183 Dubois, Jean. Grammaire scientifique et grammaire pédagogique. [Scientific grammar and teaching grammar.] *Langue Française* (Paris), **14** (1972), 6-31.

Linguists and teachers alike may hold any of three principal views on the relationship between the descriptions of language offered by linguistics and pedagogy: that they are incompatible; that the findings of linguistics, both structural and generative, can contribute to the teaching of language; that the language of teaching and education is itself a fair subject to submit to the linguist's scrutiny.

Both the linguist and the teacher make judgements of grammaticality and acceptability, the former on competence, the latter on performance (including pronunciation, orthography, syntax and semantics). But in practice the teaching of language rests on an ambiguity between 'grammar' and 'language', these being usually confused.

What is the relationship between linguistic and teaching descriptions of language in the training of teachers? University teaching tends to be entirely didactic, *per se*, and because it is self-perpetuating through the training of teachers. Teaching for the *licence* and doctoral degrees prepares the candidate for research but teaching for professional qualifications shackles the trainee to the accepted teaching grammars (eg Wagner and Pinchon; Chevalier). Scientific and teaching grammars may be regarded as separate and mutually falsifying. The inductive *explication de textes* describes style in terms of departure from a norm, and the deductive *leçons de grammaire* define a grammatical point with illustrations, their continuing bias towards historical linguistics predating the development of modern linguistics. The grammars considered sacrosanct in teacher training contain little awareness of linguistics: the categorization of simple sentence types, or the descriptions of interrogation as carried out by either an interrogative word or by inversion were shown by D. Coste's analysis to be quite unrealistic in terms of modern usage. The artificial norm used in teaching (based on seventeenth-century and literary French, and admitting of variations only for intentional stylistic reasons) needs to be replaced by newly defined norms based on usage.

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Attempts to overcome the split between the two types of discourse, by terminological borrowings, in practice make linguistics pseudo-pedagogic and pedagogy pseudo-scientific. The teacher must be given a firm grounding in linguistics and teaching grammar must be reconstructed.

(440) EPQ ED ADN

73-184 Moss, R. B. When language is the behaviour. *Royal Air Force Education Bulletin* (London), 9 (1972), 41-8.

The English language department for overseas students at the Royal Air Force School of Education trains people of a wide range of linguistic ability. Because of their comparative homogeneity as a group, some Iranian cadets were taken as 'standard' for the purpose of attempting to write a syllabus in behavioural terms. [Eight course objectives set out.] The English-language course normally contains six elements [listed]. The structures and grammar phase of the course could be expressed in behavioural terms, but little is known of the comparative frequency of various tenses and constructions used in oral instruction within the Royal Air Force. Even in the performance of drills, judgement of standard is partially subjective – a figure of about 70 per cent correct responses in the language laboratory is considered useful confirmation of progress, but not an inviolable 'objective'. [Three syllabus extracts for situational English and practical English are set out to underline the subjectivity of approach.]

The attempt to write a syllabus in behavioural terms has led to a more accurate and realistic statement of 'target areas', and has refined subjective assessment techniques. Glossaries can be improved by an analysis of word counts in the technical manuals used in training schools, and by a similar analysis of tapes of instructors operating in those schools. It is dangerous to apply rigid behavioural objectives to language learning and teaching, which demand a certain flexibility. Careful analysis of other subjects may confirm the need for a systems approach which is not necessarily couched in conventional behavioural terms.

(420) EPQ ED EG ANG

- 73–185 Motsch, Wolfgang.** Gedanken zum Verhältnis zwischen Linguistik, Psychologie und Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Thoughts on the relationship between linguistics, psychology and the teaching of foreign languages.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 9, 4 (1972), 213–21.

It is generally agreed that scientific knowledge of the foreign language and the mother tongue as well as of the psychological and social factors involved is necessary for successful language teaching. There are, however, diverging views on details. The most important condition for a scientifically sound language-teaching programme is a clear exposition of all the assumptions and conditions on which the programme is based, especially those of a psycholinguistic nature, in order to make them verifiable. At the moment our knowledge of linguistics is more precise and complete than that of the psychological processes underlying language acquisition. Didactics and methodology have still to be fully developed on an interdisciplinary basis because of the interdependence of the many fields of study dealing with problems of language.

Of all the past attempts to develop a comprehensive conception of language the author prefers the theory based on Marxism–Leninism. [Omissions and distortions in earlier bourgeois theories mentioned.] Neither Saussure, nor Hjelmslev, nor Bloomfield, nor Harris fully recognized the importance of the psychological and social aspects of language. The theories of Saussure and Bloomfield were based on neo-positivist thought [detailed criticism from a Marxist-Leninist point of view]. Chomsky tried to adopt a wider view but was only partially successful. [Description of Chomsky's theory given; competence and performance and the relationship between them are analysed. T. A. Bever's views on this relationship and on some related problems are added.] The discussion about the relationship between the linguistic description of grammar and the research into psychological mechanisms of language activity has not gone beyond the initial stages. A theory of grammar that takes into account psychological and social aspects, if only to an insufficient degree, provides valuable new insights into language, and the rules derived from it are relevant to teaching.

EPQ ED AG

73-186 Richards, Jack C. Some social aspects of language learning. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 6, 3 (1972), 243-54.

The emphasis placed on standard English as a factor in school achievement and social mobility results from a misinterpretation of the role of language in social structure. Immigrants' use of non-standard varieties of a language is a consequence of the way in which society is perceived by the immigrant group and of the degree to which they have been admitted into the main stream of the dominant culture. Where immigrants have limited social and economic mobility, the immigrant mother tongue becomes one marker of second-class citizenship. Non-standard immigrant English occurs in contexts where there are few informal friendly contacts with speakers of standard English, and no intellectual activities in English; it may also express ethnic pride.

Unfavourable social conditions lead to interlanguage maintenance. The crucial factor is not the relationship between home and school, but between the minority group and the local society. Non-standard immigrant dialects are the product, not the cause, of social and economic inequality. Indigenous minority groups become less fluent in their native language and develop particular varieties of English, used for limited purposes. The standard language is employed on formal occasions only. Exclusion from society weakens motivation to learn English. The abandonment of the traditional values and heritage of the minority group is seen as the price to be paid for entry into the main culture.

We need careful investigation of the conditions for learning standard English before commitment can be made to teaching it. There is little agreement, for instance, as to how interference from the child's own language causes difficulties with standard English. However, nobody can be expected to learn the language of a social group if he is denied the means to join that group. Problems such as these require social, economic, and political solution.

(420) EPP ED EMS ENT AKF AMF

73-187 Stölting, W. Überlegungen zum Fremdsprachenbedarf. [Reflexions on the need for foreign languages.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig), **22** (1972), 68-73.

To ascertain the need for foreign languages, past history and future demands must be considered. Language centres must cater for those who need to communicate in speech and those who learn for other reasons. The need for language learning has grown with international congresses, increased trade and improved communications technology. Solutions such as intensified foreign-language teaching, better translation methods and a single world language have all been tried, but international foreign-language communication will continue to increase. Within countries a new phenomenon, socially determined bilingualism, is occurring as migrants raise their social status and all social classes become involved at national and international level. Future foreign-language needs must be estimated and met at an early stage. University language centres have a two-fold task, to cater for existing needs and to create an awareness of the dangers of foreign-language deficiencies. A wider range of languages must be made available to all classes and professions. **EPQ ED EFG**

73-188 Zapp, Franz Josef. Der Fremdsprachenunterricht auf der gymnasialen Oberstufe. [Foreign-language teaching at sixth-form level.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **25**, 4 (1972), 193-7.

The Saarbrücken agreement on sixth-form teaching in German grammar schools was aimed at motivating pupils and making them academically more independent by means of a greater variety of study methods, coupled with fewer hours of instruction and increased specialization. In general, however, language-teaching methods in the sixth form did not change, and the success of the scheme was rather limited.

A new agreement for restructuring the sixth form will take effect by 1976-7. Pupils will take a number of obligatory subjects in arts, social sciences and natural sciences, and will select in addition two special

subjects. Compulsory modern-language instruction occupies a rather smaller place in the timetable than compulsory science. In schools where this scheme has been tried out, a large proportion of the pupils decided to specialize in English, very few selected French, and many chose not to specialize in modern languages at all.

The decline in foreign-language teaching since the Saarbrücken agreement is related to uncertainty concerning the aims of such teaching. At fifth-form level the first aim should be to further international communication; the second to impart linguistic knowledge; and the third to provide a literary education. The texts read should be of general interest and of gradually increasing complexity; they should be interpreted from a sociological point of view, so that competence in a language develops hand in hand with knowledge of the culture.

EPQ ED EFG (943)

ERROR ANALYSIS

73-189 Komorowska-Piskorowska, Hanna. Konfrontační analýza a teorie interference. [Confrontational analysis and the theory of interference.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), **16**, 4 (1972/3), 149-55.

In order to account fully for all types of errors that may occur in a second-language situation a linguist must evaluate the data acquired from the contrastive analysis of the first and second languages and those based on the identification of the psychological interference of mechanisms which function on two levels (of reception, resulting in interlingual and intralingual generalizations of stimuli, and of production, resulting in competing responses). A specific model of procedure in the analysis of interference in second-language learning has been outlined, allowing the linguist to predict the type of errors and to state the probability of their occurrence (in the sense of the hierarchy of learning difficulties of specific items in the second language), especially in the learner's competence in the second language. The foreign-language teacher should be acquainted with these predictions and should organize remedial teaching to counteract

expected errors. If unexpected errors occur in the student's verbal behaviour in the foreign language which are not accounted for by the contrastive linguistic analysis, the opposite procedure could be adopted: the collected corpus of errors may be taken as the starting point and errors should be classified into errors in competence (if the frequency of a particular error is very high) and errors in performance, if the frequency of occurrence is low. It would then be necessary to decide which psychological mechanisms were the underlying cause of these errors in competence and remedial exercises in further differentiation between verbal or situational stimuli should be introduced. In the case of the occasional type of performance error, it is necessary to introduce remedial repetition drills to reinforce the correct response.

EPQ EHM ELM AKT AYM

TESTING

73-190 Baetens Beardsmore, H. Testing oral fluency. *Rapport d'Activités de l'Institut de Phonétique* (Brussels), 6 (December 1972), 10-22.

By combining aspects of two types of oral testing, the global approach and the minute approach, into a test battery, it should be possible to combine the advantages of the interview situation with the standardization and objectivity of the discrete-point test without running the risk of unreliability or irrelevance to a teaching programme which encourages the active, creative use of language. [Work on the standardization of tests of oral production grew from an experiment in the Université Libre de Bruxelles in which the same examiners scored the same candidates differently after a three-week lapse of time between the original interview and the second hearing.]

A battery of spoken English tests was designed to test oral fluency, which was taken to imply 'communicative competence' requiring an ability to formulate accurate and appropriate utterances of more than one sentence in length. [The preliminary project is described in detail.] The present test derives from the experimental project and was first administered in 1971. Students are tested in a language

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laboratory and asked to choose one of three given topics. They have two minutes to make brief notes on a small card, and must then speak for one minute forty-five seconds. [Examples of topics.] It is emphasized that, to eliminate undue stress, students must be familiar with the language-laboratory situation and have had plenty of practice before sitting the test.

Scoring criteria were carefully established, though it was recognized that objective testing can in many situations be no more than 'reduced subjective' testing. [Five criteria tentatively defined: fluency, accuracy, relevance, intelligibility and pronunciation. Credit was also given for variety of structure and lexis.] Each student's tape takes approximately four minutes to mark and remarkable consistency has been noted among the different scorers using this system. [Some problems are identified, and suggestions made for tackling them. Bibliography.]

(420) EPQ EHP ELY ATD (949.3)

73-191 Most, R. L. Testing aural comprehension. *Rapport d'Activités de l'Institut de Phonétique* (Brussels), 6 (December 1972), 42-59.

A study was undertaken of aural comprehension with specific reference to testing non-specialist students on completion of an intensive revision course based on audio-aural methods in English language at an elementary/intermediate level. The students were in the second year of their course in the Faculty of Economics and at the École de Commerce of the Université Libre de Bruxelles. The project covered the three academic sessions 1969/72. [Aims and objectives of the project are outlined and a detailed description given of the early tests prepared and administered during the first year, and the modifications that were required.]

In the new tests open-ended questions were replaced by a multiple-choice format and the load on short-term memory was substantially reduced. The test lasted a strict thirty minutes. In pretest trials, scoring was based on an unweighted system with two marks for each of the ten questions. Scores were concentrated towards the top end of the scale, which is not unusual in a proficiency/achievement test.

In the sessional tests the results also showed high scores, in part because the passage chosen facilitated decoding by its logical arrangement and clear division into key points. In the later tests, items were weighted according to difficulty.

One of the aims of the project, the construction of a valid, reliable test, is nearing fulfilment, though performance in listening comprehension does not correlate highly with performance in tests of other linguistic skills. Further experiment is necessary on equivalent reliability (on whether tests are in fact of equal difficulty), and on the kind of response open to the candidate (a précis in the mother tongue might replace the multiple-choice format). It must be accepted that comprehension of connected discourse requires non-linguistic skills, in particular, abstract reasoning ability.

(420) EPQ EHP EMT AJK ATL (949.3)

TEACHING METHODS

73-192 **Besant, J. P.** and others. Group report: teaching a foreign language to less-able pupils. *Bulletin of the Scottish Central Committee for Modern Languages* (Perth), 6 (1972), 73-9.

Block timetabling in Standard I enables the Principal Teacher to decide at what point to 'set' language classes. Although the less able sectors form a large proportion of each school, little has been done to produce courses to meet their needs or abilities. Practising teachers should collaborate with publishers to provide suitable material. Where it was intended to design a course in European civilization containing a language element, 'horizontal' panels of a multi-disciplinary nature should be formed within the school. In-service training is vital, since modern-language teachers are academic by training and inclination. [Two successful experiments described with 'difficult' children. Sixteen girls spent one-and-a-half terms on a French course with 'shopping' as a central theme. Sixteen boys spent a year learning conversational German - fishing provided the

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theme and exchange visits were made with a similar community in Germany.] Some general points emerged from discussion of these two experiments: (1) a central theme and daily contact with the class is essential; (2) the optimum number in the class is about sixteen; (3) language laboratories are not suitable; (4) over-correction should be avoided. [Fourteen subjects suggested as suitable bases for teaching 'survival' language courses in connexion with the Nuffield Foundation's *Dans le Vent*.] Each lesson should be broken up into a number of different activities, and project work is a valuable stimulus.

The school trip abroad provides a great incentive to master the language required in some of the suggested situations. Well prepared for the excursion, the less able pupil often derives considerable benefit. [Materials and equipment necessary to prepare for a school visit abroad are discussed.] Since teaching languages to the less able pupil is a difficult task, particularly in Standard III and beyond, it should always be the job of the experienced teacher. **EPQ EL ENF**

73-193 Edelhoff, Christoph. *Bewegliche Differenzierung – Beispiel Englischunterricht: Bericht aus der Gesamtschule Fröndenberg.* [Flexible differentiation illustrated by the teaching of English: report from Fröndenberg Comprehensive School.] *Betrifft Erziehung* (Weinheim), **12** (1971), 33-9.

To offer equality of opportunity in a comprehensive school presents a problem which can be solved by a strategy of differentiation using various projects to which group teaching and group activity are applicable. Between the ages of nine and fourteen there is a period of fundamental language learning when skill acquisition looms large; at this stage grouping related to skill-orientated learning aims is valuable. The grouping is done on the basis of diagnosing weaknesses and must be flexible to match individual progress and changing needs. As well as basic knowledge (*fundamentum*) there must be *addita* which the brighter can tackle. Progress is therefore spiral, not linear. The requisites are team planning and teaching, careful preparation (with pupil participation, if possible), varied means of diagnosis

and therapy, a multimedial approach, specialist rooms and flexible timetabling. [A clear and detailed scheme of the practical application of this method is given, together with the English work to be done by a group of twelve-year-olds.]

(420) EPQ EL EFN ELB EMS (943)

CLASS METHODS: LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

73-194 Gollé, M. Le compte rendu de lecture; un exercice intéressant, enrichissant...et méconnu. [Précis and summary writing; an interesting, educative and neglected exercise.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **95** (1973), 27-9.

Students of a language for special purposes can improve their writing skill in a course of training in writing précis and summaries. Part of the course is, necessarily, comprehension training, for which well-tried techniques are appropriate; the training in written self-expression can be arranged in stages. The student is first trained to work to a designed plan of presentation. As this is developed his facility is improved by practising suitable types of expression, first as formulae, and subsequently, as a result of continued extension, with a sense of style and appropriateness. After work on printed texts in the target language which allows students to gain confidence by working at their own speed, oral comprehension can be introduced and training given in note-taking and writing up lectures. On this foundation the students can build their own style and prepare to write dissertations.

EPQ ELD AN AS ATG

73-195 Mountford, Alan and Ronald Mackay. A programme in English for postgraduate students in the faculties of science, applied sciences and agriculture in the University of Newcastle upon Tyne. *IUT: Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy), **22** (1972), 9-38.

Current linguistic thinking gives little help to service language

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teachers for specialist scientific departments. The need is for a description of language patterns in terms of their communicative value, and for materials based on a cotextual, contextual and rhetorical approach. Overseas postgraduate students reading scientific and technical courses in the university often need assistance in English auditory and reading skills. [Problem of identifying students in need.] Such assistance must be useful to students with differences in their language backgrounds, levels of attainment in English, and in the amount of time they can give to the course, which should be as far as possible self-instructional. All common stylistic variations likely to be encountered in the specialist texts are presented for recognition; selection from these for active presentation models is left to the student's choice. The object is to facilitate the development of strategies for eliciting information from texts and lectures. The development of such comprehension strategies is regarded as an active, not a passive, skill.

Teaching texts are graded linguistically by length, sentence complexity and noun-phrase complexity; the rhetorical level is restricted to the analytic description of properties, process, state and operation, and to the tone of formal discussion and the imparting of information. The grammatical development has similar expository themes recurring with increasing formal complexity throughout the course. Exercises go beyond the presented text and pose problems for solution; they develop comprehension skills in vocabulary discrimination, perception of implication, veracity and coherence, and the recognition of transformations of the basic syntactic structures. [Example of a text for soil scientists, with exercises.]

(420) EPQ ELD EMT AJK ANG

READING

73-196 Booth, V. H. A. Reading retardation in a Northern Ireland LEA. *Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research: Information Bulletin* (Belfast), 6 (1972), 7-8.

A study of reading retardation was carried out among pupils in

primary schools of County Antrim. A random 10 per cent sample of pupils was tested annually for four years. Their average scores for 1967 were somewhat above the published norms (standardized in England), but by 1970 they had slightly declined in relation to those norms. Girls scored higher than boys in general, and pupils from county schools did better than those from voluntary schools. [Table of scores, details of results of Neale Analysis of Reading Ability which tests speed, accuracy and comprehension, and reasons for discrepancies.]

An experiment was conducted to compare the effectiveness of daily remedial tuition over one school term with twice-weekly tuition over one school year. The total tuition time for both methods was 105 hours. 108 retarded readers (six months or more behind their chronological age in reading) were assigned to three equal groups: one was taught by the intensive method, a second by the extensive method, and the third was a control group. Peripatetic teachers from the Local Educational Authority tutored the first two groups using a mainly phonic approach. [Details of results of remedial tuition.] The advantage held by the intensively taught over the extensively taught group appeared to persist at final testing eighteen months after tuition ended, with the control group coming last of the three. Nevertheless, none of these group differences proved to be statistically significant. [Suggestions for a preventive rather than a remedial programme.]

EPP ELD ELM EMR ASP (942)

73-197 Oliver, Peter R., Jacquelyn M. Nelson and John Downing. Differentiation of grapheme-phoneme units as a function of orthography. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington DC), **63**, 5 (1972), 487-92.

In the initial teaching alphabet (ita) digraphs are represented by special symbols, for instance, *tʃ* for *th*. Two other possible ways of explicitly representing digraphs use underlining (eg *that*) and spacing (eg *that*). An experiment was carried out to investigate the effectiveness of these three special orthographies in comparison with traditional orthography in teaching children to read. The subjects were

forty children divided into four groups of ten and aged between fifty-six and seventy-three months. The task was to match a number of words, presented visually, by assembling them from a set of all possible constituents. (All possible constituents of the word *ship* in traditional orthography are: *s, h, i, p, sh, hi, ip, shi* and *hip*.) The subjects were trained to assemble four words in the way that corresponded to their phonemic structure. (Thus the traditional orthography group had to assemble *ship* as *sh+i+p*, rather than *s+h+i+p, s+hip*, etc.) Four further words were then presented, to test how well the subjects had learned this rule for assembling words. The number of words correctly assembled by the three groups using the special orthographies was significantly greater than by the traditional orthography group; and the number of errors made was significantly smaller. The results thus confirm the effectiveness of explicit graphic cues for differentiating digraphs.

The differences between ita and the other two special orthographies were in general nonsignificant. It might be argued that specially augmented orthographies which retain the symbols of the traditional orthography are superior to ita since the subsequent transfer to traditional orthography is presumably easier. Research to test this hypothesis is in progress.

EPQ ELD EMP ASM ASP

73-198 Seliger, Herbert W. Improving reading speed and comprehension in English as a second language. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 1 (1972), 48-55.

Among the causes of reading difficulty are the complexity (in syntax as well as vocabulary) of the reading materials, the practice of reading aloud, and the insecurity that all second-language learners probably feel. Reading aloud is justifiable only as a test of intonation and comprehension and there is often too much of it. It causes anxiety to the reader and develops emphasis on minimal segments. Reading is as much conceptual as perceptual and must become a skill of knowing what to look for in a reading context. Dependence on the dictionary should be discouraged and the skill of reading for inferential meaning

should be developed. [A few activities and techniques are suggested – scanning, previewing, directed reading and the correction of regression habits to increase reading speed, comprehension, and enjoyment. Diagrams of suggested finger movements to speed reading are given.]

(420) EPQ ELD ASP ATL

SPEECH

73–199 Alexander, L. G. How to use a text as the basis for a guided conversation lesson. *Modern English Teacher* (London), 1, 1 (1973), 4–5.

Practical suggestions are made to increase fluency in the middle stages of foreign-language learning (for primary, secondary or adult students) as a preparation for open-ended or ‘free’ conversation. [A suggested lesson plan given, covering six phases: presentation of the text, the teacher’s questions on the text, students’ questions on the text, oral reconstruction of the text, transfer phase, and general questions and talking points. Each stage is discussed with examples.]

(420) EPQ ELD ATD

73–200 von Faber, Helm. ‘Rolle’ und ‘Rolleverhalten’ im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Roles and role behaviour in foreign-language teaching.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 4/1972, 151–62.

Modern tendencies to regard role behaviour as more important than linguistic and situational elements result from a new emphasis in teaching the mother tongue. Problems of register and lack of time complicate the issue in schools. Adults, however, may need to transfer their mother-tongue competence into a foreign language, but role behaviour often becomes role playing in a classroom situation and follows the introduction and drilling of new material. Much audio-visual material creates artificial situations and unrealistic roles with which students cannot identify: more work needs to be done on the motives and psychological make-up of various characters. Role

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playing can then be followed by guided and free conversation. [A detailed account is given of a seminar held in 1972 on role playing and conversation for foreign teachers of German.] Close collaboration between mother-tongue and foreign-language teachers is essential in the use of role playing. (EPP) EPQ ELD EPS ATD (430)

73-201 Wenzel, Johannes. Možnosti nácviku konverzace pro pokročilé. [Conversation exercises for advanced students.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague) 16, 4 (1972/3), 155-61.

Conversation exercises should be based on a text, and can only be applied successfully if the student is thoroughly acquainted with the basic text. (1) Preparatory exercises aim at introducing and making automatic situation patterns and structures that recur in a conversation. The exercises are based on set phrases with a definite function in the communicative situation and they must be drilled like any other language pattern by means of substitution, and by meaningful and explanatory differentiation. They also include detailed questions forming the basis for simple responses in dialogue, and complex questions intended as stimuli to detailed answers in monologue. (2) Reproduction exercises are designed to employ the previously drilled language structures in context, reproducing the content of the text. They are graded from strictly guided to relatively free performance. They can be monologue exercises, where for instance a series of known expressions is used in the same order within the frames of known structures, or catchwords to be used within these structures in a longer discourse, or dialogue exercises in which in addition to the drilled structures of the text, there are also situational patterns to be used in appropriate stimulus and response patterns or which can be cued by gestures and mimicry. The latter should help to provide a bridge from learned structures and patterns to 'free' conversation. (3) Advanced conversation exercises are no longer exercises in the true sense of the word, since they cannot be drilled but only guided, and they no longer stick to the text. They consist of questions to initiate independent conversation and topics for free conversation limited only by the situational context. (430) EPQ ELD ATD

73-202 Wilkinson, Andrew and Leslie Stratta. Listening and the study of spoken language. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **25**, 1 (1972), 3-20.

Research has shown that most people listen badly, particularly when their role is passive, not requiring any immediate response. American experiments have tended to isolate listening and listening 'skills', whereas the Oracy Research Unit at Birmingham University considers that these skills are related to such matters as the interest of the material or the knowledge of the listener.

The authors suggest the following question as a framework for studying the spoken language: 'Who communicates what to whom, how and why and on what occasion?', and they place particular emphasis on the tone of voice and 'intention' of the speaker. They apply this question to the transcript of a recording of a 'Mayday' call sent out by a pilot in distress and illustrate how, amongst other things, the specialized language helps to objectify terrible events.

They then examine the contribution which the tape-recorder can make in class. The sound track of two television programmes was played to groups of children and their responses were recorded. The children reacted to linguistic and paralinguistic elements in a sherry advertisement, and were particularly sensitive to 'high-class' accents and the unreality of the situation. In a second tape from 'Man Alive' another group of children came to realize how their judgement, like that of one of the participants in the programme, had been coloured by their emotional responses to accent. This type of study of living information has a more beneficial effect on a pupil's own language production than the application of grammatical categories to isolated sentences. [Numerous examples and transcripts of tapes given. Bibliography.]

EPQ ELD EMS ATD

LITERATURE

- 73-203 **Santoni, Georges V.** Methods of teaching literature. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 5, 4 (1972), 432-41.

Professional training to teach foreign literature in the introductory stages at the university and in the third and fourth years of high school is virtually nonexistent. Traditional methods of exposure are perpetuated, although they are effective only in producing more specialists and do not necessarily develop critical thinking. More significant ways must be discovered to reach more students. Research in the methodology of teaching literature requires cooperation between theorist and classroom teacher.

Modern criticism plays down the importance of literary history in favour of the linguistic code of literature, and this trend may be helpful in eliciting the individual participation of students. Exercises on the lexical, syntactic, semantic and cultural content which present material in an individualized manner offer students a way of responding to the text, and provide a means of avoiding the false alternatives of professorial tyranny or unsupported, impressionistic debate. Linguistic exercises on language as a means of communication should precede contact with literary language in the mass, which will allow teacher and class more time for literary discussion, eliminating the need for mere verification that the vocabulary has been understood. Reading is not just deciphering sentences in detail, but involves the discovery of the great difference between the spoken (or written) language, and literature. [An illustration in French is offered of a set of exercises to introduce a poem by Guillaume Apollinaire. French bibliography.]

(440) EPQ ELD AVL

AUDIO-VISUAL METHODS

- 73-204 **Cuyer, André.** The Saint-Cloud method: what it can and cannot achieve. *English Language Teaching* (London), 27, 1 (1972), 19-24.

It is doubtful whether Saint-Cloud students learn to speak and

understand the spoken language faster than those taught by conventional methods. [The author describes an experiment conducted at a school in Lucerne, which showed that a group of pupils taught by audio-visual techniques did not do better than a group taught conventionally.] Learning a language by methods such as those of Saint-Cloud is not in the long run less dull and frustrating, and the students' spelling, writing, and reading are unsatisfactory. Re-asserting the biological, social, and audio-oral character of languages, promoters of such methods reject conventional analytic methods and recreate the circumstances under which a child learns his mother tongue. Audio-visual methods have won almost general acceptance among those concerned with the teaching of beginners but are a failure at higher levels.

EPQ ELD ELR ATD

73–205 Schumann, John. Communication techniques. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), 6, 2 (1972), 143–61.

Pattern practice does not teach learners to communicate. [The author describes four courses which claim to do so.] The situational reinforcement method devised by the Institute of Modern Languages, Washington, uses a combination of drills. A sequence consisting of a question and answer, or a command, question and answer is presented in four steps: listening, repetition, teacher–student response and student–student response. What the student says is appropriate to a specific situation. At intermediate level the emphasis shifts to abstract language and the reaction is to a secondary rather than to a primary linguistic stimulus. Response drills are strung together into useful connected discourse, building up towards conversation practice.

The audio-visual–structural–global method developed by the Center for Curriculum Development, Philadelphia, consists of presentation, explanation, repetition and transposition. [Each phase is described and illustrated.] The microwave method, devised by Earl Stevick, emphasizes the communicative use of each structural element as soon as it appears. Each microwave or short cycle contains an *M* phase (mimicry, manipulation, meaning, memorization) and a *C* phase (conversation, communication). [Detail is given.]

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A verbal problem-solving approach has been devised by A. Lipson of Harvard. Students are motivated to create sentences because they want to communicate specific information. A plot is presented and questions asked about it. [Two examples are given in full.] The situational and microwave methods offer opportunities for communication and encourage it. Lipson's method provides conditions under which the student must communicate if he is to speak at all. The audio-visual-structural method contains elements of all these.

EPQ ELD ELR ATD

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

73-206 **Chabbert, Jean.** Erfahrungsbericht über den Einsatz des Elektronischen Klassenzimmers an der Universität Lille III. [Progress report on the use of the audio-active laboratory at Lille University III.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 4/1972, 163-6.

The German department of the University of Lille has been using an audio-active laboratory for one year with advanced students, who work there for an hour a week in groups of twenty, studying German historical texts. The aims are: (1) aural comprehension of a German text spoken at natural speed, (2) understanding the main argument without reference to the printed text, (3) final written reconstitution of the text. The taped texts are related to subjects already studied and the students are expected to discuss the material in groups.

The audio-active laboratory has similar advantages to the audio-active comparative laboratory in that texts may be played several times at exactly the same speed, different voices may be used (in this case those of German *Lektore*), and controversial discussions may be taped to stimulate student discussions later. The use of headsets enables better concentration than is usual in an ordinary lecture room. However, an audio-active laboratory has additional advantages in that it fosters the active participation of all students, allows key points to be summarized on the blackboard and enables the teacher to correct individual mistakes and to lead discussions. [A typical

session is described in detail.] The German department has found this a good way of combining the best of traditional teaching with modern technical methods, and the experiment has proved so successful that next year students will spend two hours a week in the laboratory. [Sample text appended.]

(430) EPQ ELD ELY EMT

73-207 Miniscalco, E. Esercizi ed esercitazioni nel laboratorio di lingue. [Exercises and drills in the language laboratory.] *Quaderni 'Lab'* (Frascati), 2 (1972), 65-99.

The didactic principles on which the use of a language laboratory is founded are reviewed, and about forty drills and exercises (quoted in full) are examined in detail. Most of the examples are in English but some are in French and others in Italian.

(420) EPQ ELD ELY (450)

ENGLISH See also abstracts 73-184, -186, -190/1, -193, -195, -198/9, -207

73-208 Boulanger, C. Préparation à l'autonomie en expression orale. [Training in free oral expression.] *Mélanges pédagogiques* (Nancy), (1972), 20 pp.

Oral expression is now so much an accepted method in language teaching that the part played by the aptitude on which it depends is underestimated. A test was carried out in training for oral expression in English using non-specialist students. This training differs from that given to mother-tongue speakers, although the same advice on a relaxed attitude and clarity may apply. Some suggested methods of training are suspect: for instance, reading aloud, which is decoding from script, not direct encoding; grammatical exercises, which inhibit free expression; 'spontaneous' generation from a written kernel sentence, which is also not direct encoding.

Good oral comprehension is a prerequisite of successful training, basic to both stages in free oral expression: Situation A, in which

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information is sought [concentration on interrogative forms is illustrated in Appendix to the article]; Situation B, in which information is given or exchanged. The method adopted was to ask each student to address an audience of his colleagues on his own speciality, first using elaborate notes, then brief notes and finally no notes at all. He could expect questions at any stage. This situation of francophone participants speaking in English is no more artificial than an international gathering using English as a common language, so it has a practical purpose.

What standard can be expected? The test organizers judged that mastery of syntax, comprehension and ability to re-express propositions was preferable to perfect pronunciation, as phonetic oddities obscure meaning less than semantic confusion and inability to deal with syntactic relations. The aim was a *satisfactory performance*, providing students eventually with a useful skill to complement their main course of study. [Appendix.]

420 EPQ EL AN ATD ATL (944)

73-209 **Coe, Norman.** 'Come', 'go', 'bring', and 'take'. *English Language Teaching* (London), 27, 2 (1973), 137-42.

Scandinavian words of similar form to *come*, *go*, *bring* and *take* share only some of their meaning with the English words. Drills and exercises which pay insufficient regard to extra-linguistic circumstances cannot give adequate practice of these items. [The author suggests meaningful forms of practice based mainly on the 'fundamental' and not the 'extended' uses of the verbs. He deals first with the classroom situation, and then with situations outside the classroom. The structures mainly involved are the imperative and *would* plus verb, the present continuous and *going to* plus verb, the present perfect, the simple present and the simple past. Numerous examples are given.]

420 EPQ ELD AKT (439.5)

73-210 Gompf, Gundi. Primary English in the Federal Republic of Germany. *Educational Exchange* (London), **10** (1972), 9-11.

Because of the structure of the Federal German Republic there is no central body comparable with the Schools Council/Nuffield organization in England or the centres at Saint-Cloud and Sèvres in France. Even at regional (*Land*) level no special administrative arrangements yet exist. The decision to teach English in primary schools was until recently taken by individual teachers and headmasters. [Summary of disadvantages of these uncoordinated experiments.] In the last two years there has been a marked change. Several educational publishers now offer teaching materials, and some *Länder* have sponsored official experiments in the teaching of English in primary schools. The provisions made by Hessen are outlined. English teaching does not begin until the third year in school and must be given to all children in mixed-ability classes. Audiolingual methods must be used and continuity of English teaching must be assured at secondary level. [Details of in-service teacher training and financial incentives, financial assistance to schools, the appointment of a Language Adviser for Hessen, and plans for the future.]

420 EPQ ELD EMR 943

73-211 Robinett, Betty Wallace. The domains of TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington DC), **6**, 3 (1972), 197-207.

There are two main areas of concern: English for speakers of other languages (ESOL), and English for speakers of other dialects (ESOD). [The author discusses the use of the terms EFL and ESL, and the increased concern with ESL in the United States.] Two kinds of ESL learner have been identified, those with an 'instrumental' and those with an 'integrative' orientation. These terms may also be applied to ESOL bilingual programmes. [Illustrations of these distinctions are given.] There is little consensus among professionals dealing with ESOD problems. Pupils speaking a non-standard dialect should not be made to feel inferior. Schools should impress on all students the validity of varieties of speech. The teaching of English may be thought of in

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terms of a continuous line, with non-English speakers and standard-English speakers at opposite extremes. Between are 'instrumental' ESL speakers, 'integrative' ESL speakers, and bilingual speakers. The variables separating the points on the continuum may be analysed in terms of linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and education. The application of linguistics to language teaching must be supplemented by the application of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics to each individual teaching programme. [Bibliography.]

420 EPP EPQ ED AG AMF

73-212 Roussel, F. Le facteur d'adaptation dans la compréhension de l'anglais oral. [The factor of adaptation in understanding spoken English.] *Mélanges pédagogiques* (Nancy), (1972), 21 pp.

Many difficulties in oral comprehension are due not to insufficient knowledge but to failure to recognize known elements in unfamiliar guise or in adverse listening conditions. Retarded oral practice, over-emphasis on written skills, advocacy of 'received pronunciation' as the ideal and reading aloud all tend to over-simplify and falsify the student's impressions of the language and prevent him making the necessary adjustments. At the phonological level, natural speech shows regional or individual allophonic variations, irregularities of rhythm, pauses at non-grammatical intervals, and cyclic differences according to context. At the morpho-syntactic level, errors due to memory slips, stuttering, unintroduced direct quotation, intonation used as sole grammatical indicator, elliptic phrases, and unfinished sentences are common features. At the semantic level, ideas are often expressed by successive approximations, and the listener is obliged to pick out the kernel of meaning by discarding the 'cancelled' propositions, time-fillers and other redundant features. Oral training should aim at sensitizing the student to these problems. Early on he should be exposed to the main regional pronunciations and taught to use his interlocutor's pauses for silent recapitulation and to adapt to their frequency and arbitrariness. At an intermediate or advanced stage, morpho-syntactic problems can be tackled by

teaching the more frequent divergences with the standard grammar; on the semantic level, the student must learn how to recognize important elements. Intonation requires special attention. To cope with difficult listening conditions, the 50 per cent redundancy of English should be exploited and the student's capacity for anticipation and discrimination developed. **420 EPQ EL ATD ATL**

73-213 Widdowson, H. G. The teaching of English as communication. *English Language Teaching* (London), **27**, 1 (1972), 15-19.

Students who have been taught English for years are often unable to use it well and to understand its use in normal communication. The teaching approach usually recommended is one which combines situational presentation with structural practice, and what is taught is the ability to compose sentences. However, we do not communicate merely by composing sentences. The situational-structural approach is directed at the teaching of signification rather than value. [The author illustrates the difference between the two by reference to the teaching of the present continuous tense in English.] The present approach to the teaching of English can be adapted so as to incorporate the systematic teaching of communicative value. [The author gives examples of how this can be done in teaching English to science students. The teaching can be based on a selection of the communicative acts a scientist commonly performs: definition, classification, generalization, and deduction. The syllogism is a particularly appropriate presentation device.] **420 EPQ EL EMV ANG AT**

FRENCH See also abstracts 73-183, -192, -203, -220

73-214 Everett, Aaron B. Individualized instruction for intermediate French. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **45**, 5 (1972), 988-98.

Two years ago an individualized learning programme was devised to

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cope with the needs of college students fulfilling a course requirement, and at the same time to stimulate those who would continue learning French to degree level. Approximately 100 students were enrolled in each year, and met for one hour a day, five days a week. The teaching team consisted of five people and all the language-learning skills were covered in areas physically separate from one another. The activities and materials offered changed every week, and each student was free to move from one area to another, concentrating on a skill in which he could excel. During the first year the only requirement was satisfactory achievement in grammar. Evaluation was through mutual agreement between teacher and student, and was based on the student's class work.

The course consisted of: (1) reading, which did not flourish until the second year of the course, (2) grammar, where the teacher was not bothered by students who neither wanted nor needed to attend, (3) comprehension, boosted by tapes and slides, (4) conversation, (5) writing (the last two attracted relatively few students). Written assignments were optional, to encourage the student to bear the responsibility for his own learning and to free the teacher from marking poor and often plagiarized work. [Details of use of music and *spectacle*.] Students who did well in the first semester of each year in the course were invited to do an accelerated composition and comprehension course. [Details of testing throughout the two years.] Better results were achieved as more pressure was applied in the second year.

440 EPQ ELD ELR EMT

73-215 Gueunier, N. and J.-M. Larchevêque. Structures syntaxiques et enseignement des mathématiques. [Syntactic structures and mathematics teaching.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 92 (1972), 14-18.

Some linguistic structures which are poorly comprehended by secondary-school pupils occur frequently in mathematics courses. The article seeks to identify and describe systematically the more important ones. The corpus of mathematics texts examined comprises

three mathematics textbooks and four syllabuses designed for eleven-year-old children in francophone Africa. The major source of misunderstanding among pupils is not lexical (authors supply definitions of terms in the mistaken belief that these will obviate problems of comprehension), but syntactical. The most useful structures are listed and annotated. Simple structures based on such verbs as *partir de*, *aboutir à*, *appliquer (x) à* . . . , together with their inverted forms can be drilled. Common transformations are: the passive voice, the imperative (especially in the infinitive mode) and the interrogative. [Examples.]

Transformations which involve more than one structure are commonly a source of error. For instance, pupils confuse the implications of *et* and *ou*. The texts often suppress the coordinating elements or reduce them to such small items that they escape the pupils' notice. Common patterns of embedding show constructions of inclusion, nominalization, relation and subordination. [Examples.] Types of exercise which second-language teachers can use to improve their pupils' performance in mathematics courses are: transformations from one pattern to another; the expansion of compound statements into simple ones; demonstrating the simple sentences which underlie the complex ones. Writers and publishers should see that the language structures used in their mathematics texts are free from convolutions.

440 EPQ ELD ELP EMS EPF (1996.1)

73-216 Niedzielski, Henri. A performance-oriented approach to French composition. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **56**, 7 (1972), 433-5.

The practical purpose of learning to write in French is stressed in a course in composition at the University of Hawaii at the intermediate/advanced level. [Specific objectives of the course were that each student should: (1) write paragraph-length, clear and appropriate summaries of French texts in French, (2) write paragraph-length summaries of French texts in English, (3) write a French *pastiche*, that is, rewrite on a different, but situationally similar subject a hundred-word paragraph taken from a simple modern French prose writer whose style

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the student imitates, (4) given a modern French text in his own field of interest, recognize unusual structures and morphosyntactic agreements, (5) paraphrase a modern French text, or retell it in the style of one of the characters, (6) translate into French a page of general prose (with the use of dictionaries only, preferably two large monolingual ones), (7) write in French a short narrative or descriptive report on an event or person, (8) compose a business or social letter in French, (9) write the outline of a chapter-long text of a modern French prose writer, (10) write an outline for a short essay which will be written in full as the student's term project.] Suggestions are also offered for examination questions.

[All eight articles in this issue are devoted to teaching languages at the intermediate level. They cover teaching methodology for French, Spanish and German, motivation, a study of teachers' classroom behaviour and its effect on enrolment for foreign-language courses, the extension of methods used in teaching beginners to teaching in the second year at university, fusing the four basic skills, the place of reading at this level, and language practice and the concept of presupposition.]

440 EPQ ELD EMT ATG

73-217 Steinwald, Volker. La substitution en français et quelques-uns de ses problèmes pour l'enseignement. [Substitution in French and some of its problems for the teacher.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 90 (1972), 21-4.

Efforts have been made to integrate into teaching grammars the results of research in applied linguistics, but unfortunately they cannot be applied at all levels of teaching. Substitution, the exercise in which a simple element replaces a nominal or verbal syntagm, provides a good example. In teaching grammars, substitution is generally equated with the 'pronoun', but not all substitutes are pronouns, nor are all pronouns substitutes [eg *je, tu, vous*]. The teacher must therefore list the various possibilities: the phrase may be replaced by indefinite pronouns, *c'est pourquoi, ce, cela, ça, le*; the noun by relative and personal pronouns; the noun group by demonstrative or interrogative pronouns; verbs or verb phrases by *faire ± le*; adjectives by *tel, quel*,

un, deux, pareil, quelconque, n'importe quel, autre, tout; possessive adjective + noun by *le mien*, etc; adverbs by *ainsi, comment, quand, où, là, en, y, combien, pourquoi*. Mention of the referent may precede or follow its substitute. Substitution of one whole sentence does not hinder comprehension, but substitution of an utterance of several sentences causes loss of clarity and is only partially possible, as the simple element cannot bear the whole semantic burden of the referent; there is a quantitative limit to accurate substitution which varies according to context. The substitute's semantic value is always less than that of the referent and substitution of elements in a sentence shows the same semantic diminution.

The aim of a linguistic classification of substitutes is to show the many syntactic possibilities in the use of substitution and syntagmatic distribution. Linguistic analysis of substitute-referent relations is essential to classroom exposition of the structure of spoken and written French, and, to conform with the reality of the language, the point should be treated separately in its own right. **440 EPQ EL AK**

73-218 Walker, Andrew L. Interpreting in the French department of the University of Stirling. *Bulletin of the Scottish Central Committee for Modern Languages* (Perth), 5 (1972), 41-53.

Interpreting was introduced into the French department of the University of Stirling in 1971 as an option in the final honours year. Most students elected to take the option, and some may become conference interpreters, but that is not the chief aim of the experiment. For two semesters just over two hours a week are devoted to advanced oral work designed to speed up the students' powers of analysis and synthesis and to improve their fluency and confidence. Simple liaison interpreting practice is described linked to particular professions. Glossaries are provided to start with but there is no other written material and the dialogues are spoken at normal speed. [Details of use of language laboratory, of native speakers to make tapes and of staff time.] The course develops the students' imagination and feeling for another language and culture as the seminar begins to cohere as a working unit. [Examples of translations across cultures.]

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The importance of link words is emphasized: *d'ailleurs, par conséquent, néanmoins*, for instance.

The second stage involves live, impromptu dialogues with a French speaker, which are recorded and added to the library. Intervention should be kept to a minimum. Short semi-technical dialogues are introduced on, for instance, synthetic fibres, and a vocabulary of twenty or twenty-five items is given to students orally at the beginning of the class.

In the second semester the emphasis shifts from simultaneous to consecutive interpreting. [Details of the different dimension of difficulty students encounter: the art of conference note-taking must be acquired and *l'esprit de finesse* to abridge a speech without changing its essence. Examples of techniques of notation and summary, and a sketch of a possible postgraduate course.] The value of this type of work is that it fosters the active use of a foreign language in situations where there is a compulsion to communicate in it.

440 EPQ EL EMT ARD (942)

GERMAN *See also abstracts 73-192, -200/1, -206, -222*

73-219 Meyer-Minnemann, Klaus and Dietrich Rall. *Der Erwerb von Lesekenntnissen in Wissenschaftsdeutsch.* [The acquisition of reading knowledge in scientific German.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 4/1972, 168-83.

The reasons for language learning should be more often taken into account in deciding on teaching methods. German is often required by learners primarily as a technical or scientific language. The authors describe a course in reading scientific German given in Mexico to complete beginners in the language. For anyone working in this area there is a lack of systematically determined materials and methods. The definition of the learning goal enables a specification to be made of the linguistic items which must be known. Dependency grammar was chosen for describing the syntactic structures. It is important to work as much as possible with authentic texts. A lesson

consists of: text, glossary, model sentences from the text, grammar, and translation of the text. [The first lesson is given as an example.]

430 EPQ EL EGK ANG ASP (1972)

ITALIAN *See also abstract 73-207*

73-220 Reynvoet, J. P. Contribution à l'étude d'un problème de glottodidactique: l'emploi du subjonctif dans la subordonnée en italien. [Contribution to the study of a problem in language teaching: the use of the subjunctive in subordinate clauses in Italian.] *Revue des langues vivantes* (Brussels), **38**, 5 (1972), 537-47; **38**, 6 (1972), 648-57.

The experiment is a trial run to discover what form the teaching of Italian might take if based on objective criteria. A first step was to select a small corpus of Italian, to note the occurrences of the subjunctive and the frequency of each of its forms. The results were compared with statements of rules and usage as they appear in four widely used textbook grammars. [The wide divergences are presented in tabular form.] These preliminary findings justify the subsequent work which shows how descriptions of usage can be derived from the habits of speech as revealed in certain types of drama. [Criteria for the selection of a corpus.]

The analysis logged the number of instances of the subjunctive and of the indicative in present and past tenses and of the conditional for each subordinate construction which may introduce a subjunctive. From this kind of count one can proceed to statistical statements about frequency and to a contrastive analysis of occurrences both within Italian and between Italian and other languages. Since the present enquiry is on a small scale the results are significant but not conclusive.

From the 182 occurrences recorded, twenty-six categories are deduced. Further grouping suggests that clauses of concession and comparison can be listed as *se* + subjunctive. Of fourteen subordinates apparently resulting in a subjunctive because of negation in the main clause, further examination shows that only two instances can be attributed uniquely to the negative element. About 85 per cent of the

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instances recorded fall within five major categories. Two classes of structure are identified: in one class the subjunctive follows automatically, in the other class there is an option between subjunctive, indicative and conditional. Italians appear to use this option to emphasize the significance of the message they convey. [Tabular comparison of occurrence, Italian/French, and prototype exercise for practising a structure in a situational context.]

450 EPQ ED AKT (440)

RUSSIAN

73-221 **Günther, Klaus.** Zur systematischen Entwicklung des dialogischen Sprechens im Russischunterricht. [On the systematic development of dialogue in Russian teaching.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin) 16, 11 (1972), 521-32.

Forms of dialogue practice can be used for the acquisition, consolidation, activation and systematization of vocabulary and grammar, and to develop and control listening comprehension and silent reading. Traditional question and answer practice is not to be regarded as dialogue practice. The development of dialogue involves both component exercises and complex practice. Component exercises must be situationally based and relevant to the pupils' interests [examples]. Pupils need practice in formulating questions, requests, objections and wishes. Listening comprehension should be practised systematically through questions, requests, and pupils' questions to the teacher. The complex development of dialogue involves a concentration on communication in various forms: directed conversation, dramatization of a dialogue, variation of a dialogue, transformation of a monologue into a dialogue and free dialogue composition. [The possibilities of each are discussed in detail.]

491.7 EPQ ELD ATD

- 73–222 Lízalová, L. I.** Разработка художественного текста на уроках разговорной практики. [The exploitation of a literary text in conversation practice sessions.] *Zeitschrift für den Russischunterricht* (Hamburg), 7, 2 (1972), 24–42.

An extract from material used for Russian oral work in the second and third semesters at Hamburg University is included. A passage is provided with a vocabulary and is exploited through phonetic and grammatical exercises, a short translation, situational pattern practice and an *exercice de style* renarration. The author believes that this intensive manipulation of a moderately difficult text is an aid both to the understanding and to the active use of its context.

491.7 EPQ ELD EMT ATD (430)

- 73–223 Sazonova, I. K.** К вопросу о составлении толкового словаря русского языка для нерусских. [On the question of compiling an explanatory Russian dictionary for non-Russians.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1972), 65–8.

Entries in an explanatory Russian dictionary for foreigners at an advanced level (students who already know 3,000–5,000 words) should include maximum grammatical information about a word and the semantic characteristics of its various meanings, with an indication of the specific properties of the use of those meanings. Grammatical information would include a full paradigm with an indication of the variations within the limits of neutral and colloquial styles of literary language, and a model of the syntactic environment with markers of the open or closed nature of the collocational elements. The semantic characteristics of a word may consist of three components: meaning–comprehension, speech–functional and comparative characteristics. The meaning–comprehension component describes the lexico–semantic features. The speech–functional characteristics describe the specific properties of its use in relation to synonyms: under this component *врач* would be contrasted with *доктор*, for instance. The third component would contain comparative material to prevent

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mistakes arising from an association with words of the same thematic group. [Examples.]

491.7 EPQ EL EMT ADF ALG

72-224 Steinführer, Friedhelm. Einige Probleme der Wortschatzarbeit im Russischunterricht. [Some problems of vocabulary work in teaching Russian.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 16, 7/8 (1972), 315-21.

A study made in 1970 in the DDR revealed pupils' inadequate command of Russian vocabulary. The traditional type of vocabulary book was rarely used, but some form of provision for systematic revision purposes was needed. It was the weaker student who did not compile his own lists of vocabulary, and it was not easy for the teacher to organize this task as an independent learning activity. Believing this activity to be necessary, the commission proposed that vocabulary books be set out in the form of a file, which gives greater flexibility than a traditional vocabulary book. The pupils label the pages with various subject titles [a list of thirty-five is given], and illustrate them with drawings or pictures. The teacher indexes the vocabulary in the textbook lessons into subject areas and gives the numbering to the pupils. The pupils then copy the words into their vocabulary book under the appropriate headings. (Phrases should also be included.) Vocabulary can thus be revised by field. The commission has found from experience that the intensive learning by heart of isolated lexical items is a first step which cannot be omitted. Without it the second step, the use of vocabulary in a context, is not possible.

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SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES *See abstract 73-209*