

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES *See also abstract 76–48*

- 76–27 Denninghaus, Friedhelm.** Methoden der expliziten Lernzielbestimmung. Die Voraussetzungen für eine objektive Leistungsmessung und Erfolgskontrolle im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Methods of explicitly determining learning aims. The hypotheses for an objective measuring of performance and achievement in foreign language learning.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **22**, 2 (1975), 127–41.

Explicitly stated learning aims and precise objective testing are essential to evaluate the many courses available today and to ensure equal chances for all language learners. The idea here is not to specify aims for different levels but to explain the method of formulating aims. Explicit statements are built up from a series of complementary and interdependent lists and taxonomies. Language appears in many forms and functions and the overlap between various taxonomies and lists acts as a check that all aspects are covered.

The taxonomy of situations [examples given] covers social interaction in specific places and roles with formalised conversations. The taxonomy of themes [examples given] comprises 18 items and allows much subdivision. Thematic material is not restricted in place, role aim or speech conventions. Themes and situations can appear in many different kinds of texts. The third taxonomy sets out texts which test separate language skills – reading and listening comprehension. Subdivisions can be added and more specific authors or books cited. The fourth taxonomy is spoken intentions, numbering over 90 items [examples given]. To interpret the taxonomies language lists are given: the vocabulary list, based on frequency counts from the texts and augmented from other taxonomies, the list of structures, set out as model sentences, and the list of wordbuilding rules, useful for passive vocabulary and especially for listening and reading skills.

Basic to explicit statements of learning aims are research into needs of language learners, work on final objective testing and on teaching materials.

- 76–28 Hollerbach, Wolf.** A model for the teaching of advanced syntax in a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **59**, 5/6 (1975), 256–62.

The challenge arising in teaching foreign-language syntax at an advanced level is to develop a pedagogically sound and scientifically justifiable model for syntax. Such a model can be broken down into sections dealing with structures and processes on the phrase, sentence and discourse levels. At each level, one would

study elementary nucleic patterns of that level, and the changes to which the nuclei could be subjected.

The pedagogically most appropriate method to teach syntactic structures seems to be one in terms of seven basic syntactic functions, such as subject, modifier of nominals and connector. Syntactic processes can be broadly divided into primary and secondary processes. Primary processes include, for instance, conjunction, expansion and addition, while secondary processes are triggered by the primary ones, and concern, for example, number and gender.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

76-29 Chastain, Kenneth. Affective and ability factors in second-language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **25**, 1 (1975), 153-61.

Although past research studies have failed to yield consistently positive correlations between motivation and achievement in second-language classes, teachers' experience clearly indicates that students' attitudes and opinions have a decided effect on learning. The question confronting both teachers and researchers is which student affective characteristics influence learning and what influence each has. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of three affective student characteristics (anxiety, personality and creativity), in comparison with selected student ability characteristics, on course grade in elementary language courses (French, German, Spanish). In this study there were as many positive correlations between the affective characteristics and course grade as there were between ability factors and course grade. The implication was that affective characteristics have at least as much influence on learning as do ability factors. [References.]

76-30 Kuczaj, Stan A. On the acquisition of a semantic system. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* (New York), **14**, 4 (1975), 340-58.

Two investigations of the acquisition of the meaning of *always* and *never*, and *always*, *never*, *usually*, *seldom* and *sometimes*, respectively, are discussed. The results demonstrate that the acquisition sequence in which the meaning of related words are acquired may vary from child to child in the beginning of the acquisition process, but become consistent later. This type of pattern reflects the importance of the amount and type of linguistic experience for the initial attachment of meaning to words, and the later importance of general cognitive and semantic factors which are not easily influenced by varying linguistic experiences.

- 76-31 Perfetti, Charles A. and Hogaboam, Thomas.** Relationship between single word decoding and reading comprehension skill. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **67**, 4 (1975), 461-9.

Children classified as skilled and less skilled in reading comprehension differed in vocalisation latencies to single printed words. Overall, vocalisation latencies were shorter for the skilled group than the less skilled group and there was an interaction between word type and comprehension skill. The comprehension groups showed large vocalisation latency differences for pseudo-words and for low-frequency English words, but smaller differences for high-frequency English words. Knowledge of word meanings may be a less significant factor in vocalisation latency for the skilled group than for the unskilled group. It is suggested that at least some unskilled comprehenders may have failed to develop automatic decoding skills and that this failure may lead to diminished comprehension skills sharing a common processing capacity with non-automatic decoding.

- 76-32 Rohwer, William D., Jr. and Harris, Wendy J.** Media effects on prose learning in two populations of children. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **67**, 5 (1975), 651-7.

Prose learning in high-socioeconomic status (SES) white and low-SES black fourth-grade children was assessed as a function of presentation media, test-item structure, and response methods. The seven presentation conditions included both single media – oral, print, and pictures – and combined media. The learning of intra- and intersentence relations was tested by means of assertion-verification, short-answer, and free recall methods. While all of these variations contributed to performance differences, major emphasis was given to discrepancies in the media effects observed in the two populations. For the low-SES black children, performance in the combined-media conditions, especially in oral plus pictures, was superior to that in single-media conditions, whereas among high-SES white subjects combinations of media were of little benefit.

- 76-33 Seliger, Herbert W. and others.** Maturation constraints in the acquisition of second language accent. *Language Sciences* (Bloomington, Ind), **36** (1975), 20-2.

Maturation differences between children and adults are usually claimed to account for adult second-language learners being usually unsuccessful in perfecting their pronunciation whereas children learn native-like pronunciation with little effort. A study was carried out with two linguistically diverse groups of

immigrants in two different language environments (American and Israeli) to see whether the constraint would hold in different cultural environments. Results confirmed that puberty was an important point in language-learning ability: learners who arrived before the age of 15 became indistinguishable from native speakers. [Some exceptions are discussed.] [References.]

ERROR ANALYSIS

76-34 Bell, Roger. Error analysis: a recent pseudo-procedure in applied linguistics. *ITL* (Louvain), **25/6** (1974), 35-49.

In recent years, applied linguists have been much concerned with the description of linguistic behaviour previously labelled as 'deviant'. In particular, a technique known as 'error analysis' has been developed by means of which, it is claimed, access is gained to the 'transitional competence' of the L2 learner, thus making possible the description of the learner's 'interlanguage' and the explanation of the systematic nature of the errors generated by its grammar. Such a technique can, if its claims are justified, be of inestimable value to linguist, teacher and learner, but equally, if its claims are false, can lead to invalid assumptions concerning the nature of the interlanguage, the form of appropriate teaching materials and learning strategies employed by learners.

It is suggested that in addition to being based on a number of false assumptions and offering a partly spurious assistance to language learners, error analysis is an inadmissible 'pseudo-procedure' which purports to contain a methodology that is partly untenable in principle and partly impossible in practice. It is therefore necessary to reconsider the status of the concept of interlanguage, the analytical techniques involved in its description and the validity of the claims made for both. [References.]

76-35 Burt, Marina K. Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **9**, 1 (1975), 53-63.

The relative communicative importance of errors was determined by native speakers who judged thousands of English sentences made by learners all over the world. The two different types of errors were: (1) global errors – those which affect overall sentence organisation – including wrong word order and missing or misplaced connectors, and (2) local errors – those which affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence – such as wrong inflections, articles, auxiliaries and quantifiers. [Examples.] Global errors tend to sound 'un-English', usually because the typical S-V-O order is violated.

Two aspects of English grammar which often cause global errors are psychological predicate constructions (**I don't amuse that* instead of *that doesn't amuse*

me) and selectional restraints on certain types of verbs in sentential complements (*Anna told the priest to have six children instead of that she had six children). EFL teachers should therefore concentrate on global errors; students can be exposed to a wider range of structures in the early stages which enable them to communicate despite local errors. [References.]

- 76-36** **Tran-Thi-Chau.** Error analysis, contrastive analysis and students' perception: a study of difficulty in second-language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **13**, 2 (1975), 119-43.

Advantages and disadvantages of error analysis (EA) and contrastive analysis (CA) are discussed. Neither are felt to offer satisfactory accounts of the difficulties of learning a second language because neither take proper account of the psychological aspects of the problem. An experimental study was set up to investigate the learner's own perception of his difficulties and relate the findings to outputs of EA and CA, in an attempt to evaluate the relative merits and shortcomings of each method and to find a more adequate approach. [Description of the contrastive study chosen, grammar test, questionnaire, student sample, testing instruments and procedures.]

The results confirmed earlier findings that first language interference is the greatest single cause of errors, but that the predictive efficiency of CA was negligible. General assumptions that categories not existing in the native language present the greatest difficulty, and that structural dissimilarity causes more problems than semantic dissimilarity, were not validated by these results. Unless EA makes use of CA insight it cannot explain the causes of many errors - the interlingual ones. The students' own analyses showed their insight into their learning problems: they revealed many factors which interfere with or facilitate learning and which elude both CA and EA, particularly 'extralingual' factors, such as pedagogical factors and type of learner. Students' perception of difficulty could therefore supplement EA to provide more accurate diagnosis of areas of difficulty. [Suggestions for further research.] [Tables of results.]

TESTING See also abstract 76-27

- 76-37** **Di Cristo, Albert.** Présentation d'un test de niveau destiné à évaluer la prononciation des anglophones. *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **33/4** (1975), 9-35.

A proficiency test for an objective evaluation of the pronunciation of advanced English-speaking students is presented. [Brief survey of different techniques.] The student is given a list of items to read without a model of any kind. The list is based on an inventory of the mistakes made by the student when speaking

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French. Each item aims at testing a single difficulty presented in different phonetic and prosodic contexts. This test includes three different steps: phonemics, phonetics (vowels, consonants, co-articulation problems) and prosody (stress, rhythm, intonation). In order to reduce subjective evaluation, precise instructions are given to test each category. By a simplified summation of the different scores, the teacher can draw an accurate outline of the pronunciation of each student. The aim of the test is to determine objective levels for forming homogeneous groups.

76-38 McLeod, John. Uncertainty reduction in different languages through reading comprehension. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), 4, 4 (1975), 343-55.

In an exploratory study into the feasibility of constructing a multilingual reading comprehension test, parallel cloze tests were constructed in Czech, English, French, German and Polish. Groups of children between the ages of eight and fourteen were tested on the version in their own mother tongue, in Czechoslovakia, Canada, France, Germany and Poland. Test performance was assessed by means of a method which estimates the child's 'contribution' to overall language redundancy. Results suggest that the method is both reliable and valid and has potential for the assessment of bilinguality of reading comprehension.

76-39 Pfaff, Harald. Die Entwicklung eines Sprachtests im Rahmen einer linguistischen Theorie. [The development of a linguistic test within a linguistic theory.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig, Germany); 35 (1975), 71-82.

The test should judge the receptive linguistic competence of children according to an ideal norm. The different performances of the candidates to the norm can be measured and tested using multiple-choice questions. The syntactic or semantic acceptability of sentences can be tested in this way [examples]. The choice of which of three or more sentences are formally or semantically similar can test a knowledge of transformations [examples]. Ability to describe ambiguity in sentences, to form words from morphemes, to recognise morphologically well-formed nonsense words and to form subordinate sentences can also be tested [examples]. The test asking candidates to mark those sentences which have the same form showed no significant correlation with the candidates' IQ values, but only nine items were used in the correlation. The test 'formal similarity' can, therefore, measure the receptive competence of some candidates.

- 76-40 Shearer, Eric.** A restandardisation of the Burt-Vernon and Schonell Graded Word Reading Tests. *Educational Research* (Windsor, Berks), **18**, 1 (1975), 67-73.

Although word recognition tests continue to be widely employed by teachers, the application of out-of-date norms and varying methods of administration and scoring seriously reduce the usefulness of these tests. Largely as a result of approaches from teachers, it was decided to undertake a large-scale restandardisation of the Burt-Vernon and Schonell tests to produce reliable norms and to standardise administration and scoring procedures. The opportunity was also taken to record the data so as to enable the production of revised orders of words on both tests to reflect contemporary usage, and to relate reading attainment, as assessed by the tests, to three important factors – sex, school organisation and socioeconomic status.

COURSE DESIGN

- 76-41 Cole, Leo R.** Linguistic context in relation to the organisation and function of visual elements. *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **17** (1975), 61-70.

Audio-visual course designers unjustly neglect Bruner and Piaget, discourse analysis and studies on inter-sentential relationships. Audio-visual techniques could be adapted to help learners build up complex semantic fields by exploiting, *inter alia*, motion pictures and overhead projector transparencies. There are pictorial *faux-amis*, as distinct from verbal ones. Osgood's bi-polar semantic differential could measure the degree of congruity of visual symbols across cultures. Course writers usually opt for one pictorial technique throughout their entire course but visual codes can be modified to suit variations in the type of concept to be formed. Appropriate chains of pictographs could help the presentation of syntactic structures. Lattices of up to sixteen frames could be used to show the semantic options available from different dependent clauses. [Illustrations.]

- 76-42 Marton, Waldemar.** Syllabus design and the cognitive approach to foreign language learning. *ITL* (Louvain), **25/6** (1974), 19-34.

Possible effects of the cognitive approach to language teaching on syllabus design are discussed, in the context of an EFL syllabus for a four-year course in secondary schools. A spiral syllabus, in which all the essentials of the grammatical system are introduced relatively early and then re-introduced with more detail in later cycles (instead of the linear sequence of the traditional syllabus)

is more in keeping with the cognitive approach: learning is viewed as a holistic process. Subsumptive learning, i.e. relating new facts and ideas to a previously explained general scheme, has been shown to be the most effective learning method.

The spiral syllabus has the advantage of providing for continuous revision, as this principle is built into the arrangement of the learning material. The motivational value of such a syllabus is the fact that at the end of each cycle, even the first, the learner is in possession of a self-contained language system, which aids communication at an early stage. The gradation of material requires that general categories and rules should be taught before the more specific – in linguistic terms, introducing unmarked elements before marked ones (e.g. the Simple Present before Present Continuous, indefinite article before definite, full forms before contracted ones). The spiral syllabus allows for a distinction to be made between productive and receptive mastery. Receptive material from one cycle can be activated in the next. [Possibilities for individualising instruction.] Notional and semantic criteria for arranging material are felt to be helpful but can best be integrated with a cognitive approach in the final cycle of a spiral syllabus which is otherwise based on a systematic grammatical language description. [By way of example, a new English syllabus for Polish secondary schools is described.] [References.]

76-43 Thibault-Laulan, Anne-Marie. Texte et contexte dans la communication audio-visuelle. [Text and context in audio-visual communication.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), 17 (1975), 115-26.

Measurements were devised to show the degree of disparity between a presenter's assumptions about the impact of his audio-visual symbols and the audience's understanding of them [tables]. Students were entertained by witticisms in an instructional programme which seemed flippant to workers. A programme cannot have an exclusively intellectual effect. Language learners may find (i) the didactic content conflicts with the dramatic presentation; (ii) their own innate hunches conflict with the designer's objective knowledge; (iii) the designer's message relates to a cultural background which conflicts with the audience's background; (iv) the learner's social aspirations differ from those assumed by the style of presentation. [Example: *lycéens* and *lycéennes* reacted quite differently to an a-v modern-language course.] Sociologists must continue to emphasise that communication is a group experience as much as an individual performance. [Examples.]

TEACHER TRAINING

- 76-44 Campbell, Russell N. and others.** The Jordanian inservice teacher training programme. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 9, 1 (1975), 23-9.

An inservice training programme set up by the Ministry of Education in Jordan to train English teachers is described. CITTI (the Certification and Inservice Teacher Training Institute) was intended to provide training closely resembling that of pre-service colleges, including general subject courses. CITTI trainees are unqualified practising teachers who are released one day a week for two years. [Organisation of training programme, which includes home study of self-instructional materials, weekly seminars, tutors' visits to trainees in school, improving English language proficiency.]

Although it was never expected that CITTI could compete with the teacher training colleges, and that it would be disbanded when its job was over, its results compare favourably with the colleges', probably because the trainees are actually in a teaching situation and thus more motivated to learn and more able to see the relevance of their instruction. It is suggested that a probationary year for all prospective teachers might be beneficial.

- 76-45 Coste, Daniel.** Vers une redéfinition de la formation initiale des professeurs de français? [Possibilities for re-defining the initial training of French teachers.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 113 (1975), 13-23.

The training of teachers of French tends to be catechistic, the qualifications ritualistic. Know-how is belittled in comparison with know-what. Educational research is received in packages of generalised information instead of being experienced as processes in specific contexts. Unit credit degrees could hamper future teachers through their encyclopaedism, their trivialisation of knowledge, the ease with which units are arranged around talking points, and the difficulty of constructing units from shared experience. A teacher of French must first know himself, reflect on the nature of communication, explore relationships between teacher and pupil and discover how groups operate. The institution should become the place in which the lecturer and the novice live a common experience which they assess together. Relationships between the student's skills in French, his development as a person during teacher training, his ability to function as a teacher and his maturation as an *animateur* can be shown diagrammatically. [Illustrations.]

- 76-46** Lieutaud, *Simonne* and Porquier, *Rémy*. La formation des enseignants de français langue étrangère dans les universités françaises. [The education of teachers of French as a foreign language in French universities.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **113** (1975), 44-9.

Only courses spread over a year or more figure in this report. [Duration; content; end-qualifications; tables.] First-degree syllabuses stress passively acquired knowledge. Investigations, critical analyses, devising teaching materials, dry runs, all appear at some point but training in class-room know-how is scant. Relations within a group and between pupils and their institution are not studied. Psychology of learning may also be omitted altogether. Unit credit schemes accentuate such imbalance for lack of an authentic training programme. Diploma courses may have classes which are too heterogeneous to provide an effective output. Most class-contact is maintained by part-time or short contract staff. But diploma courses encourage inductive procedures, improved performance, reflective thought about teaching, materials development, group-work, self-assessment. Possibilities for further inter-disciplinary co-operation look promising.

TEACHING METHODS See also abstract 76-32, -52

- 76-47** Ležneva, *G. N.* Использование перевода в методических целях. [The utilisation of translation for methodological purposes.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **4** (1975), 21-5.

Translation involves the comparison of the expressive resources of two languages, and is therefore important in combating linguistic interference; only too frequent use of translation, especially from the foreign language, impedes thinking in the foreign language. Translation can be used in teaching the foreign language and in consolidating and testing the pupils' knowledge. The pupil is also likely to have to translate later in practical situations. Translation must be combined with other pedagogical methods, and all the various kinds of translation should be utilised.

Translation from the foreign language is useful in the early stages, when pupils are unable to comprehend a complex text directly, and can teach and test receptive skills; over-use can destroy appreciation of the original. Translation into the foreign language is essential for learning to think in the foreign language, but presupposes a more advanced knowledge of the language; it can be used to teach, consolidate, and automate vocabulary and grammar, to consolidate speech models, for testing, and also to give the meaning of idioms and complex sentences. Such translation can be of individual sentences, of a text (approaching speaking in the language, but utilisable only at an advanced level), dictation-translation, and re-narration. Two-way translation aids reten-

tion of linguistic material, and, by reducing the number of errors, inspires self-confidence; the most effective application is a written translation into the foreign language, selection of the best translation, then oral translation back into the native language and again into the foreign language.

76-48 Pohl, Lothar. Zu Ziel, Inhalt und Methode der Arbeit an grammatischen Kenntnissen im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Aim, content and method of developing grammatical knowledge in foreign-language teaching.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 12, 3 (1975), 143-9.

Grammatical knowledge must have a practical basis in communication. It is not an end in itself nor is it to be wholly deduced as in the direct method. Recent curricula list the items to be taught actively as constructions and patterns. The basic principles of teaching grammar are: presentation of the item in idiomatic use, followed by multiple examples from which rules are produced inductively under strict control of the teacher who stimulates the pupils to logical thought and analysis. The first step is concentration on the content to establish the meaning of the grammatical item. A table of examples on the blackboard provides a basis for searching out the rule. All elements of the grammatical item and its function must be brought out, so contrasting examples, even from the mother tongue, are sometimes required. Positive motivation of the pupils demands an indirect stimulus to the inductive reasoning process, concentrating attention on content, so reading and translation precede word and clause analysis. Precise questions from the teacher reveal regularities and irregularities and students then formulate the rule.

76-49 Vielau, Axel. Kognitive Wortschatzdidaktik. [Cognitive vocabulary teaching.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 24, 3 (1975), 248-64.

The introduction of new vocabulary usually entails the virtual exclusion of the mother tongue. Three methods are examined: definition through reference; definition through pictures; semanticising through a situational context. Definition through reference is based on the idea that the meaning of a word and the reference of a word to an object are not the same. A word is the linguistic manifestation of a concept. Nevertheless, the name of the object used to illustrate a new word in the foreign language will inevitably be known to the student in his mother tongue, so the mother tongue cannot be completely excluded. [Various other aspects of this method are critically examined.] Examination of the audio-visual method of semanticising new vocabulary raises the question of how to define a picture. What is its nature and how can it transfer meaning and information? [Definition given.] The fact that pictures

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are subjective and open to interpretation makes their use questionable. Students usually decode pictures into concepts expressed in their mother tongue, therefore interference is not eliminated. There is also the danger of superficial association between picture and sound of the foreign word, without the meaning being truly absorbed.

The situational approach, on the other hand, offers considerable advantages [listed]. But the danger of ambiguity exists here, too; moreover, not every utterance can be put into a situational context which clarifies its meaning. Although the choice of method depends on the aims of foreign-language teaching in relation to a particular group of students, a bilingual approach to vocabulary teaching is recommended, at least for beginners.

76-50 Von Elek, Tibor. Experiments in teaching foreign language grammar by different methods. *ITL* (Louvain), **25/6** (1974), 83-96.

The relative effectiveness of teaching methods reflecting different learning theories, the audio-lingual habit theory and the cognitive code-learning theory, was assessed in the Adults Project at the Gothenburg School of Education. A series of three experiments was concerned with the teaching of grammar, in particular those grammatical constructions where English differs from the native language, Swedish. Attitude and achievement tests were given afterwards. The audio-lingual or implicit method featured monolingual and inductive approaches and formal grammar was excluded, whereas the explicit method included grammatical rules and explanations in the native tongue, and translation exercises.

Results for adults, average age 33, showed that the explicit method was more effective at all age, proficiency and aptitude levels. Replication experiments with younger learners, average age 22, substantiated the earlier results. A further replication with 12-year-old pupils produced less marked results, although the explicit method was still the more successful, particularly with girls and the upper ability levels, whereas the implicit method favoured the boys and lower ability levels. [Discussion.] [Further experiments synthesising to two methods; brief survey of Swedish developments in language teaching.]

BILINGUAL TEACHING *See abstracts 76-67/8, -71*

CLASS METHODS: PRONUNCIATION

See abstracts 76-33, -37

VOCABULARY *See also abstracts 76-14, -49*

- 76-51** **Brown, Dorothy F.** Advanced vocabulary teaching: the problem of collocation. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 5, 2 (1974), 1-11.

Advanced students need to expand their English vocabulary, and it is suggested that they can be helped to anticipate in their listening and reading by studying collocation, i.e. the company that a word usually keeps. Ten collocation exercises are described in detail, some manipulative, some allowing greater choice, and covering various parts of speech. [Other suggestions for collocation exercises are made.] [References.]

- 76-52** **Oskarsson, Mats.** On the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign language vocabulary: an empirical investigation. *ITL* (Louvain), 27 (1975), 19-32.

The bilingual and monolingual methods of learning foreign-language vocabulary are compared in order to assess whether employment of the native language is helpful to adult students. [Brief review of previous research which shows that the use of bilingual glosses produces more satisfactory results.] [Method, texts, testing methods.] Results were consistently in favour of the bilingual treatment [tables], even on a test (of the general command of the concepts studied) slanted towards monolingual treatment. A questionnaire showed that subjects thought that English was learned more effectively through the native language. [References.]

LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

See abstracts 76-13, -62/6

READING *See also abstracts 76-31, -38, -40*

- 76-53** **Mackay, Ronald.** Teaching the information gathering skills. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 5, 2 (1974), 58-68.

Successful teaching of the information-gathering skills requires the teacher to identify in linguistic terms the knowledge a student needs to understand a text, to be able to teach such knowledge systematically, and to provide the student with opportunities to practice it. In this way he is teaching comprehension and not merely testing it.

Features of continuous spoken and written language which are seldom systematically taught to the intermediate and advanced learner are discussed: lexical inclusion and equivalence, anaphoric reference and inter-sentential

connection. These form part of the linguistic system of all texts, and as they signal information, an inadequate mastery of them must hinder comprehension. [Examples and suggested teaching methods.]

- 76-54** **Neville, Mary H. and Pugh, A. K.** An exploratory study of the application of time-compressed and time-expanded speech in the development of the English reading proficiency of foreign students. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 4 (1975), 320-9.

[Brief survey of research on subvocalisation and developing reading fluency.] An exploratory investigation was carried out with non-native English speakers to determine whether the slowing-down of recordings of speech used as pacers for silent reading would improve understanding of the passages read, and whether the rate of the speech of the pacer could be increased beyond the original recorded rate without loss of understanding of the material read. [Procedure, including use of a speech compression machine; results.] Many variables were not controlled but it was concluded that using an expanded text as a pacer for silent reading made comprehension easier, and, conversely, compressing pacers made it more difficult. By altering the speed of the pacer, the reading task can be made more difficult without increasing its complexity. Vocalisation decreased. The technique might be useful for immigrants and poor mother-tongue readers. [References.]

- 76-55** **Thompson, G. Brian.** Sex differences in reading attainments. *Educational Research* (Windsor, Berks), **18**, 1 (1975), 16-23.

The evidence on sex differences in reading attainment of English-speaking children is reviewed. There is found to be a developmental trend for sex differences in reading attainment, whereby a larger proportion of boys than girls make a slow beginning at learning to read, but by ten years of age population differences between boys and girls are no longer apparent. It is considered important that teachers and parents should be aware that a boy under ten years who is making slow progress at learning to read may be an instance of this developmental phenomenon which does not imply any pathology such as dyslexia. Findings on sex differences in pre-reading skills are examined and also hypotheses about the origin of sex differences in reading attainment. The hypotheses of feminine bias of the school environment, of differential maturation of cerebral structures, and of differential exposure to the printed word, are evaluated.

WRITING See abstract 76-69

COMPREHENSION

- 76-56 **Brockhaus, Wilhelm.** Zur Fertigkeit des Hörverstehens im neu-sprachlichen Unterricht. [Acquiring the skill of listening comprehension in modern-language learning.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), 22, 3 (1975), 229-37.

Development of listening skills is widely regarded as a mere by-product of language teaching, so pupils acquire limited understanding of spoken language. The speaker commands the situation by choosing language he knows actively; the listener must select from many passively known items. Listening comprehension involves sound discrimination but phonemes have different sound values in different speakers. The theory of 'sequential acts' depends on the expectation that certain words follow one another. Single half-heard words gain meaning from their context but key words and phrases must be retained in the memory until the completed sentence reveals the meaning. Word association also plays a part where the correct choice from a host of 'possibles' is determined largely by context. In communication non-linguistic signals are as important as the verbal element. Listening comprehension must be a joint creative activity of listener and speaker.

The implications for the classroom situation are a wide range of speakers and a rich variety of material to enlarge experience and the field of possible word sequences and associations. Short but coherent pieces are required at first to mobilise the learner's passive knowledge. Strict adherence to known structures and vocabulary is not necessary. The teacher's speech must be normal in rhythm, speed and intonation, and in complexity just ahead of the pupils' capability. Television is a valuable aid, while radio demands more effort in filling in the background. Listening skills need to be equated in importance with reading skills, and special graded material prepared.

LITERATURE

- 76-57 **Littlewood, William T.** Littérature in the school foreign language course. *Modern Languages* (London), 56, 3 (1975), 127-31.

Different aspects of literature are discussed as they relate to possible aims and methods of study, and to corresponding criteria for the selection of texts. Five perspectives on a literary work are: (1) Language as a system of structures, which can form the basis for language practice in class. (2) Language in a particular stylistic variety, which may mean the introduction to the formal written register or to a range of styles (conversational, narrative, poetic), culminating at an advanced level in study of the idiosyncratic features of an author's style. (Readers or simplified texts can serve these two purposes equally well or better.)

(3) Language as the expression of subject matter is language in context and is also a way of assimilating knowledge of a foreign world or cultural background. (4) Appreciation of the underlying theme is the most advanced perspective: while discussion in the mother tongue may raise the level of ideas, discussion and essays in the foreign language should stretch and expand competence. (5) The historical context is not so much provision of facts but relating features at different levels to the development of the foreign culture.

Criteria for the selection of suitable texts for specific classes and objectives are: structural suitability, books with everyday language, some knowledge of the cultural background, relevance to the pupils' interests and the scope of their literary experience. At different stages of learning, there will be different priorities.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS See abstracts 76–32, –41, –43

TELEVISION

76–58 Eggers, Dietrich. Entwicklung neuer Übungsformen durch die Einbeziehung des Mediums Fernsehen. [The development of new exercises through the inclusion of the medium of television.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), 2 (1975), 2–10.

Teaching at the Institute of Languages at Johannes Gutenberg University in Mainz was based on the course book *Deutsch 2000* to prepare students for a specific exam. Television programmes were chosen for content and typical behaviour and speech patterns in certain situations. Exercises were designed to practise various listening, speaking and writing skills. Advertisements, cartoons and short items rich in illustrations with minimal texts were used for practising commentaries. After viewing and vocabulary explanations, students repeated the script on tape and then expanded it using new vocabulary, tenses and clauses. [Examples.] Children's programmes such as 'Sesame Street' were found useful for practising forms of the impersonal pronoun, active and passive and indirect speech. Contextualised stimulus/response exercises were prepared for the language laboratory and vocabulary illustrated by the overhead projector. [Examples.]

An important aspect was preparing foreign students for subjects taught in German. [Teaching methods are described for a programme on federalism, critical analysis of advertising programmes, and discussion of a programme on further education.]

- 76-59 McLean, Alan C.** The uses of follow-up: television in the classroom. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 4 (1975), 303-9.

Research into preparatory and follow-up procedures most appropriate for educational television programmes was carried out at the University of Strathclyde's audio-visual unit. Three groups of immigrant children were shown the same film about lunch-time in a dining hall, which aimed to teach the language and behaviour appropriate to such a situation: group A received no follow-up, group B received a linguistically oriented follow-up, and group C a situationally oriented follow-up. [Details of methods used, and of a situation devised to test linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour.]

Results showed that group C had the best command of the linguistic material taught and were also more relaxed in communicating. Groups A and B found it equally difficult to modify the patterns they had been taught, and were ill at ease. It therefore seems that a situationally oriented follow-up is best suited to this kind of programme.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 76-60 Henderson, John A.** Design and use of the language laboratory for the teaching of interpreting. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **13**, 2 (1975), 101-9.

The teaching of interpreting can be seen as an advanced language-learning exercise. Several aspects of interpreting can be practised in the conventional language laboratory; others require a specially designed laboratory. The different modes of interpreting are distinguished and ways in which they can be taught and practised are outlined: *ad hoc* and liaison interpreting require no special equipment (role-playing is particularly useful) and help build confidence. Other preliminary exercises are various forms of oral précis in the language laboratory. Conference interpreting (consecutive and simultaneous) requires some kind of playback facility. It is more important for students to work through a large amount of material on a once-only basis than to go carefully over each interpretation. [Consecutive and simultaneous interpreting are distinguished, and ways of teaching both are outlined; the design of a suitable laboratory is discussed, based on experience at the University of Bradford.]

- 76-61 Quinn, David J.** The lab sheet: making the lab teach. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **8**, 2 (1975), 144-8.

The lack of quality and variety of commercial tapes for use in the language lab is one of the primary reasons why students have increasingly resisted lab practice. In order to offer students more stimulating lab learning, teachers at

the University of Hawaii have developed the 'lab sheet' – a procedure which combines listening and writing skills in the language lab. The procedure may be adapted for almost any text and level of language learning. The lab sheet is intended primarily as a culminating activity covering the major structural concepts and vocabulary in a unit. For those students who have already learned the material, the lab sheet serves as reinforcement and revision; it acts as a learning device for those who have not yet mastered the material. With its introduction, lab attendance increased nearly 20 per cent. [Illustrated by parts of a lab sheet for teaching French.]

ENGLISH See also abstracts 76–14, –35, –42, –44, –50/1, –53/4, –59

76–62 Corbluth, J. D. English? – or 'Special English'? *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 4 (1975), 277–86.

The question of whether there are separate subject-based varieties of English, and whether future scientists, for example, should study only 'Science English', are discussed. Knowledge of the basic grammatical features is needed in all fields. Specialised lexis will probably already be known to students though some common terms may have a special meaning in the subject. Extracting certain syntactical features from the common core and emphasising them at the expense of other common structures is perilous. Great differences of style and expression can exist in the same academic field, though different academic fields have common linguistic and paralinguistic characteristics. Where English is the medium of instruction, English is best taught through the subject, though there is still a strong case for retaining 'General English'. Other factors which mitigate against special purpose English are the discipline and the broadening influence of learning language. Gearing the English course to the student's subject is said to provide motivation but it can also be seen as narrowing his interests.

In most ELT contexts, a general all-round course involving all the skills is required; even at tertiary level students often lack an adequate minimal command of the fundamental structures and vocabulary. Applying such a basic command to the specialised field presents no great difficulty.

76–63 Ewer, J. R. Note-taking training for non-English-speaking students of science and technology. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **5**, 1 (1974), 41–9.

Methods for training students in the skill of note-taking, based on an analysis of the students' problems, are outlined. The main areas of difficulty are language and speech, concepts and students' mental 'set'. Preliminary training

concentrates on improving listening and the grasp of essentials by means of short 'idea-following' exercises, mental agility exercises and written precis work. Then follows note-taking practice itself, including short lectures on familiar scientific and technological subjects delivered at normal speed, with students working in pairs [details of class methods]. Dealing next with more unfamiliar subjects, the students work individually. [Difficulties are analysed, e.g. language complexity, unfamiliar concepts, speech varieties.] The teacher should himself seek out and adapt suitable materials, especially recordings which can be used in the language laboratory. [Suggestions for recording lectures, demonstrations and discussion sessions and uses to which such material can be put.] [References.]

76-64 Henley, Alix. English language in hospitals. *Language Teaching and Community Relations* (London), 2, 2 (1975), 3-5.

In-service English courses for ancillary staff in hospitals, developed by the Pathway Centre in London, are described. The language taught is essentially job-related and the methods are based on the needs and abilities of the students. [Brief description of the areas covered, organisation and teaching methods.]

76-65 Pritchard, N. A. and Chamberlain, R. G. D. Special purpose English: changing approaches to English language teaching. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 5, 2 (1974), 48-57.

Materials developed for a scientific English course for use in Malay-medium Science schools are described. Such a course would take up only half the periods allocated to English, and could run parallel with the normal course or be written into it. The aim is to enable students to improve their reading and comprehension of their English textbooks. Many samples of scientific English are presented and their features are analysed. Initially the course concentrates on the total system of deixis and items expressing logico-grammatical relation, especially linking works. Sections concentrate on word-building; depersonalisation; compounding; definitions and relative clauses; transferring information from one medium to another, e.g. completing graphs from data on tape. The students should already be familiar with the scientific contents involved and the sample materials used should be taken from actual textbooks. [Samples of materials and teaching methods used with them in the course are discussed.]

76-66 Widdowson, H. G. An approach to the teaching of scientific English discourse. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 5, 1 (1974), 27-40.

The assumption behind the concept of register, that a language must consist of different and distinct varieties, is questioned: variation in language need not involve the existence of varieties in any particular language, nor need different

functions be matched by a difference of linguistic forms. Specialist uses of language (as in scientific papers, etc.) are associated with universal modes of communication. ['Text' and 'discourse' are distinguished.] The purpose of analysing discourse is to characterise the communication as a whole, taking account of both verbal and non-verbal features and the way in which they are related rather than analysing the linguistic properties of the language used. Chemical formulae and diagrams are seen as the deep structure of communication in chemistry, while particular linguistic features of English chemical texts are simply their surface structure manifestations [examples].

The pedagogical implications are that English should be presented in relation to students' existing knowledge of science and their own language [examples of tasks – completing tables and statements – which enable students to write correct sentences while performing the communicative acts of classifying, generalising and defining]. A transition is made from acts relating to concepts to acts relating to procedures, which involves moving from structurally simple acts to more complex ones consisting of a combination of utterances. At this stage less use is made of L1 and more of English [exercises associating English with non-verbal representations are suggested].

FRENCH See also abstracts 76–13, –37, –41, –45/6, –61

76–67 **Blondel, Anne-Marie.** La pédagogie du français langue seconde: enrichissement d'un code et pratique en acte et en situation. [The teaching of French as a second language: filling out a code and giving active and situational practice.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **114** (1975), 10–17.

A review of the educational situation in Tunisia is given, particularly of French classes in primary and secondary schools and mixed ability classes of 40. Children's concrete experience is handled in colloquial Arabic but much of their secondary curriculum (facts, retailing observations, unfolding reasoning processes) is taught in French. This disparity in language use has to be overcome by the French classes, should be rooted in language functions and must train pupils in logical reasoning and handling concepts. [Desirable features of culturally oriented classes and linguistically oriented lessons are listed in detail, showing relationships between Tunisian background, grammatical structures, pupils' performance and maturation.]

76–68 **King, Ann.** The 'section bilingue' experiment at Haygrove School. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **13**, 2 (1975), 87–9.

The setting up of a *section bilingue* at a secondary school in Somerset is described. Two classes, one of higher ability and the other with a wide spread

of ability, were selected in the second year. Out of ten French lessons per fortnight, three are devoted to the study of another subject through French. [Description of materials and methods used.] After a year it is felt that the main advantages of teaching other subjects through French are that the language becomes meaningful, the children have greater confidence in their ability to understand new language items, their technical vocabulary is wide, and, most important, motivation is high.

GERMAN See also abstracts 76-48, -58

76-69 **Thomanek, J. K. A.** Essays in German at university entrance: a contribution to the debate on standards. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **8** (1975), 63-72.

A profile of the average essay written by students of German in their first week at university is given, to show what kind of mistakes students make when given a free hand (unlike using prose composition as a test), what constructions are preferred and consequently where most teaching effort should be directed. The profile covers: sentence complexity including embedding of subordinate clauses; clause complexity; measures of vocabulary, verbal syntax, and mistakes (the latter averaged one in every 17 words). An error analysis showed that the main source of errors was syntax (40 per cent), followed by morphology (endings) (27.4 per cent), and lexis (22.3 per cent).

The relationship of the essays to examination performances before university and at the end of the first year is examined and it is concluded that the university examination is too rigidly error-orientated, i.e. more concerned with what is wrong than what is right. [Statistical details; average German essay is given.]

SPANISH See also abstract 76-24/5

76-70 **Dabène, Louise.** L'enseignement de l'espagnol aux francophones (pour une didactique des langues 'voisines'). [The teaching of Spanish to French pupils: a plea for a methodology of 'related' languages.] *Langages* (Paris), **9**, 39 (1975), 51-64.

[Hispanists' situation in French schools.] Facile comprehension encourages French pupils to use 'transfer' to learn Spanish, which results in erroneous forms [*entrer/entrar**]. Similarity of syntactic forms masks deep differences of conceptualisation [examples]. These differences currently restrict pupils' performances to basic communication. There should be two criteria of performance: grammaticality and authenticity. A systematised creative exploration of Spanish could

then be encouraged. Audio-visual courses aim to disentangle aural perception from the mental preoccupations of analysis and organisation. German and Russian a-v courses for French pupils have succeeded in doing this; learners work directly on the implicit grammar. In Spanish, pupils inevitably make successive comparisons with French, especially as Spanish lacks a clear system of commutations. Visual cues [examples] should be redesigned, systematic training in conceptualisation given, and written Spanish should be introduced earlier; L1 learning must be associated with Spanish courses. [References.]

RUSSIAN

76-71 **Bejkmán, È. A., Infant'ev, B. F.** Славяно-балтийский билингвизм и обучение русскому языку. [Slavonic-Baltic bilingualism and the teaching of Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 4 (1975), 25-31.

In Latvia, there are two kinds of Slavonic-Baltic bilingualism. In Latgalia people speak the local Latgalian and Belorussian dialects, and also use Belorussian-coloured dialect Russian. In teaching Russian in schools the main emphasis is on removing dialectisms in pronunciation and morphology (especially periphrastic verbal forms), and on literacy [examples]. In the rest of Latvia, children in urban areas, especially Central Latvia, have considerable pre-school acquaintance with Russian, through contact with non-Latvians. The emphasis in school is on teaching literacy, and those parts of Russian grammar that differ significantly from Latvian (especially the syntax of the verb). In rural areas, Russian is essentially taught as a foreign language. In both cases, similarities between Latvian and Russian can be utilised, e.g. to increase vocabulary requirements [examples]. Comparing Latvian and Russian also enables pupils to appreciate the differences between them. In urban areas, the teacher must first assess the degree of bilingualism in the individual pupils. It is often useful to divide the class into two groups on this basis, with different tasks for each; or to give the class as a whole the choice between easier and more difficult tasks - experience shows that pupils soon come to choose the more difficult tasks. Where bilingualism is well developed, pupils usually know most of the vocabulary items in their texts, and can work with a bilingual dictionary rather than lesson-by-lesson vocabulary lists. Bilingualism aids more rapid study of Russian, but requires more preparation of lessons by the teacher.

- 76-72 **Kokorina, S. I.** Модели минимальных предложений в практике преподавания русского языка как иностранного. [Models of minimal sentences in the practice of teaching Russian as a foreign language.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1975), 69-72.

In Russian theoretical linguistics, there are two conceptions of the model of a minimal sentence: (1) only the constituents necessary for grammatical completeness are considered (predicate and, where present, subject); (2) all constituents necessary for informational completeness are considered. Under (1), *птицы улетели* 'the birds have flown' and *он читает книгу* 'he reads the book' are both N_1-V_f ; under (2) they are N_1-V_f and $N_1-V_fN_4$ respectively.

The conception found in textbooks of Russian for foreigners corresponds to neither of these. Constituents required by the predicate except in absolute use are omitted (thus *он читает журнал* 'he reads the periodical' is N_1-V_f). In general, only constituents required for informational completeness are included, but for methodological reasons phrases accompanying subjectless predicates are included, e.g. *в коридоре шумят* 'in the corridor there is a noise', *оленья ранило* 'the deer has been wounded'. Here the interaction between lexical and grammatical semantics is important: the predicate necessarily expresses a quality, either an independent quality, or a quality predicated of the topic (субъект) of the sentence although this is not its subject (агент) and may correspond to an object in sentences with a subject, e.g. *охотник ранил оленя* 'the hunter wounded the deer'. Since foreign students find the Russian passive difficult, there is practical value in concentrating on these subjectless constructions. This pedagogical approach gives the learner a manageable list of sentences not only grammatically but also informationally complete.