

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

75-31 **Carroll, John B.** Some suggestions from a psycholinguist. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 7, 4 (1973), 355-67.

An initial stage of listening practice may be helpful for adult beginners. Listening comprehension work, not necessarily passive, is probably also beneficial at the 'plateau' level beyond which the learner finds it difficult to progress. Active retrieval from memory is needed. [The role of the processes of memory is explained.] The rules governing language performance may be different from those of formal language analysis, and there is a tenuous connection between formal analysis and the way we speak and understand. To construct a performance grammar we must analyse the possible meanings that can be encoded and specify the rules for translating them into surface structure.

Certain basic meanings included in the generation of simple sentences involving relations between the deep subject, the deep verb and the deep object (elements of an 'intention-marker' which also includes variables such as theme, tense, mood and emphasis) can be identified. Sentences are built up from the set of elements and variables present in the 'intention-marker' rather than in accordance with transformational or phrase-structure rules. Application of all the variables results in 360 sentence types [example of a computer programme to generate sentences in this way]. Students learning English could be made aware of these elements and variables and rules similar to those underlying the computer programme could be taught.

75-32 **Day, David E.** Language instruction for young children: what ten years of confusion has taught us. *Interchange* (Ontario), 5, 1 (1974), 59-71.

The compensatory education movement and attitudes to non-standard language and intellectual development are discussed, particularly the work of Deutsch, Hunt and Bloom in the 1960s which resulted in the creation of pre-school programmes aimed at changing the language patterns of deprived children. The idea of dialect substitution evolved from thinking that language was not a developmental phenomenon. Conclusions which emerge from the debate over this issue are discussed: (1) non-standard dialect is socially disadvantageous but does not produce a cognitive defect; (2) language maturity develops with time and experience; (3) the relation between language and thought should serve as the key to language instruction for young children [the work of Labov and others is discussed].

The concept of language maturity transcends the deficit/disadvantage issue. It includes paradigms for describing phenomena; creativity; complexity; and comprehension measuring. Instead of defining language maturity by an analysis of language errors, an alternative concept accepts that all dialects are adequate. [Impact of Chomsky's ideas about the process of language acquisition; the work of Vygotsky and Piaget on language and thought is contrasted.] [Implications for teachers are briefly outlined.] [Numerous references.]

- 75-33 **Dulay, Heidi C. and Burt, Marina K.** Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), 24, 1 (1974), 37-53.

If the process of creative construction plays a major role in children's acquisition of L2, children of different language backgrounds should acquire certain English syntactic structures in the same general sequence. To test this, the acquisition sequences of 11 English functors (e.g. noun and verb inflexions, articles, auxiliaries) were compared for native Chinese- and Spanish-speaking children learning English. Three different methods of speech analysis used to obtain the sequences are described in detail. All three yielded approximately the same sequence of acquisition for both language groups. [Compare the authors' earlier study, abstracted in *LTA* 7, 4, no. 246]. This finding provides strong support for the existence of universal child language-learning strategies and suggests a programme of research that could lead to their description.

- 75-34 **Loebner, Horst-Dieter.** Zur Effektivität des neusprachlichen Grammatikunterrichts. [The efficiency of teaching grammar in modern-language instruction.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart), 30, 2 (1974), 48-60

Problems have arisen with the teaching of grammar in modern-language instruction. Part of the blame can be ascribed to the excessive and inflexible use of pattern practice and the absolute exclusion of the mother tongue, in accordance with the direct method of teaching. Reasons for the failure are suggested [extensive quotations] and it is stressed that students should understand new structures before acquiring and memorising them, and that understanding is often not possible without an explanation given in the mother tongue.

It is argued that a purely inductive method of acquiring grammatical structures in the foreign language almost unconsciously is hard to follow because lessons in textbooks do not usually provide enough examples for the student to discover and formulate rules by himself. Instead, lessons are often followed by exercises of doubtful value. There has been a tendency to modify pattern practice by situational association or addition of grammatical explana-

tion before the drill, complemented by transformation practice. There could be further improvement by using the mother tongue for explanations, formulation of rules, etc. Interference should be put to positive use and translating reinstated. Consciously acquired structures and rules, which are well understood, will be easier to remember and apply than those learned through drilling.

75-35 Reid, Constance L. Discovery of latent structure as the major process in language acquisition: implications for the second language program. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 6, 4 (1973), 481-6.

Generative-transformational grammar has often been cited as a possible theoretical model for the psychological processes involved in first-language acquisition. The discovery of latent structure is widely considered to be the major process. Such discovery may result primarily from inferential operations, and it is plausible that these operations are influential also in second-language acquisition. If the discovery of latent structure through inferencing characterises second-language acquisition, a transformational grammar model may have implications for second-language learning and instruction.

A language program reflecting this model would emphasise the role of syntax in expressing meaning. Instructional techniques based on sets of transformationally related sentences would facilitate the manipulation of syntax while holding meaning constant. Concentration on basic structural alternatives would involve the learner directly with latent structure and encourage its discovery. It would also allow him to focus on expressing his own meaning by deciding from among the structural alternatives for conveying it. Decisions made at the syntactic level would restrict choices at the morphological and phonological levels. Techniques of language habit theory might be useful in mastering the fixed elements of the closed systems at these levels [examples of possible drills]. This theory would thus be incorporated into the more powerful theory of generative-transformational grammar. [References].

75-36 Rozkovicová, Ludmila. Využití kontextu při sémantizaci slovní zásoby. [The use of the context in the semantisation of vocabulary.] *Cizí jazyky ve škole* (Prague), 17, 6 (1973/4), 241-53.

The linguistic context, i.e. the combination of a semantically dependent word (a word the meaning of which is to be determined) with an indicator (consisting of one or more indicating words or a structural feature) is the most adequate means of semanticising words with 'linguistic meanings', i.e. words having no direct reference to extralinguistic reality. The concept of context is based on studies by Soviet linguists (Amosova, Apresjan, Ufimtsva and others). They distinguish two types of 'lexical context': (1) where there is a direct link between the two

elements (the meaning of 'hand' in *the hands of a clock*); (2) where there is no direct syntactic link (in *they brushed his hair paying strict attention to the parting*, 'parting' is determined by 'hair'); and a 'syntactic context' where the indicator is dependent on the syntagma of which it is a member (in *they make it move*, 'make' is determined by object and infinitive). These types of changing context differ from constant contexts in established phrases and idioms. The ability of a context to determine the meaning of words is called the 'determining strength' of the context. The relevance of this strength depends on the type of language. In analytical languages, as in English, the context is much more predictive than in inflectional languages, e.g. Russian. If the meaning is predictive without choice – in John Lyons' view 'having no meaning' (as e.g. 'teeth' in *I bit him with my false teeth*, or the meaning of *How do you do* in greetings) – we establish the best context for the acquisition of a hitherto unknown word by the learner of a language.

The degree of contextual strength depends on the number of relevant syntactical valences of a given word, expressed either idiomatically or by the lexico-semantic compatibility between the word to be determined and the words expressing its valences. As the receiver of a linguistic communication does not usually encounter contexts that are optimal in the sense that they contain all relevant valences, he can only partly determine the meanings of unknown words. He establishes hypotheses about them which he then verifies in other contexts until he is able to understand their meanings fully.

In foreign-language teaching courses the contextual approach is not yet sufficiently utilised; far too many exercises are introduced without any context. Some types of foreign-language exercise utilising contextual strength for establishing the meanings of words are suggested.

75-37 Thomaneck, J. K. A. Linguistics and language teaching: some implications of sociolinguistic findings on the teaching of foreign languages with special reference to German. *New German Studies* (Hull), 2, 1 (1974), 1-13.

Some sociolinguists have recently differentiated between an elaborated code (used by the middle classes) and a restricted code (characteristic of the working classes but also used by the middle classes). A speaker using the elaborated code has far more alternatives available for the verbal planning operation; hence his linguistic performance is dependent on his class rather than on his intelligence. The latter determines only the degree of linguistic ability within a code. [A comparison is made between English and German sociolinguistic findings within the two codes.] It is suggested that one of the main causes of errors in learning German is the restricted code. Among the problems are role identification, meaningful vocabulary learning without visual aids, assimilation of gram-

matical rules and the whole concept of contrastive linguistics. All of these presuppose that the learner is an elaborated-code user in his native tongue. Comprehension, prozes and translations in their present form likewise do little to help the restricted-code user to develop elaborated verbal planning.

[An Aberdeen University project to determine the extent to which social class and linguistic codes are a factor in foreign-language teaching is described.] The actual teaching of sociolinguistics in a German course helps to make students aware that language is also a social phenomenon. When they become teachers they will then be better able to assess the learners' difficulties – a factor which is particularly relevant to language teaching in comprehensive schools. [Bibliography.]

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

75-38 Akhiyarova, M. Z., Aminev, G. A. and Kadirov, M. Kh. О применении электроэнцефалографии в исследовании речи. [The use of electroencephalography in speech research.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 3 (1974), 42-5.

An attempt to show the possibility of using the methodology of encephalography to determine the degree of students' assimilation of second-language speech-habits. Tatar children from three types of school and at two stages of development took part in the experiments, in which they listened and responded to Russian test-phrases in an isolated chamber, while electrical impulses from various parts of their brains were recorded on an EEG. Instances of highly synchronous activity between the various parts of the cerebral cortex were examined in the light of information on the function of these various parts [references] to produce the following results. Children from group III (Tatars who use Russian as their principal language) have high synchrony over the whole cortex in both first and third classes, indicating a high level of linguistic competence. Children from group I (Tatar school, taught in Russian according to programmes and textbooks used in Russian schools) and group II (Tatar school, taught in Russian according to special Turkic-school programmes and textbooks) have similar readings in the first class, which indicates that internal translation into the native language is taking place. By the third class, group I's patterns have not changed significantly, while group II's patterns show greater automatisisation of the speech-skills and generation of visual images, though not to the same extent as group III. Thus progress in a second language is shown to be better when teaching in the second language is carried out according to special programmes and textbooks.

- 75-39 **Suprun, A. E., Klimenko, A. P. and Titova, L. N.** Типология ассоциативных структур и изучение лексики. [The typology of associative structures and the study of vocabulary.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 3 (1974), 4-11.

Word associations often depend on the individual subject's past experience, but with many subjects a number of responses to a given stimulus-word occur with significant frequency, and are constant from experiment to experiment; such stereotyped responses are of particular linguistic interest. The most satisfactory word-association experiment is where the subjects respond immediately and orally to the stimulus word. Responses to apparent lexical equivalents may vary from language to language, depending on slight semantic differences or differences in collocation [examples]. Responses also differ when the stimulus is a picture or object rather than a word, demonstrating the linguistic factor in word-association.

Word-association may represent structural semantic relations (synonymy, semantic similarity, antonymy, hyponymy), syntagmatic relations (adjective + noun, verb + object, idioms), relations of derivational morphology (including suppletion), and extralinguistic relations between phenomena referred to by the words [examples]. Other relations, e.g. phonetic similarity, are much less frequent. The organisation of associative structures is closely linked with the structure of texts. Foreign-language learners often have atypical word-association responses carried over from their native language: this is a symptom of incomplete mastery of the foreign language. The results of word association studies will be useful in showing in what context (paradigmatic, syntagmatic, etc.) new lexical material should be introduced, i.e. what associations should be fostered. A dictionary of Russian word-associations is being prepared at the Scientific-Methological Centre of the Russian Language (now Pushkin Institute) at Moscow State University.

ERROR ANALYSIS *See also abstract 75-58*

- 75-40 **Py, Bernard.** La noción de análisis de errores y su aplicación a la enseñanza de la sintaxis española. [The concept of error analysis and its application to the teaching of Spanish syntax.] *Boletín de la Asociación Europea de Profesores de Español* (Madrid), 6, 10 (1974), 29-37.

The 'programmed' approach to teaching, though rigorous, has tended to weaken motivation. It treats error negatively, whereas later linguistics treats it as useful data about the psychology of learning. Contrastive analysis, with its origins in the earlier period, needs to be oriented by an error analysis which in turn must also

take account of non-L1 error sources. In error analysis based on TGG, every (reified) rule is viewed as a possible error source. A TGG can be set up for each successive transitional competence of the student (including the errors he produces) and compared with an ideal TGG for L2. Support for Corder's distinctions between *mistake* and *error*, and between *presystematic*, *systematic* and *postsystematic* errors is given, defining error as the infringement of a rule or of the form of the system (e.g. of rule order). Transitional competences are viewed as systems evolving through the above-mentioned stages, as convenient fictions offering departure-points for error analysis. Using TGG, the output of various transitional competences is compared with L2 grammar fragments, and the role of L1 surface structure interference in L2 learning is discussed, including 'Markovian' rules (pseudo-rules of L2 embodying lexical and morphological redundancies of L1). [Bibliography.]

75-41 **Scott, Margaret Sue and Tucker, G. Richard.** Error analysis and English-language strategies of Arab students. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 1 (1974), 69-97.

This study investigated the English proficiency of 22 Arabic-speaking students enrolled in a low-intermediate intensive English course at the American University of Beirut. Written and oral samples were taken at the beginning and end of the term. Errors were analysed in terms of performance mistakes, mother-tongue interference or false intralanguage analogy. The data provided a rank ordering of the subjects' areas of difficulty [tables] and a tentative description of some aspects of their transitional grammar is offered. Verbs, presuppositions and articles were the main areas of difficulty. The results should provide useful information for teachers of Arabic-speaking students of English and to researchers investigating the phenomenon of second-language acquisition in general. [References.]

75-42 **Smólska, Janina.** Analiza błędów językowych w nauczaniu języków. [Error analysis in teaching foreign languages.] *Języki obce w szkole* (Warsaw), **18**, 3 (1974), 144-9.

For two decades from the mid 1940s, contrastive analysis (which maintained that the major source of errors is the interference caused by the structural differences between L1 and L2) dominated the principal theories of methodology. The contrastive method was to prognosticate errors and develop teaching techniques to eliminate them. Didactic experience has shown, however, that not all differences between the structures of L1 and L2 necessarily lead to errors. The work of Chomsky and the theory of transformation has helped to develop new attitudes to the learning process (especially of a child learning its native

language). Research has confirmed that many errors are the result of intralingual interference. As a result, contrastive analysis was limited to a diagnostic role and reduced to an explanatory complement to error analysis. Errors were no longer seen as harmful, but were regarded as an indication that the process of acquiring a foreign language was actually taking place. [Corder's work, particularly the introduction of the concept of idiosyncratic dialect, the transitional stage of competence in a foreign language, is discussed. The necessity of contrastive research in transitional dialect is stressed.]

Language specialists now prefer the idea of a criterion of usefulness (i.e. effective communication in a foreign language) to that of near-native pronunciation and overlearning in grammar. Here, error analysis leads to two fields of research: (1) the degree of disturbance in the process of communication, and (2) the degree of irritation of the recipient. These two fields demand more attention, particularly to the relevance and importance of lexical materials and the role of vocabulary. [Bibliography.]

TESTING

75-43 Cory, Mark E. A neglected aspect of foreign language testing: structuring the review session. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 7, 4 (1974), 417-20.

Considerable attention has been paid to the design, administration and interpretation of foreign-language tests, but practically none to the process of reviewing (revising) for these tests in group-paced instruction. The implementation of a fully articulated practice examination modelled on the format of the exam itself can structure a review session in such a way as to exploit more fully the teaching potential of an exam situation. Incorporating many of the self-evaluative benefits of individualised instruction, such a review sheet is helpful in co-ordinating a multi-sectioned course with common examinations, and has the additional virtue of being highly popular with students. [Sample review sheet and practice exam for German in the third semester, and discussion of their application in class.]

75-44 Gipps, Caroline and Ewen, Elizabeth. Tests of English for immigrant children and patterns of performance. *Trends in Education* (London), 33 (1974), 31-5.

[The construction of the tests is described in *LTA* 7, 1 (1974), no. 74-66.] A set of English proficiency tests, sponsored by the Department of Education and Science, was administered in 1972. From the analysis of the results, certain patterns of performance emerged in terms of the overall proficiency of different

groups of children. [Brief description of the function, administration and scoring of the tests.]

The sample was divided into Asian and West Indian groups with three different lengths-of-stay in Britain, from 18 months to 5½ years at school. [Results.] In the listening and reading tests, West Indians seem to start off with an advantage, but Asians catch them up and eventually become more proficient. In the writing tests, Asians have an advantage from the beginning and maintain it. In the speaking tests, West Indian children perform consistently better than Asian children. About 40 per cent of all children fail Reading One and Writing One. [Comparison of children in normal classes with children in full-time language centres.] As expected, the longer-stay children perform better than shorter-stay children.

- 75-45** **Komorowska, Hanna.** *Zasady konstrukcji testów a poziom zaawansowania językowego uczniów (klasy II, III, IV).* [Principles of test construction for pupils at advanced level in languages. Classes II, III, IV.] *Języki obce w szkole* (Warsaw), 18, 2 (1974), 70-80.

A battery of tests suitable for advanced classes in foreign languages in a General Education Lycée is described. For Class II these include: phonological, lexical, morphosyntactic, communication, speech, aural and written comprehension, and writing skills tests. For Classes III and IV: similar types but with different components and adjusted to suit these levels. [Examples of each type of test.]

- 75-46** **Oller, J. W., Jr.** Pragmatic language testing. *Language Sciences* (Bloomington, Ind), 28 (1973), 7-12.

A distinction must be drawn between relationship messages and content messages [examples]. Analysis of linguistic communication has concentrated on content coding, but relationship messages may be more important in communication. The concept of a grammar of expectancy is basic to both types: expectancies play an essential role in the perception and production of language. Sequentially connected sentences are more easily perceived and produced than isolated sentences. Predictability, to which creativity and surprise value are related, makes grammars of expectancy possible: the mind analyses its experience and learns to rearrange the components informatively. Linguistic creativity is more than the capacity to generate an indefinite number of mental objects (e.g. sentences), but entails the capacity to modify the generative mechanism. Intelligence, meaning and language result from creative interaction between an individual and his environment. Sentences and other linguistic units in relation to extralinguistic contexts have characteristics that sentences independent of these contexts do not have.

Discrete-point testing violates the principle that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. If different subtests intercorrelate well, they are highly valid. Discrete-point tests are inferior to integrative tests, which require activities similar to those of normal communication [dictation and cloze tests are briefly discussed]. Integrative tests provide information on the student's deficiencies, are claimed to be easy to construct and administer, have clear application to teaching, and discriminate between native and non-native speakers better than discrete-point tests. [References.]

COURSE DESIGN

75-47 Cooper, M. D. Language roles in the study of science. *ELT Documents* (London), 2 (1974), 2-10.

Where students are educated through a language which is not their mother tongue, the teacher of that language must give them the language skills they need for learning. A prescribed textbook is used as a basis for describing the language roles which junior secondary school students in West Nigeria are expected to perform in English. Drawing upon a description of modes of scientific behaviour and skills made by Nigerian educationists, the producer roles of English in science are defined and analysed under the headings: observing and describing, sorting and classifying, measuring, raising questions, making generalisations, making predictions, drawing inferences, experimenting, interpreting data, application, recalling experience and information, and organising information. The consumer roles are likewise considered under the headings: questions, instructions and rules, naming and defining concepts and processes, descriptions, exposition, narrative, pictorial, diagrammatic and tabular information, symbolic representation and model making. Once these roles have been established, materials for the learning of English can be composed [examples are suggested under each heading].

75-48 McLean, Alan. Make 'em laugh: the lesson of TV comedy. *Educational Broadcasting International* (London), 7, 1 (1974), 14-16.

The language which is taught must reflect the syllabus concerned; to be meaningful it must also be realistic. The language used in television programmes for the teaching of English has tended to be excessively controlled, and it is argued that the style and content of the TV comedy routine could be a useful guide to ETV writers. The advantages of this type of model are that the repetition necessary for practice is natural to the style of the two-man comedy routine [examples], communication is made through a wide variety of body language (gesture and facial expression as well as words), and there is usually no

specific or limited setting. Instead of hearing unnaturally simple sentences, the learner has to select relevant features from a stream of speech, with the help of paralinguistic as well as linguistic markers. Children's favourable experience of lively television programmes should make them receptive to the use of similar techniques in ETV.

- 75-49 Pfeiffer, Waldemar.** *Z zagadnień preparacji materiałów do nauczania języków obcych.* [Some problems in preparing materials for teaching foreign languages.] *Języki obce w szkole* (Warsaw), **18**, 3 (1974), 149-56.

The selection of materials for the teaching of foreign languages in schools should follow the concept of integration of materials, and should be based on the method of linear progression (for basic textbooks), and the concentric method (for textbooks with dialogues and text). The linear progressive method is to be applied not only to the entire course but to each lesson; it should combine semantic and grammatical information, with semantics as a starting point, stressing the communicative function of each constituent part of a language. The concentric layout of the textbook is less dynamic.

The choice of a type of grammar which could serve as a basis in the preparation of materials is still a major difficulty. In the selection of grammars the eclectic method still prevails. The usage of several types of grammars – the tagmemic, the grammar of direct components and transformational grammar – is discussed by Siliakus and Nieder [examples]. In preparing exercise materials the determinative grammar proposed by Jerzy Banczera is noteworthy [examples]. [Bibliography.]

- 75-50 Sinclair, John McH.** *English for effect.* *ELT Documents* (London), **1** (1974), 2-7.

The notion of language effectiveness was the guiding strategy embodied in a set of materials designed for the multi-cultural urban classroom at the middle primary stage, *Concept Seven-Nine*. The aim was to give the West Indian children confidence in the English at their command rather than trying to teach them new forms of the language. A Dialect Kit was designed to teach a few features of written English directly by conventional EFL techniques, but the main work of the project concentrated upon the general language needs of multi-cultural groups in urban classrooms.

Materials for practice in listening are described [examples]; the approach is to make the listening incidental to the solving of small problems. The teaching of concept formation is done through the use of a matrix on which cards must be arranged according to semantic criteria [example]. The Communication Unit

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

deals directly with the interactive skills of language by means of discourse situations, or games requiring verbal co-operation [examples]. The general principles underlying the design of these materials are common to any language-learning situation.

75-51 Vereschagin, E. M. and Kostomarov, V. G. Sprachbezogene Landeskunde. [Language-related cultural studies.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), 21, 3 (1974), 308-15.

The foreign-language pupil should learn something of the socio-culture of the country whose language he is learning and this should be an integral part of the language course, fulfilling a general educative function. In course books for Russian, events described as taking place in the Soviet Union could in fact take place anywhere [example]. To overcome this problem, course books should be written by a team consisting both of methodological specialists in the home country and of Soviet specialists in the contemporary language and culture [example]. Illustrations must, in addition to any linguistic role, assist in the understanding of the new culture. In practice they sometimes depict the culture of the home country [example]. Words for which there is no ready equivalent in the mother-tongue culture (e.g. *kolkhoz*) can only be explained by brief reference to the cultural background into which they fit. Sentences in a textbook dialogue may be formally correct yet not reflect the normal way in which native speakers would respond [example]. Gestures and actions in different cultures often convey different meanings and should not be overlooked. The significance of literary and cultural references which are slipped into a text will be lost if a short explanation of their background and relevance is not given.

TEACHER TRAINING

75-52 Chandler, Michael. Teaching practice: a break with tradition. *ELT Documents* (London), 2 (1974), 12-17.

Teaching-practice arrangements designed to train elementary school teachers in Ghana to teach English in the primary and middle school are described. A procedure under which pairs of students in different schools took over a class completely for several weeks was abandoned in favour of one involving almost continuous contact with one school, to which whole classes of first-year students were assigned for three-week periods, each student working with two small groups of pupils every morning. The advantages were that each group could go at its own pace, co-operation with class teachers was facilitated, the children readily accepted the practice situation, there was an informal atmosphere, and the students found it easier to prepare aids and schemes for written work; teaching was more concentrated and had to be well prepared.

Since it was found that class teachers had not assessed the children's language ability realistically, certain reading skills were tested and the children were regrouped. As phonics had been neglected, it was taught independently of the main reading programme. It was felt that the teaching of groups was insufficient preparation for the teaching of normal classes, and second-year students were therefore sent to other schools. There was a shortage of teaching materials and the group arrangement limited the variety of oral activities. A stock of supplementary reading-matter for the older backward pupils, and brighter phonic material, are both needed.

75-53 Mackay, R. and Jordan, R. R. A survey of English language Assistants in France and Germany: 1972-73. Their role and preparation for it. *Modern Languages* (London), 55, 3 (1974), 129-31.

Information was collected on the nature of the work expected of English language Assistants posted to schools in France and Germany, in order to increase the relevance and effectiveness of courses in the teaching of spoken English for undergraduates of modern languages in the universities of Manchester and Newcastle, who would be spending a year abroad as Assistants. Since official information indicated that the work of Assistants requires less preparation than it in fact does, it was decided that existing facilities for preparing undergraduates for this teaching work should be explored, and that short 'minimum skill' courses should be devised to provide the necessary training. [Results of surveys, including courses provided in France and Germany as well as U.K.] A three-day preparatory course has been found to be a useful groundwork for students.

CURRICULUM PLANNING

75-54 Roe, Peter J. The place of English in the curriculum. *ELT Documents* (London), 1 (1974), 7-11.

A framework is offered for defining the place of English in an educational system in which English is the medium of instruction. It establishes three main types of component of the school curriculum: (1) the divisions of the curriculum into specific subject areas, which are termed the vertical components; (2) the aspects of the curriculum which are shared by almost all vertical components (attitudes, skills, etc.), called horizontal components; (3) the optimally appropriate sequence of presentation for both vertical and horizontal components, which is termed the temporal component. The distinction is made between the mandatory horizontal component of 'English' as the medium of instruction and the optional vertical component of English literature.

The goals of the horizontal component 'English' include communication goals. Some of these can be measured objectively, some only subjectively, and some are incapable of formal measurement [examples of each type]. The effectiveness of vertical components, such as English literature, is contingent upon the achievement of horizontal goals. There are no objectively measurable goals for English literature. However, some goals must be stated, in terms of post-training potential. Examples of possible goals are given, together with guidelines for inferring their degree of achievement. A definition of 'valid and reliable' examinations is given, and the possibility of constructing such examinations for both the horizontal component 'English' and the vertical component English literature, is discussed.

TEACHING METHODS

75-55 Bancroft, W. Jane. Foreign language teaching in Yugoslavia. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **58**, 3 (1974), 103-8.

Language teaching in Yugoslavia is described, from before the break with Moscow in 1948 to the present day. School and university foreign-language courses are described, English being the most widely studied language at both levels. Teacher training is part of the regular degree programme. [Course options are described.] Courses are of two kinds: lectures or seminars of a theoretical nature in literature and linguistics, and practical courses in oral and written language work. Research, particularly on language textbooks, is described, including the work of Guberina and Vilke. Vilke's 'five-stage scheme' for foreign-language teaching involves habit-formation in stages one to three and a cognitive approach in stages four and five [details].

75-56 Sherrington, Richard. Language-teaching programmes: student response. *Educational Broadcasting International* (London), **7**, 1 (1974), 8-10.

Radio and television programmes are necessarily too short to allow for oral responses from students. It is questionable whether such responses are always useful, except to the teacher, as different learning tasks call for different responses. A radio or TV course cannot programme responses according to the individual needs of each student, but it can do so with reference to the tasks themselves: motor skills require active participation, perceptual skills may not, as structures can be understood without being uttered aloud. Comprehension may require a covert response if the learner has to extract information, but not necessarily an overt response. Internal checks on the student's understanding should be written into the programme's script at frequent intervals. It is not the

'correct answer' which is being taught, but the ability to produce it. The checks will make the student take note of his uncertainties and refer back to previous learning. This approach would lead to a more intensive and valid use of mass media for home learners.

- 75-57 Woodson, M. I. Chas. E.** Seven aspects of teaching concepts. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **66**, 2 (1974), 184-8.

Seven steps (defining, identifying relevant attributes, identifying irrelevant attributes, listing exemplars, listing non-exemplars, describing the domain of the concept, and using analogies) in the teaching of concepts were isolated and their relative effectiveness examined by using each step to teach verbal concepts (e.g. the 'meaning' of Chinese characters) to college students. Subjects learned seven concepts at once in a within-subjects design. Teaching procedures involving the definition or identification of the relevant attributes were found to be the most effective in terms of errors. Several kinds of generalisation errors were isolated, and these were found to be associated with different instructional steps. [References.]

CLASS METHODS: PRONUNCIATION *See also*
abstract 75-69

- 75-58 Sarmiento Padilla, José A.** Système de fautes et correction phonétique par la méthode verbo-tonale des francophones belges qui apprennent l'espagnol. *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), **29** (1974), 51-77.

Experiments in the field of phonetic correction are described. An analysis was made of the pronunciation mistakes made by French-speaking Belgians studying Spanish at the School of International Interpreters at the University of Mons. The various techniques of phonetic correction which have been used for several years in the teaching of Spanish, and which are explained in this paper, perfectly match the requirements of the verbo-tonal method. A series of guidelines are therefore offered, which, if properly used, will contribute to the improvement of the oral expression of French-speaking students learning Spanish.

VOCABULARY See also abstract 75–36

- 75–59 Donley, Michael.** The role of structural semantics in expanding and activating the vocabulary of the advanced learner: the example of the homophone. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **12**, 2 (1974), 81–9.

The activation and expansion of the advanced learner's (English) vocabulary can be aided by the application of principles of structural semantics, which views words and their opposites within associations (i.e. the paradigm). Paradigms may be built not only upon similarities and dissimilarities relative to areas of meaning, but also to areas of form, sound and/or spelling [examples]. The homophone (identical sound: *wine/whine*) is chosen as an example of how these paradigms can be used in teaching vocabulary to advanced students. [Method: a word is presented in phonetic transcription, and comments are elicited from students in the form of definitions and descriptions.] This is more a testing than a teaching device, although students will learn new words in contrast, which provides a kind of context. The advantages of the method include improved pronunciation and spelling, stimulation of oral discussion, increased command of synonyms and antonyms, improved appreciation of puns; contrast helps the student to keep meanings separate. [Appendix: list of about 500 homophones for use in teaching.]

LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES See also abstracts 75–71, –73.

- 75–60 Coutts, Jennifer.** Industrial language training. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), **12**, 1 (1974), 11–21 and 27.

The design and teaching of an English-language course for airline and airport personnel is described. The three-week intensive course aimed to give adequate training in spoken language for the job requirements of staff in personal contact with passengers. The compilation of suitable vocabulary and topics and the structuring of teaching materials is described [examples]. Teaching techniques included laboratory drills, the role-playing of work situations, and continuous assessment on an individualised basis. Pre- and post-course questionnaires evaluated the appropriateness and usefulness of the training. The course was later adapted for French and German.

- 75–61 Garrard, D. R.** Language teaching in Europe. *Modern Languages* (London), **55**, 3 (1974), 131–7.

The demand for foreign-language courses in industry and commerce in Europe were found to arise from: (1) the needs of immigrant workers, (2) the need for

a high level of competence in one or more foreign languages by secretaries and administrators, and (3) the need for businessmen to be able to converse on everyday topics (the most important need). Ways in which these needs are met are briefly described. Teaching methods used were mainly traditional, with little use of audio-visual equipment [reasons for this are suggested]. Firms should decide exactly what their language needs are; a specially designed intensive course will be the most effective method. Most European countries now aim mainly for oral ability. [Methods used in different countries are described.]

75-62 Widdowson, H. G. Literary and scientific uses of English. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 4 (1974), 282-92.

Suggests ways of looking at how language functions in scientific and technical communication that might aid teachers whose background is literary but who are required to teach English for scientific and technical purposes. It is argued that the concept of distinct varieties is not helpful: both science and literature should be seen as the use of language to communicate something which lies beneath the surface of apparent reality as it is reflected in ordinary language use and which therefore requires particular creative uses of the language code. This is demonstrated with regard to the use of the grammatical system of person: science depersonalises and literature personifies.

READING

75-63 Lawrence, Denis and Blagg, Nigel. Improved reading through self-initiated learning and counselling. *Remedial Education* (London), **9**, 2 (1974), 61-3.

A study was carried out at a junior school to verify whether remedial reading which was close to previous failure situations would further damage a child's self-esteem. In the study, the reading which followed the counselling was therefore removed from previous failure situations by means of the Blagg Games Project (BGP). This reading scheme is aimed at primary-school readers with a reading age of 5-8 years, and involves a graded series of highly flexible reading games, largely self-checking to eliminate supervision by teachers. The child can initiate his own learning. It was found that children who received individual non-professional counselling and then took part in the BGP showed statistically significant gains in their reading ages, averaging ten months in a four-month period [details]. Implications for the teacher are summarised: (1) the importance of improving a child's self-esteem, (2) modern flexible methods are as necessary for remedial teaching as for the normal classroom situation, and (3) the use of non-professionals for individual counselling can be effective and economic.

- 75-64 **Marwit, Samuel J. and Neumann, Gail.** Black and white children's comprehension of standard and non-standard English passages. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), 66, 3 (1974), 329-32.

Two black and two white examiners administered standard English and non-standard English forms of the Reading Comprehension section of the California Reading Test to 60 black and 53 white second-graders. The hypotheses that black subjects comprehend non-standard English materials better than those in standard English and that white subjects comprehend standard English materials better than those in non-standard English were not supported. Within each form, white subjects generally obtained higher scores than black subjects, and within each race, standard English presentations generally resulted in higher scores than non-standard English presentations. Black subjects performed as well as white subjects under the white examiner-standard English condition only. Results are discussed in relation to other studies of the linguistic interference hypothesis.

- 75-65 **Stille, Oswald.** Zur Didaktik und Methode des sinnfassenden Lesens im Englischunterricht. [Thoughts on the theory and method involved in reading for sense and content as part of the teaching of English.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), 27, 2 (1974), 82-90.

Reading for understanding, an educational task in its own right, is rewarding and easy to develop after school; it gives feed-back to spoken language and is not limited by a prescribed tempo. Print supports spoken language but there is the risk of L1/L2 interference. Spoken language involves mime, gesture and many inter-personal reactions, whereas printed language, the vehicle of factual communication and literature and the bearer of a national-representation function, is conceptual and rational. It is not just a skill in the 'hear-speak-read-write' series, but establishes a language norm.

The aim should be silent reading with immediate comprehension, based on a co-ordinated language system (L1 and L2), but this must be achieved via subvocal articulation (silent speech). Texts should be within the pupils' ability range, and should also be interesting and assimilable. Tests show that supplementary reading can give 20 per cent increase in reading fluency [details]. So far, it is stated, only two teaching courses show an appreciation of the problem. Whitehall's work on word groups and Allen's on structures might stimulate work on the development of reading for comprehension as a skill. Twelve lines of approach to the problem are indicated.

COMPREHENSION

- 75-66 **Bowen, J. Donald.** 'Lecturettes' for mature learners. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), 12, 1 (1974), 8-15.

The simplified activities allowed by the limited linguistic competence of adult intermediate students often conflicts with their more mature interests. A workshop organised at the American University in Cairo for mid-career Egyptian civil servants found that six projects helped to produce challenging and effective teaching: lectures, case studies, audio-visual materials, reading, concept development and 'lecturettes' (a modified comprehension/dictation technique) and the latter activity is described in detail. Short comprehension exercises were prepared and recorded for particular groups' interests in both full and simplified form, in two delivery speeds, regular and deliberate. The student thereby proceeds through increasingly difficult material, by means of a cloze-format exercise of gap-filling, and the faster version, with different gaps, follows the slower [details]. The advantages of the method included the development of a pattern of integrative skills, with oral comprehension being built up by analysis and prediction. [Suggestions for class application]. [Sample material on marketing with suggestions for teaching and analysis of students' answers.]

- 75-67 **Hughes, Glyn.** Aspects of listening comprehension. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), 12, 2 (1974), 75-9.

The distinction between receptive and reflective listening should be utilised in the construction of listening comprehension exercises for foreign-language learners. Ways of training these skills simultaneously in language-laboratory exercises are suggested: (1) (a) predictive listening - a fragment of taped conversation from which the student has to predict the continuation, choosing from three possible answers, and (b) retrospective listening - piecing together lexical clues so as to identify the topic of conversation; (2) redundancy listening - a more complex version of instruction-following exercises, in which the student must sift irrelevancies and re-order deliberately disordered chronology, followed by taped lectures with repetitions, rephrasing, etc.; (3) construction listening - reconstruction of jumbled parts of a short story; (4) inferential listening - listening 'between the lines' and training an awareness of irony. [Examples.] These four different types of listening comprehension need to be trained simultaneously as much as possible. They overlap to a certain extent: predictive listening involves inference making, construction listening requires predictive and retrospective skills. The kind of training described is closer to genuine listening activity than teaching receptive skills alone. [References.]

TELEVISION *See abstracts 75-48, -56*

IMMIGRANTS *See abstracts 75-44, -50*

ENGLISH *See also abstracts 75-12, -31, -41, -47, -50, -52/5, -59/60, -62, -64/7*

75-68 **Hruška, Jiří.** Syntactic as well as semantic properties of prepositions in English as compared with those in Czech (with special reference to the problems of interference in teaching English to Czech students). *Metodická sdělení k vyučování cizím jazykům* (Olomouc, Czechoslovakia), 3 (1973), 1-27.

Prepositions occur more often in English adverbials than in Czech, which also uses other grammatical means, such as case endings. [Comparisons of Czech and English adverbials of time, place, cause or reason, purpose, manner, respect, condition and concession.] Grammatical relations expressed by the Czech genitive and dative are expressed in English by grammaticised prepositions (e.g. *of* and *to*). Grammaticised *for* is often paralleled in Czech by a hypotactic clause introduced by a conjunction. Czech subordinate clauses introduced by conjunctions are often equivalent to English gerundial and participial structures introduced by prepositions. Whereas Czech prepositions are used in object and adverbial complements of the verbal predicate, and in apposition and attribution, English prepositions are important in expressing the predicate, and grammaticised *of* is used to complement the nominal part of the predicate. Czech prefers active predication to passive, for which English has *by*. English makes great use of prepositions in active predication, especially with semantically weak verbs such as *be*. English prefers personal constructions, without prepositional phrases, to impersonal ones, which are commoner in Czech and often include prepositions. English prepositions are more closely connected with verbal elements, and Czech with nominal. Czech emphasises the parallelism of the co-ordinate elements of the sentence by repeating the preposition and using inflections. [The ways in which Czech and English prepositions originate are listed.] English prepositions, important linking elements in the sentence, are less distinct from other word categories in English than in Czech. [Examples throughout and brief comments on application to methods of teaching English to Czechs.]

- 75-69 **Trocmé, Hélène.** Les difficultés phonétiques des Français qui apprennent l'anglais. [Difficulties of pronunciation experienced by French learners of English.] *IUT Bulletin Pédagogique* (Paris), 30 (1974), *Langues Vivantes* 19, 28-35.

Without effective oral articulation a speaker's message, though perfectly sensible and grammatically accurate, remains meaningless. The learner must mentally register the sounds which the speaker makes (not what his francophone ears might mistakenly assume to be the sounds). French and English differ in almost every detail of rhythm, intonation, consonant quality and vowel formation. A listener perceives the semantic content of an English remark through all aspects of phonation, including stress and intonation. [Contrasts between French and English sound frequency patterns, laryngeal variations, mouth 'tension', modulation (French over scarcely an octave, English over more than two octaves), tone, stress, proportions of open syllables (French: 69 per cent; English: 31 per cent); frequency of consonants and consonant phonation patterns; nature of glides and diphthongs. Training procedures.] Contrasts between French and English breathing patterns need further investigation before students can be given authoritative guidance. The teacher who is informed about the many interference patterns has many resources but a delicate and complex task to perform.

FRENCH

- 75-70 **Debyser, F.** Simulation et réalité dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes (fin). [Simulation and reality in the teaching of modern languages.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 106 (1974), 16-19.

[Two previous articles are abstracted in *LTA* 7, 4, nos. 261-2].

The teacher reviews social situations which constrain people to use the linguistic structure he wants to introduce and practise; for example, giving instructions or advice is more likely to call for *falloir* and *devoir*; expressing opinions and feelings gives scope to use *que* clauses with a subjunctive; relating personal experiences to the *passé composé* and *imparfait*. [Examples of situations: (a) inappropriate; (b) potentially exploitable.] Detailed notes for simulations of four situations to teach and practice the subjunctive include: a street accident; a delayed journey; an unexpected departure abroad; a prospective wedding. Using the present indicative, say, the teacher sketches the barest outline of an event and asks the class what actions might ensue. He takes one of their suggestions and turns it into a statement of what ought to be done – thus introducing an example of the subjunctive, the form on which he wants to concentrate. He encourages the class to suggest other obligations, correcting their attempts as they go along. The follow-up assumes further practice in comparable imagined

situations, to exploit other verbs; some formal rationalisation of the linguistic pattern; and the gradual assumption by members of the class of roles in the imagined events, in order to practise different persons of the verb.

75-71 Herblin, Philippe. Une expérience d'enseignement du français scientifique. [An experiment in the teaching of scientific French.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **106** (1974), 20-4.

The course was designed for Venezuelan scientists who were to attend university science and engineering courses in France. *Voix et Images de France* (VIF) was used to teach *le français fondamental* (FF). As students reached the writing stage in VIF a specially compiled course of basic scientific reasoning in French was introduced in parallel; roughly two hours to every ten hours of VIF. The course was compiled with the help of science lecturers to provide a common core of discourse in mathematics, physics and chemistry, capable of handling essential scientific concepts and logical operations. Technology was avoided. The four stages of progression were FF1; FF2 plus common core; FF2 plus common core slightly biased to special interests; further specialisation but still simplified. Each chapter of the common core contained: a text illustrative of new vocabulary and structures; a transcription into international phonetic symbols of the new items; illustrative passages of authentic French which use the vocabulary of the chapter for comprehension, re-employment and exploitation; structural exercises; conversation; readings. Students were offered scientific problems and encouraged to reason aloud the solutions. [Annexes: titles of chapters of the common core; extracts from chapter one.]

75-72 Schmidt-Radefeldt, Jürgen. Fremdsprachenunterricht, Dialoggrammatik und Sprecherwechselregeln des Französischen. [Foreign language teaching, the grammar of dialogue and the rules governing alternation of speaker in French.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), **18** (1974), 98-109.

The modern-language teacher should analyse those rules of conversation which are influenced by the situation of the speakers. In the teaching of French, pattern practice of the question-answer form has developed into the 'microconversation', in which phonetic, syntactic-semantic and pragmatic levels can be distinguished. On this last level the use of situation-orientated words (pronouns, demonstratives, etc.) is especially important.

The scope of reference of first and second personal pronouns in direct address is examined in the light of an example from French. By indexing each occurrence of a pronoun (*a*) (*b*) ($x_1 \dots x_n$), etc., it is possible to show precisely to

whom it refers and to set up general transformational rules which govern all changes of speaker in a given language and which could be built into a system of generative grammar. These rules can be made to take account of such situational factors as inequality between speakers, tactical aims, etc., and could be applied also to the analysis of whole literary texts. The difference in usage of first and second person pronouns in different languages is comparatively slight. In language teaching, pupils might therefore be expected to gain insight not only into the largest language but also into their mother tongue. [Example and tables.]

GERMAN See also abstracts 75–21, –43

75–73 Butler, Christopher S. A technique for sentence structure analysis as an aid to comprehension and translation of German chemistry texts. *ITL* (Louvain), 21 (1973), 11–19.

Nottingham University has developed a reading comprehension and translation course in scientific German for undergraduate chemists. In order to avoid word by word translation of complex German sentences, the researchers aimed to provide the student with a reliable procedure which would enable him to split up sentences into groups of syntactically related words and help him to grasp the relationships between them. The greatest difficulty lay in the heavily loaded complex modifications of the nominal group. To overcome this a bracketing technique was developed. Initially the sentence was divided into clauses by vertical bars, then the complete verb unit in each clause was underlined. After the main prepositions had been identified the group of words from each preposition to the next noun was enclosed in square brackets. Any remaining nouns or pronouns, together with related articles or adjectives, were then enclosed in round brackets. In sentences containing extended adjectival phrases, the embedding of one set of brackets inside another was found to be a useful pointer to the unattached article. Although the bracketing technique is far from faultless, it helps the naïve linguistic beginner considerably with the complexities of German syntax. Its use might be extended to texts in other registers or possibly in other languages. [Many examples. Bibliography.]

75–74 Moore, Merriam M. Interdisciplinary German-language cultural units. *Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, PA), 7, 1 (1974), 107–18.

The interdisciplinary advanced German language mini-courses used at Ridgefield High School, Connecticut, are described in detail. All activities were conducted in German. Forty-nine themes are listed ranging from German news items, customs, cookery, stamps, films, to art, music, politics, science and

education. Under each heading the resource materials used are listed together with suggested activities for the pupils. Each mini-course is essentially participatory. The pupils are encouraged to read relevant books and periodicals for themselves and to send abroad for material. They then compose class lectures, dramatise events, make scrapbooks, post items on the notice-boards, etc. The facilities of the school are used to the maximum. German cookery lessons take place in the home economics room, and the laboratories are used for environmental and scientific projects. Some activities fill an entire school period, while others can be done as group or individual projects. Units may often be taught by student teachers.

75-75 Simons, J. W. K. Aspekte des Gruppenunterrichts in einem Sprachlehrraum. [Aspects of group teaching in a language room.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **306** (1974), 267-73.

Classroom methods used with Dutch learners of German, whose final aim was the *abitur*, are described. Out of four periods a week, one was devoted entirely to literature. For the other three periods, the class was divided into small groups of not more than four, and the membership of the groups was continually varied. Some groups worked on recorded schools' broadcasts, others on extracts from the magazine *Scala*. Pupils then produced taped or written summaries, which were corrected by the teacher and discussed with the pupils; this discussion was taped on cassette, so that the pupil could work on it at home. Written exercises and tests were prepared, based on taped broadcasts. In this way grammatical learning was always meaningful and fully integrated into the class work. [Plan of classroom lay-out and details of suggested group work.] [Discussion on various points arising from the paper: (a) clarification of the demands of the Dutch *abitur*; (b) the balance of oral fluency and correction of mistakes; (c) the nature of the grammatical explanations given to the pupil; (d)/(e) nature and evaluation of drills and tests; (f) voluntary homework.]

SPANISH See also abstracts 75-12, -40, -58

75-76 Ezquerra, Raimundo. Los diccionarios de frecuencia en español. [Frequency dictionaries in Spanish.] *Boletín de la Asociación Europea de Profesores de Español* (Madrid), **6**, 10 (1974), 3-27.

Spanish frequency dictionaries are examined for their usefulness as teaching aids. The historical development of the nature of their corpora is traced, from the early emphasis on size to the later statistically based approaches. The problem of the proper statistical evaluation of unusual words is discussed. Positive attributes of the various dictionaries include: geographical diversity in the origins of

the chosen texts; their homogeneity in time; spoken and non-literary bases including the results of association tests; distinction between active and passive vocabulary, and the concept of *mots disponibles*. The nature of the various counts is studied, and also the rationale behind ad hoc exclusions and grouping under headwords, where linguistic and pedagogical aims may clash. Preference is given to those counts where each morphologically distinct form is counted separately, and those which treat neologisms as functioning forms of the language. The problem of deciding between range and frequency (or both) as the basis for evaluating the occurrence of forms is discussed. All dictionaries agree in having semantically weak words in the high frequencies, and differences between them occur in the mid and lower frequencies. Any such teaching aid requires frequent updating, particularly in the noun section (especially among the *mots disponibles*). The list which best suits a pedagogical practical criterion is the *Lista alfabética* which accompanies *Vida y diálogos de España*. [Extensive comparison of results from various dictionaries. Notes.]

RUSSIAN See abstracts 75–38, –51