

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES *See also abstracts 74-152/3*

74-175 Platt, Heidi. Case theory and its application to language teaching. *ITL* (Leuven), **15** (1972), 31-45.

An attempt is made to justify a role for case theory in foreign-language teaching and in a generative system of foreign-language acquisition. The possibility of its playing this role is considered in relation to language universals and the development and consistency of the proposed model. Fillmore's move from an original model (Case Theory+Aspects Model) to a second model (Case Theory+Predicate Calculus) is noted. Both models are considered in relation to three phases of language acquisition – (1) an elementary syntactic-semantic phase, (2) a phase in which semantic concepts are developed, and (3) a stylistic phase in which semantic concepts are evaluated. In the first phase the value of case-frames is considered as an aid to developing verbal concepts in the target language and for contrasting verbal concepts within and between languages. In the second phase the system of lexical classification developed by Fillmore in his second model is advanced as having value for the way in which it combines detailed syntactic information with case-frames and presuppositions. In the third phase a hierarchy of subject selection is discussed in relation to forms and thematic prominence. [References.]

74-176 Read, Charles. Children's judgements of phonetic similarities in relation to English spelling. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **23**, 1 (1973), 17-38.

In an investigation of the assumption that children judge sound similarities in the same manner as adults, a study was made of the salience of particular vocalic and consonantal features in judgements of phonetic similarities by children in class from kindergarten to

grade 2, and by adults. [The background to the research, some invented spellings of children, is described.] The task required a judgement as to which of two real words 'sounded more like' a third, nonce, word [methods described]. A modified design was used with younger children. The results indicate that children can make consistent overt judgements of sound similarity and that their judgements differ from those of adults (e.g the sound [tr] as in *trick* and *truck*, sounded closer to /č/ than to /t/ to some first-grade pupils, whereas older pupils and adults categorised [tr] as closer to /t/, presumably because of the influence of the spelling system). Theoretical and pedagogical implications are discussed. [Tables of results; references.]

74-177 Sampson, Gloria P. and Richards, Jack. Learner language systems. *Language Sciences* (Bloomington, Ind), **26** (1973), 18-25.

Second-language acquisition can be viewed in terms of the learner's construction of approximative systems of semantic, grammatical, phonological and usage rules. These systems are characterised by seven factors: first-language interference; intra-lingual interference; sociolinguistic settings; the modality of exposure; the age of the learner; the relative autonomy of the approximative systems from native and target languages; possible universal hierarchies of difficulty in the acquisition of syntax and phonology. Closer investigation of these systems might benefit general linguistic theory as well as teaching methodology. [References.]

PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

74-178 Kee, Daniel W. and Rohwer, William D., Jr. Noun-pair learning in four ethnic groups. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **65**, 2 (1973), 226-32.

Noun-pair learning efficiency was assessed within four ethnic groups of low socio-economic status (black, Chinese-American, Spanish-

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American, and white) as a function of presentation conditions and of method of measurement (verbal recall vs. pictorial recognition). A mixed-list paired-associate task was administered individually to 40 second-grade children from each group. The results revealed substantial effects for presentation conditions but not for ethnic groups. In addition, similar patterns of presentation condition effects emerged across response modes for all ethnic groups. The results were taken as evidence of the generality of presentation condition effects in noun-pair learning and as an empirical demonstration of parity in learning ability for children from different ethnic backgrounds. [Tables; references.]

74-179 Matragos, Georg. Sprachpsychologische Probleme bei Ausländern. [Psychological problems of foreigners in language learning.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 9 (1973), 467-73.

The language problem of the foreigner living abroad is not solely one of comprehension. Personal factors such as inadequate schooling, the ability to learn languages, and sex of the learner, affect the problem. Even if L2 is thoroughly learnt, there remains the problem of thinking in it; the regression principle shows how firmly rooted we are in L1. An adult can be geographically but not linguistically at home in a foreign country; this is less likely with children and young people, whose imitative impulse is more effective, especially at about ten years of age. The thought pattern and culture of L1 dominates the adult, particularly when spontaneity in L2 is called for or when emotions are involved. Partial or complete bilingualism can lead to a split personality; certainly too-early bilingualism is a hindrance to language development in the child. The foreigner living abroad has to reconcile (whether consciously or unconsciously) two languages and cultures.

ERROR ANALYSIS

74-180 Haggis, B. Murray. Un cas de trilinguisme. [A case of trilinguism.] *Linguistique* (Paris), 9, 2 (1973), 37-50.

The study forms part of a projected survey of language influences in West Africa. Priority was given to classifying errors of French pronunciation rather than making a full and scientific contrastive analysis, in order to speed the publication of a regional teacher's manual. The study involved 160 informants from Ghana whose base language is Ashanti Twi, the most widespread dialect of Akan. [Details of age, sex, secondary education.] Despite differences in the number of African languages, types of French teacher and informants' knowledge of French, types of pronunciation error do not vary. The corpus recorded was open; the intention being to use the results to compile a questionnaire which would elicit more detailed information. Each informant recorded five to ten minutes of French, five minutes of English to verify interference on French, and one minute of Twi, in case further information about the subject's speech was needed. Vowels and consonants were logged on separate sheets in a narrow transcription and deviations were transcribed complete with their context. Thus the total of variants could be compared with the norm.

Many regular variations are attributable to interference of Twi and of English. Others derive from effects of graphic interference and from assimilation of neighbouring segments. Pronunciation of English in terms of degree of departure from the norm is less good than that of French; partly because of less effective initial teaching, partly because of the influence of pidgins in daily use, but mainly because final consonantal clusters are more common in English than in French and difficult for speakers of Twi. [Detailed examination of each vowel and consonant departure from the norm, and of cross-interferences from written French and from written and spoken English and Twi.] Twi speakers probably have more difficulty in being understood in English and French because of non-standard intonation patterns than because of faulty articulation. [Specimen questionnaire.]

- 74-181 Nas, G. L. J.** Een vergelijkend onderzoek naar de beoordeling van taalfouten bij Frans, Duits en Engels. [A comparative study of error evaluation in French, German and English.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **304** (1974), 19-33.

This study was undertaken by the Utrecht Institute of Applied Linguistics to clarify the problem of teachers' assessment of errors in written work in modern-language classes in Dutch secondary schools. A number of sentences (115 French, 115 German and 120 English), each containing only one error, were taken from examination scripts written in various secondary schools, and the errors were classified into categories. The sentences were then presented in random order to teachers of French, German and English from some 40 schools, who were asked to indicate the relative mark they would have deducted for each error (e.g. 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$ or 0) if they had found it in a final examination. Each teacher's marks were then added up and the resulting 'scores' compared. The results showed wide fluctuations: in one case the highest score was 105 and the lowest 35, out of a possible 115. There was no correlation between score fluctuations and such variables as type of school, category of error, or teaching experience. [The faulty sentences are listed by categories in an appendix.]

- 74-182 Zydatiņ, Wolfgang.** Fehler in der Englischen Satzgliedfolge. [Errors in English word order.] *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **11**, 4 (1973), 319-55.

The data for this analysis of errors in English word order is drawn from copying and free compositions written by 16-year-old German *Gymnasiasten*. Errors derive both from the violation of basic grammatical rules of English and from the learners' attempts to transpose their L1 competence into L2 performance. In their efforts at more sophisticated discourse the strategies they adopt to convey their individual ideas often fail to achieve the desired effect. The learners should be provided with meaningful insights into their errors and with the means to correct them. Such explanatory requirements

are unlikely to be met either by a context-free surface grammar or a context-free TG grammar. Instead, notions like 'communicative value', 'theme:rheme', 'given:new', 'disjunction:conjunction', would seem to provide more explanatory value. A provisional taxonomic analysis of errors in word order is set up.

A pedagogic grammar has to promote both inductive and deductive learning: both habit-formation (e.g. through drills) and theoretical explanations (e.g. through exercises requiring insight and understanding) will be necessary. To learn word order pupils should be given a crash course in functional grammar. Contrastive analysis will show them how certain principles of word order work in their L₁ and why L₁ transfer can lead to errors in L₂. A few examples for remedial exercises are proposed, covering certain aspects of German and English word order. [References.]

TESTING

74-183 Denham, Patricia A. Design and three-item paradigms. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), 28, 2 (1974), 138-45.

An investigation was undertaken to find out whether paradigm design in language testing influences the performance of advanced learners of English as a foreign language. The subjects were 120 students at the University of Papua and New Guinea who had been learning English for about 11 years and were fluent in it, and who had many different mother tongues. The investigation was limited to study of their perception of sounds; the test material consisted of vowels in CVC syllables. Five different designs of a three-item paradigm were used [details of procedure for tests and for pre-tests with Australian speakers].

[Detailed analysis of results.] Results showed that the design in which the second and third items were identical was found to be the easiest, followed by designs in which the first and second items and the first and third items were the same. Most difficulty was apparent when all three items were either the same or different. Both

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paradigm content and paradigm design are important in determining the difficulty of such a test. There was difficulty which depended on the nature of the vowel contrasts. Perception is also partly dependent on probability of occurrence. The patterning of difficulty was not determined by the students' mother tongues. [Bibliography.]

74-184 Feltkamp, H. W. Kwantificatie van tekstbegrip. [Quantification of comprehension skills.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **304** (1974), 34-50.

An analysis is made of German comprehension questions taken from official examination papers at late secondary level. Some weaknesses of multiple-choice comprehension questions are noted. Twelve specific proposals (seven aimed at the Central Institute for Test Development and five at teachers) are given.

74-185 Oller, John W. Cloze tests of second language proficiency and what they measure. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **23**, 1 (1973), 105-18.

Cloze tests have been used for many different purposes. They are good indicators of reading comprehension and of the readability of prose. But until recently almost all the research on cloze tests used native speakers of a language and almost all the studies were in English. Among problems not investigated with non-native speakers are those of the distance between blanks and of the grammatical function of deleted words. Multiple word deletion and the mode of presentation have been insufficiently studied with both native and non-native speakers. With non-native speakers the scoring method which counts only exact word-replacements as correct is inferior to a method which allows contextually acceptable responses. Similar information is obtained from cloze tests of various levels of difficulty; cloze procedure can be used to diagnose grammatical problems; translating a cloze passage from one language to another produces tests of equal difficulty for native speakers of the two

languages and the responses of native speakers differ in kind as well as degree from those of native speakers.

Cloze tests of second-language proficiency are internally consistent, reliable, valid, and easily constructed, administered and standardised. Inter-scorer reliability needs to be investigated. Language skill cannot be separated from knowledge. Cloze tests measure a grammar of expectancy. In taking such a test a student makes an analysis of the information provided and synthesises a greater whole, which then helps with further analysis and synthesis. This is also what happens in speaking or writing. Cloze tests of second-language proficiency correlate best with measures of listening comprehension. The views of Upshur and Spolsky are compared on the effect of the time factor on verbal processing. Any kind of language processing imposes time constraints. Memory constraints are one aspect of second-language speaking competence.

74-186 Sturm, J. J., de Vries, J. H. L. and Wesdorp, H. Avies-nota m.b.t. de beoordeling van het examen opsel mavo/havo/vwo. [Recommendations concerning the assessment of compositions in secondary school examinations in the Netherlands.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **304** (1974), 64-70.

The so-called 'second correction' of compositions in secondary school examinations in the Netherlands has been abandoned. This reduces the quality of the assessment of this part of the examination. The three authors, representing a committee which was asked for advice on this subject, make proposals for global assessment by teams of two teachers in 1974, and call for a small-scale experiment in the use of a second correction by a central examinations bureau [details of proposals and recommendations]. [Different marking schemes are given in the appendices.]

- 74-187** **Wesdorp, H.** Het toetsen van de schrijfvaardigheid in het Engels op het schoolonderzoek M.A.V.O. – H.A.V.O. – V.W.O. [The testing of English writing skills in Dutch secondary schools.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **304** (1974), 1-19.

The main problem is how to define writing skills more precisely, and how to test them reliably and validly in schools. The definition of writing skills is taken from De Vries: 'the ability to express oneself in writing, in simple but correct language, on general, non-specialised subjects'. Although examination results can be crucial for the individual, teachers frequently misunderstand the concepts of reliability and validity. Three types of test can be distinguished: (1) the direct method, including composition scales, the analytic schema and the global method using one or more assessors; (2) semi-objective methods, including the interlinear exercise and the Peellandt College blank-filling system; (3) objective methods, including the integrated approach (e.g. the STEP writing test of Educational Testing Service and the Tests of Academic Progress by Scannel *et al.*) and the sub-skills approach (e.g. the American Entrance Examination Board test, the SRA Writing Skills Test, the Freyman Content Evaluation Series, the Missouri College English Test, the Test of English Usage of the California Test Bureau, the English Expression Test of the Educational Testing Service, and the College English Placement [test]). [These different types of test are commented on, with illustrations.] [Bibliography.]

SYLLABUS DESIGN *See also abstract 74-126*

- 74-188** **Hayes, Herbert.** Writing a modern language syllabus. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **2** (1973), 105-24.

Until recently, modern languages syllabuses have been almost non-existent, past examination papers being the main guide for teachers. It would be inappropriately prescriptive to produce a 'complete' language syllabus, but certain areas of content should be defined and

circumscribed. The main difficulties in writing such a syllabus would be the infinite dimensions of language itself and the problem of ordering the presentation of material. The most complete modern-language content syllabus produced to date in Britain is that created for the Special 'O' Level examinations in French associated with the Schools Council Modern Languages Project [extract and discussion of aims and accompanying structure and vocabulary lists]. This syllabus is unique in being created by those who produced the course, which all candidates for the exam will have used – this is the ideal situation.

The alternative is the syllabus written for an already established examination, as in the case of the French content syllabus being written in Scotland, where a Syllabus Sub-Committee was set up to modify the existing examinations. The Committee found that the most essential and feasible activity was the writing of a grammar content list, based on the structure list in the SCMLP syllabus [extracts, with explanation of aims and methods]. The structure list was generally agreed to be useful, with the following reservations: (1) it should refer only to writing and reading skills, (2) it must not be used short-sightedly by teachers, and (3) it must not, by reason of being a grammar list, reinforce traditional grammar/translation methods. The language syllabus must be part of a co-operative undertaking, involving curriculum planners, examiners and policy makers taking a long-term view of evolving a satisfactory modern languages curriculum.

74-189 Wilkins, David. Grammatical, situational and notional syllabuses. *ELT Documents* (London), 6 (1973), 2-9.

Most textbooks have as their basis a grammatical syllabus, whatever the methodology used: the language is divided up according to grammatical categories. Apart from reducing pupils' motivation, this method is inefficient – different learners will have use for different parts of the syllabus, but rarely for the whole – and artificial, since in real communication, meaning rather than structure determines

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co-occurrence of sentences. An alternative approach is the situational syllabus. Language is seen as occurring in a social context, and people concentrate on learning the forms which are most appropriate to their needs: it is thus learner-based rather than subject-based. Learning units are identified by situational labels instead of grammatical labels, and the language will be heterogeneous, not uniform. [Problem of defining a 'situation'.] Linguistic content should accord with the semantic demands of the learner. First should come consideration of the content of probable utterances, then which forms of language will be most valuable: the result will be a 'semantic' or 'notional syllabus'.

Notional categories are proposed towards the construction of such a syllabus. [The context of these categories is 'continuing education' for adults in Western Europe: it is hoped to devise sets of units to enable adults to acquire a European language for a specialised purpose: this particular syllabus relates to the acquisition of a certain minimum level of communicative ability; later units will be more situationally oriented.] The notional categories are (a) 'semantico-grammatical' (time, quantity, space, matter, case and deixis), and (b) categories of communicative function (modality, moral evaluation and discipline, suasion, argument, rational enquiry and exposition, personal emotions, emotional relations, and interpersonal relationships). [Each of the categories is further sub-categorised, and explanation is given of what is included under 'time relations', 'case', 'suasion' and 'modality'.] It is stressed that although these categories are basic to language use, they form only a very small part of either the grammatical or situational content of language courses. The notional approach is valuable in forcing consideration of the communicative value of what is taught, and in assessing learning priorities. [References.]

TEACHING METHODS

74-190 Anderman, G. M. The teaching of English within the comprehensive school system in Sweden. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **28**, 2 (1974), 150-9.

The aim in Sweden is to create bilingualism in English and Swedish. The modern language methodology is illustrated here by the teaching of English. English is compulsory for all pupils from the third grade of the nine-year comprehensive school (the comprehensive system was introduced throughout Sweden in the 1960s). The pupils remain in heterogeneous classes until the seventh grade when an additional foreign language can be started. At this stage, a choice must be made between a 'special' course and a (slower) 'general' course in English. Guidelines for the teaching of English are laid down in a handbook issued by the Board of Education [details]. The cornerstones of modern-language teaching in Sweden are: motivation (international competition); learner participation; concrete teaching (i.e. with aids); individualised teaching and inter-student co-operation. [Various courses are available at senior secondary (post-comprehensive) level: details.]

74-191 Kern, Peter C. Linguistisch-didaktische Gedanken zum Sprachunterricht Gehörloser. [The linguistic and didactic aspects of teaching language to the totally deaf.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Munich), **4** (1973), 45-64.

As the ability of the totally deaf to communicate by utterance is limited for lack of a personal control mechanism, they must rely on the visual and tactile. Spontaneous acquisition of language and abstract ideas or categories are not possible. The social use of language as communication is more important than the transmission of information. It is the application of language, not language *per se*, which controls environment; the deaf child is restricted to those parts of language necessary and usable for communicative action. The aim must be, not a compensatory education, but the activation of whatever is available to make a full member of society.

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Speech for the deaf is only a secondary system, bereft of spontaneity, and to insist on speech above all else affects pleasure in communication. The teaching of articulation should continue, concentrating on stereotype expressions necessary for conventional social contact, but writing should be regarded as the more important means of communicating information. There will also be communication by gesture but not so as to replace language. Teaching should reflect normal social situations, using words which answer the concrete needs of the age-group. In learning to read, the deaf child has to learn each word for itself. Classification by sound parallels is denied him, as is any spectrum of meaning; hence his difficulty with synonyms and words expressing relationships (e.g. adverbs). Irregularities in morphology and syntax could be accounted for by sensible use of T.G. grammar. Over-emphasis on accurate speech should be replaced by concentration on nominative, infinitive and positive forms and on simple plurals.

CLASS METHODS

74-192 Beattie, Nicholas. Teaching dictionary use. *Modern Languages* (London), 54, 4 (1973), 161-6.

Many questions relating to the use of dictionaries in foreign-language teaching and learning are closely bound up with the overall course objectives. Some teachers have felt that the availability of dictionaries inhibits rapid and confident comprehension and composition, but, properly used, they can help the learner to be more independent. The problem is to prevent him from transferring his dependence from the teacher to the dictionary. This can be done by not presenting excessively difficult materials and by encouraging the ability to guess at meanings instead of, or before, looking words up. Monolingual dictionaries and lists are recommended.

Three main phases of dictionary use are advocated. (1) *Preliminary phase* (covering the first two or three years of a five-year course): it is best to defer the use of dictionaries or word-lists until the pupil has a sound basis of lexical and syntactical knowledge to guide him.

Monolingual notebooks might replace bilingual vocabulary notebooks. (2) *Phase of controlled use* (probably O level year): monolingual dictionaries are used for private reading, and in other clearly defined activities, e.g. translation into English. Bilingual dictionaries are introduced in connection with translation into the foreign language. (3) *Phase of free use*: this is the teacher's aim. Pupils should be introduced to specialist dictionaries in the school library. [Discussion of practical problems, including bilingual glossaries in textbooks, use of dictionaries with the lower ability range, and the choice of dictionaries for each phase described above with brief descriptions of about eight French dictionaries.]

VOCABULARY

74-193 **Lübke, Diethard.** Die Reihenfolge der Lernschritte beim Vokabelerklären. [The sequence of learning steps in relation to the explanation of vocabulary.] *Fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart), 7, 4 (1973), 55-63.

Two experiments with pupils learning French show apparently contradictory results. The first, involving vocabulary learning by demonstration of objects and simple questions, suggests that L₂ is learnt without the mediacy of L₁; the second dealt with vocabulary learning in L₂ through explanations in L₂. The difference is not accounted for by the use of actual objects but by the sequence of the learning steps in the two experiments. Explanation of L₂ words in L₂ is of questionable validity because it involves a reference back to L₁ before the L₂ words are understood.

The starting point in the first experiment was activation or representation of the word to be learnt; in the second, the starting point was the L₂ word which was not yet understood. In practice this means that the teacher should not begin with the L₂ word and then give an explanation, but should activate the idea of the word by deictic explanations, e.g. representative gesture or mime. L₁ will never be completely suppressed in learning L₂, but by active representation of the L₂ idea the use of L₁ in the pupil's mind can be considerably reduced.

LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES *See*
abstracts 74-207/8, -210/11, -213

READING

74-194 Kuz'menko, O. D. Система упражнений учебного чтения. [A system of exercises for reading practice.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 5 (1973), 42-53.

Reading is a process of abstracting information by means of various techniques. 'Reading practice' is a system of exercises to enable secondary school pupils ultimately to synthesise automatically the sense of a text while reading ('reading proper'), in this case in a foreign language. 'Reading practice' teaches a given aspect of 'reading proper' at each instructional stage. The external forms of reading are reading aloud (which dominates with the youngest pupils), reading to oneself (introduced to the youngest pupils, dominates with the middle group), and visual reading (introduced to the middle group, dominates with the oldest pupils). [Diagram.] Forms and techniques must not be confused.

The following exercise types were devised as a result of experimental work. (1) Grapho-phonemic exercises give training in the sound-writing relationship, from the level of grapheme via the word to the sentence [exercises]. (2) Exercises to develop the forms of reading are carried out together with the other kinds of exercises (the main kinds of exercises are: increasing the operative field of reading; intonation structure of text read aloud; reading continuous text aloud; internalisation and reduction of speech movements). (3) Structural-informational exercises train in the use of syntactic properties of the text to extract information [exercises]. (4) Semantico-informational exercises train in the informational analysis of semantic features of words, the identification of semantic 'landmarks', the determination of the communicative value of parts of the text, the establishment of its overall communicative perspective, and processing of its logical structure [exercises]. [Diagram of exercises.]

- 74-195 Pierce, Mary Eleanor.** Sentence-level expectancy as an aid to advanced reading. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **7**, 3 (1973), 269-77.

Structural expectancy was found to be useful in helping advanced EFL/ESL students to read texts prepared for native speakers. Four basic sentence patterns are identified; an analysis of sentence forms in undergraduate textbooks showed that just over half the sentences conformed to one of the four patterns, and that, for example, the main verb followed the subject directly 90.9 per cent of the time [table of relationships of sentence units]. This indicates that expectancy for normal patterns can be applied even to complex sentences. Students need to recognise the relationships between sentence parts, regardless of form or relative positioning. Ways of introducing students to the application of expectancy are suggested: (1) initial rapid reading followed by discussion of structural 'clues'; (2) analysis of some complex sentences, showing the normal pattern and relationship of parts; and (3) illustration of how the choice of subject dictates the form of the sentence [examples]. It is claimed that this method encourages students and makes advanced reading less frustrating.

SPEECH

- 74-196 Skalkin, V. L.** Сферы устноязычного общения и обучение речи. [Spheres of oral communication and the teaching of speech.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **4** (1973), 43-8.

Because of contemporary attitudes towards the teaching of modern languages, including the acceptance of psycho- and sociolinguistics as categories of communication, it was felt necessary to examine the concept of the spheres of oral communication, to enumerate them more fully and to describe some methodological recommendations connected with teaching the speech of a foreign language. Eight

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spheres of oral communication were discerned and fully analysed, and their usefulness in orally teaching particular aspects of a foreign language is emphasised. Research into the spheres of oral communication provides a series of methodological conclusions and recommendations which can be variously applied. They include the need to pre-determine the themes in any oral foreign-language course, to disclose the oral language content of selected subject matter, to supplement the themes with textual material and to select carefully the language material. Certain problems still remain concerning the provision of suitable exercises in some spheres, but it is important to keep conversational themes in contact with reality. The methodologist must first define what sphere or spheres of communication he will present to his students. Having selected the parameters, he can then begin to produce the conversational situations relevant to each of the spheres.

74-197 Vukelich, Carol and Mattias, Margaret. A language process for use with disadvantaged children. *Elementary English* (Urbana, Ill), **51**, 1 (1974), 119-24.

Some current research indicates that (1) disadvantaged children's linguistic competence is similar to that of more advantaged children; (2) the grammatical differences between the language of children in lower and middle socio-economic groups are inadequate in explaining the language problems of disadvantaged children, and (3) the crucial difference between the language of children in middle and lower socio-economic groups is that disadvantaged children make more restricted use of their linguistic system [references].

A language-teaching programme was designed as one means of providing disadvantaged children with help in expanding their use of their linguistic system, so as to break the cycle of social, educational and economic poverty. An adult helps the child to examine closely familiar and new objects and experiences. The four stages are: *label* (identify an object or experience); *describe* (discuss the object or experience); *generalise*, and *categorise* (the child is helped to find

a new label for the object or experience) [diagram]. This adult-child interaction process should encourage an active learning style: the adult questions and the child responds, and subsequent questions and responses by the adult develop from the child's verbal responses. The child is brought into the 'decision-making' process. The adult instructs rather than orders, and provides verbal rather than physical feedback. [An example of 'orienting', or directing the child's attention, is given.] The process can be applied by any verbally mature speaker [examples]. [Bibliography.]

WRITING See also abstract 74-182

74-198 **Aupècle, Maurice.** La langue française écrite en milieu étranger à l'école primaire. [Written French in primary schools abroad.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **99** (1973), 20-7.

Thirty-five variables which affect the introduction of the written language can be distinguished; the present investigation was intended to show whether the spontaneous use of written language syntactic structures was more effective when the teacher relied on the pupils to transfer such constructions unaided from the spoken language or when a separate technique of forming writing habits was used. Frequently training in writing is based on the copying of forms common to both the spoken and the written languages (which in French differ widely). But transcribing is not spontaneous writing and practice in oral syntax does not constitute a training to write. The Rouchette plan recommends that training in speaking and writing should be based on motivation to communicate in a real-life situation and a continuous and progressive teaching policy based on memorising by association and on rendering automatic the expression of ideas in adult syntactic structures; it also assumes that grammar and vocabulary will first be learnt intuitively and subsequently be studied with increasing objectivity.

An experiment was set up in which a control group learnt to copy in writing the structures which were taught by modern syste-

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matic oral methods (structured dialogues, fixation exercises, conversational usages). The experimental group was not only taught orally by this method but was given a parallel systematic training in writing. The test was devised to see what differences the groups showed in the spontaneous use of syntactic structures after a six-week programme of this kind of instruction. [Design of the tests, facsimiles of the printed components, method of selecting the sample population, teaching progression.] The experimental group showed an improvement over the control group equivalent to a year's progress in writing ability which would have been attained by following less systematically devised programmes.

74-199 Bruder, Mary Newton and Hayden, Luddy. Teaching composition: a report on a bidialectal approach. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **23**, 1 (1973), 1-15.

There are three approaches to the problem of teaching formal composition skills to those who need them and who have no command of the formal standard style of speaking: (1) the traditional approach of eradicating the child's speech patterns and replacing them by the patterns of middle-class Standard English; (2) the approach which involves teaching everyone an appreciation of differences, without trying to change anything; and (3) the bidialectal approach, which recognises that, for practical reasons, control of standard forms, as well as one's own non-standard forms, is desirable. Those who wish to obtain a university degree must have a command of formal composition style.

An experimental project was undertaken at the University of Pittsburgh to assess the degree to which a bidialectal approach could improve composition skills. [The underlying assumptions are described.] The project aimed at enabling the students to identify the features distinguishing 'standard' from 'non-standard' usage, to recognise the appropriateness of dialects to situations, to identify the features which distinguish registers (especially that of formal writing), to recognise the functional interrelationship between

registers and dialects, to write compositions in the standard dialect, and to organise and carry out a research topic in acceptable academic form. The authors outline the procedures involved, which included contrastive analysis, the discussion of dialects and registers, the making of a framework of registers for the students' own speech community, the writing and rewriting of dialogues in different registers, and the use of textbooks designed for foreign learners of English [titles given]. A study was made of Black dialect and culture. Techniques of research-paper writing were introduced early. The project was a success both from the students' and from the authors' point of view. [References.]

COMPREHENSION

- 74-200 Redonnet, Jean Claude.** Un exemple d'acquisition de la maîtrise de la compréhension orale au laboratoire des langues. Deux formes en 'ing': le participe présent et le gérondif. [An example of the acquisition of the mastery of oral comprehension in the language laboratory. Two forms in 'ing': the present participle and the gerundive.] *IUT Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy), **26** (1973), 13-21.

Research into improving oral comprehension of English was carried out by the staff of the University Institute of Technology in Toulouse, because students beginning their higher education were finding this aspect particularly difficult. Language-laboratory exercises were devised based on the type and frequency of comprehension errors made by French-speaking learners. Details are given of two particular forms which are often confused because of similarities in their written form, the present participle and the gerundive (*a sleeping child* and *a writing table*). The aim was to make students aware of the importance of stress and to show the relationship of stress and meaning. The three stages of the method are described: (1) introduction of the stressed noun or verb, (2) presentation of the whole semantic group with stressed and unstressed words clearly

differentiated, and (3) an explanatory phase with substitutions to bring out the meaning, e.g. *a sleeping child, a child that is sleeping* [table of practice patterns]. Finally, a control phase tests whether the student can identify the two groups.

[Analysis of results.] Gerundives proved more difficult for French speakers than present participles because the stress pattern is more unlike French. It was concluded that this method of laboratory practice was successful with students who had had several years' previous study of English and were not orientated to oral comprehension work.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

74-201 Abuzyarov, R. A. Возможности телевидения в повышении эффективности обучения русскому языку. [The possibilities of television in raising the effectiveness of Russian language teaching.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 5 (1973), 32-9.

Mass media provide pupils with a considerable proportion of the information they receive, and this fact can be made use of for the teaching of Russian in those parts of the Soviet Union where Russian is not the first language but is widely used as a means of communication. To this end there should be a link between class-work and the linguistic environment provided by television broadcasts in Russian. There is a correlation between the popularity of certain types of television programme and the development of related spheres of vocabulary. Also language learning is improved as a result of specialised [e.g. sporting] vocabulary being perceived and assimilated in combination with other Russian words and in Russian structures. But effectiveness is largely lost if viewing is not reinforced by a process of activation. A programme or film should be followed up by discussion of its content or of personalities involved, re-narration of episodes, and work on sentences and grammatical models, using material from the broadcast. [A model lesson used in connection with broadcasts of figure-skating competitions is given.

There are also results of experiments to show increased success in vocabulary of pupils who have taken part in language classes related to television programmes.]

74-202 **Cureau, Jean.** Le Suvag Lingua de classe: note d'expérimentation. [Notes on experiments in class with the Suvag Lingua.] *Revue de phonétique appliquée* (Mons), **27-28** (1973), 35-43.

Experiments were carried out over five years using a Suvag Lingua apparatus with French pupils of English aged from 10 to 15. The verbal-tonal method employed aids both physical and psychological reception in the pupil, and aims at the prevention rather than the correction of mistakes. [Experiments on earlier versions of the apparatus are described.] In all versions the apparatus was used with a tape-recorder and two loud-speakers. However, particular emphasis is placed on the most modern Suvag Lingua which has filters permitting the selection of various frequency bands from 20 to 5,000 Hz and has an increased output of 30 watts. The use of keys instead of a single selection switch (as in the earlier models) allows any combination of filters to be selected. [Detailed notes on uses of various combinations.] The pupil is able to concentrate his attention on certain sound frequencies rather than on meaning. He will acquire a far greater feel for the rhythm and frequency registers which are peculiar to English. This process should be well advanced before the teacher begins, in the explanatory phase, to deal with the meaning of the text.

The modern Suvag Lingua is powerful enough for 40 pupils and the author has achieved remarkable results with pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds. The Suvag Lingua cannot, naturally, eliminate all errors, but it does enable the pupil literally to 'remodel' his ear. It greatly accelerates his oral competence as the learning of the acoustic characteristics of the foreign language is genuine and lasting. [The whole of this issue deals with the Suvag Lingua.]

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LANGUAGE LABORATORIES *See also abstracts* 74-200, -206

- 74-203 Mackiewicz, Wolfgang and Mindt, Dieter.** Sprachlabor und multimedialer Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Language laboratories and multimedia language teaching.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **21**, 1 (1973), 11-18.

A brief review of earlier attempts to integrate multimedia in language teaching indicates certain inadequacies in the conventional language laboratory. Free seating and personal teacher-pupil contact are difficult and the change-over from laboratory work to other forms of teaching impracticable; yet provision of different rooms for different activities causes much disturbance and severe organisational problems. Linked visual sources often mean loss of individual tempo of work. A new central language laboratory at the Technical University of Brunswick fulfils the demands of personal contact teaching, audio, visual and linked audio-visual presentations, language-laboratory practice and free transfer from one kind of work to another. This is achieved by providing 53 connection points for 20 pupils, mobile chair/desks, audio equipment with two mobile loudspeakers and visual equipment with three screens. [Full technical details given.]

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

- 74-204 DeLorenzo, William E.** Rationale, description, and feasibility of a partially programmed foreign language methods course. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **7**, 2 (1973), 224-30.

A partially programmed approach to a performance-oriented foreign-language methods course (in Spanish, but applicable to other languages) is described. The aim was to free class time for discussions and direct classroom experience, and to provide an element of individualised instruction. At the end of the five-week course students were to demonstrate five basic teaching skills (teaching vocabulary and dialogues, presenting structures and points of grammar, and

teaching the initial transition stage in reading). These skills were programmed to give students a better opportunity of working on their individual demonstrations than was possible in a class situation.

[The organisation of the course and development of materials is described.] Video-tape recorders were essential for recording demonstrations by both models and students, and giving instant feedback to students. A programme manual guided students in working on their own, in small groups. As soon as a student achieved a satisfactory performance in one skill he would move on to the next. The main advantage of the individualised approach was that students had time to improve unsatisfactory performances. The programmed element freed approximately 14 hours of class time during the course for discussion and extra activities, although it demanded an extra 17 hours outside class time for instructor and student demonstrations (programmed work). The initial cost of equipment and tapes was high, but the extra time and expense were felt to be justified as the students improved their performances and enjoyed the programmed part of the course. Other applications of this approach are suggested.

74-205 **Honor, Sylvia C.** "This programme stunt should be used more often": the use of programmed learning in the Schools Council French materials. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), 3 (1974), 97-107.

A simple linear grammar programme tried out as part of the draft Schools Council French course is described. The children for whom it was written were 13 years old and represented roughly the top 60 per cent of the ability range. They had been taught French since the age of eight by means of the Nuffield audio-visual course *En Avant*, and had reached a point where they needed some written grammar explanations. Programmed instruction seemed likely to suit them. Preparation of the programme is described, including the experiment which forms the main subject of this article, in which a form of simple programmed instruction was compared with a more con-

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ventional form of grammar teaching. It was found that the less able children had greater need of a teacher's help in working through a programme. Teacher intervention therefore became part of the final version. Advantages and disadvantages of the programme are discussed, using the responses to a questionnaire completed by pupils in the experiment group. Most pupils enjoyed the personal aspect of working on their own. The experience gained by the researchers was put into the final published versions of the *A votre avis* grammar books [illustrated examples are appended].

74-206 Jalling, Hans. Current trends in the use of language learning laboratories in Sweden. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), 1, 1 (1973), 18-19, and 2, 25-9.

The emphasis at Swedish universities is on individualised learning in a language-learning laboratory. Each individual student works on his own through a teaching programme suited to his individual requirements, and controls his own progress. A remote-controlled model has been found the most comfortable and flexible, and is less liable to be damaged. Visual and audio stimuli are integrated with the programmes, and equipment is allocated as and when the student needs it.

The practice in Sweden has been to pre-copy selections of programmed items onto tapes as appropriate for each student, but it is hoped to change to the method of switching the student through to a series of running master programmes in a central tape bank. This is expensive but justifiable in terms of learning effectiveness [examples]. Prognostic test batteries need to be developed so that the optimal learning sequence for each learner can be established, and personality factors need to be taken into account. The timing of monitoring needs to be geared to the student's problem areas and prognostic tests should help here. The old drill programmes have been replaced by teaching programmes and practice programmes: the former convey information, and replace textbooks or classes.

ENGLISH See also abstracts 74-182/3, -187, -190, -195, -199/200, -202

74-207 Baetens Beardsmore, H. and Lee, Eric J. Teaching English as a foreign language for special purposes. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), 57, 7 (1973), 343-8.

A technique is described for teaching advanced groups learning a language for special purposes – in this case the 45-hour course described was the culmination of an EFL programme designed for French-speaking non-specialist economics undergraduates with previous experience of English. The main aims were to enable the students (1) to understand a series of written texts (paying special attention to idioms containing phrasal verbs), (2) to use these idioms in a variety of contexts, and (3) to be able to hold discussions in English on topics relevant to their professional interests.

The course was based on a film in English about principles of management, with different texts based on the filmscript. [The various stages of the course are described, including paraphrasing of words and sentences, reinforcement in a language laboratory, and creative exploitation of the language studied.] The advantages of this technique were that the amount of new material was measurable and therefore easy to control; the nature of the material was such that it increased the students' motivation, and the technique was flexible enough to allow for differences in students' ability. [Details of final tests are given.] [References.]

74-208 Chiu, Rosaline K. Register constraints on the choice of the English verb. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 4, 1 (1973), 33-47.

The English programme of the Canadian Language Bureau aims to teach French-speaking government employees how to use English in their work. They need to be able to understand and write in the register of administrative English. As a guide to TESL course designers and teachers, a research project was set up to examine the frequency of occurrence and distributional patterns of English

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verbs. The language studied was (a) the written communications of government employees and (b) transcriptions of spontaneous but formal boardroom discussions. [Detailed analysis with tables of frequency, including verb types common to both registers, and comparison with frequency lists established by other research projects.] The data is now being used to create ESL materials which take usage frequencies in specific situations into account, but no details are given. [References.]

74-209 Kaymer, Günter. Über die Stellung der Grammatik im Englischunterricht des 9. und 10. Schuljahres. [The role of grammar in the teaching of English to students in the fifth and sixth years of the *Hauptschule*.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 8, 4 (1973), 121-7.

Ever since English became a compulsory subject for all pupils in the *Hauptschule*, teachers have had to face the problem of whether 15- or 16-year-old students in the last two years of the *Hauptschule* should be taught English according to methods used for teaching 10-year-olds, i.e. imitation and drill practice, or whether there should be more stress on encouraging abstract thinking by introducing formal grammar. In the earlier years of the *Hauptschule* the main goal is to teach subconsciously correct use of English through a total, unilingual and situational approach which takes into account the structure and the general aims of the *Hauptschule* as well as the scope of the students' performance. Introducing the teaching of formal grammar, the learning of rules and the study of individual words, would run counter to those goals, open the door to interference and hinder the achievement of communicative ability.

Several factors which might encourage teachers to introduce traditional teaching of grammar are examined, and certain issues arising are discussed.

- 74-210 Mackay, Ronald.** English for special purposes: English and the environment. *IUT Bulletin Pédagogique* (Nancy), **24** (1973), Langues Vivantes 16, 11-18.

A short course of 'English for special purposes' formed one component of a three-week refresher course for overseas teachers of English at the University of Newcastle. The aims were (a) to improve the participants' understanding and performance in English and (b) to help them to improve their preparation of supplementary materials for their own advanced students. Participants were given background information about environmental pollution. [Details of the study programme are given: it included study of the lexicon, collocations of keywords in the text, textual cohesion, connectives, and graph and figure interpretation.] Fluency improved as a result of the course.

- 74-211 Swales, John.** Introducing teachers to English for science and technology. *ELT Documents* (London), **6** (1973), 9-12.

In certain developing countries there is a trend towards courses designed to give students a narrower and more specialised competence in English, mainly English for Science and Technology (EST). [Stages of typical makeshift course development for English for Special Purposes (ESP) are outlined briefly.] Factors which encourage the shift away from General English courses are the growth of mother-tongue instruction, the need to strengthen the technological and vocational sectors, and an increasing need for specialisation in the last years of school.

It would, however, be very difficult to implement change quickly: the problem of re-training teachers is formidable. The author ran EST courses for teachers of English and mathematics from developing countries, and found that the mathematics teachers had a better grasp of the material studied, though they needed to learn to consider the use of language; the English teachers were afraid of the new scientific content and were quite unprepared to deal with it. In general, English teachers fail to elicit the knowledge their pupils

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have of the topics under discussion, and pupils do not expect their English teachers to be interested in science. Because the teachers are not interested in the materials, they find it difficult to appreciate the linguistic expressions of scientists, and therefore cannot teach usefully about them.

The need is for a re-orientation programme towards EST, with prior re-orientation towards science and technology. This should be a long-term process involving science teachers in schools, but as they are in short supply the best hope is the newly graduated teachers. University and training college courses therefore need to include more elements of ESP work, in place of the bias towards literature or theoretical linguistics.

FRENCH *See also abstracts 74-192, -198, -205*

74-212 Gauvenet, Hélène and Moirand, Sophie-Colette. Le discours rapporté. [Reported speech.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **102** (1974), 34-40.

In the early lessons of *Voix et Images de France* only the *je* and *tu* forms are used; the pupils must identify directly with the speakers in order to reproduce the dialogue. From the fourth lesson onwards the teacher is advised to introduce questions with *il*; in their answers, pupils comment on the dialogues in their own person, so that indirect speech and the beginnings of oral composition are now possible. The teacher should, however, be aware of the semantic and psychological implications of relating a dialogue, as well as of the morphological changes. As the pupil attempts a more subjective narrative, greater 'distancing' is achieved. [Tables are used to distinguish between direct and reported speech.]

Emphasis is placed on the semantic break which occurs during the transition from *je* to *il*. Reported speech, whether oral or written, while still containing the basic message, may vary enormously according to the personal involvement of the narrator [numerous examples from journalism show the semantic changes which may occur when speech is reported]. The journalist has to abstract the

basic message and then restructure it, in order to convey the tone of the original and any accompanying gestures. At a pedagogic level, therefore, the re-narration of dialogue can be a most fruitful exercise, since it helps the pupil to develop a feeling for the meaning of words and trains him in the production of semantic equivalents.

74–213 Látal, Jiri. Vědecký styl cizího jazyka jako předmět výuky. (Několik poznámek k otevřenému problému.) [The scientific style of a foreign language as a teaching goal. (Some remarks on an open problem.)] *Methodická sdělení k vyučování cizím jazykům* (Olomouc, Czechoslovakia), 1 (1973), 1–15.

The problem of introducing the foreign-language student to the use of language for special purposes (here, the language of science and technology) has been approached so far in a highly empirical manner. [The CREDIF course of French for medical students and the methods suggested by French methodologists are critically evaluated.] In attempting to teach the style of science three facts must be taken into account: (1) the foreign-language teacher is not an expert in the particular field of which he is to teach the style; (2) the student is an apprentice in this field and in the language particular to it; (3) whenever the foreign language is taught outside its own geographical and political area the 'style of science' is only a linguistic incidental, not a dominant feature.

Understanding of a particular style can only be reached by way of comparison with other styles. Thus a student will learn more by comparing one 'scientific' text with stylistically different (neutral) texts, than by working through many stylistically similar scientific texts. A written message with scientific content lacks figures of speech and tropes. Concentration on the communicative function with regard to the addressee and on the referential function with regard to the context (specific terminology and non-linguistic symbols and signs), leads to neglect of the poetic function which is also present in a 'scientific' or 'technical' message. Attention should also be paid to the metaphors of the phraseological units

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in these texts. The scientific style is said to be abstract and impersonal, but such a statement is relative. [French summary.]

GERMAN See abstract 74-184

SPANISH

74-214 Barrera Vidal, A. El vocabulario y las estructuras de base para el Certificado de Español de las universidades populares: los problemas de la elaboración de un 'español básico'. [Vocabulary and basic structures for the Spanish Certificate in adult education: the problems of constructing a 'basic Spanish'.] *Español Actual* (Madrid), 25 (1973), 1-13.

The author uses a 'classic structuralist' model in his Basic Spanish program, and incorporates some insights from generative grammar, believing that the main concern of applied linguistics is to produce an efficient explication system rather than a neat conceptual one. A language as taught to foreigners is essentially a closed corpus, rather than a lexically and syntactically open natural language; this being so, the corpus has to fulfil the criteria of *representativeness* (i.e. it must not be socially, stylistically or regionally coloured, and for major dialect markers like the *ceceo* no one variant is insisted on), which may be established on the basis of word-frequency lists, and *relevance* to the communication needs of foreigners. This latter criterion calls for explicitness (non-allusiveness) in messages, and due regard for the written language; in addition, the linguistic and social background of the learner himself must be classified. The author lays stress on the teaching of productive rules as a means of obviating some rather specialised vocabulary. [Vocabulary list; list of syntactic frames and morphological apparatus.]

RUSSIAN See abstracts 74-196, -201