Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

68–107 Ager, D. E. Techniques in advanced language teaching. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **5**, 1 (1967), 5–10.

There are teachers who believe in the effectiveness of grammar rules and others who believe that students can only be encouraged to absorb what is put before them. The debate is between structuralists and contextualists.

The structuralists need to establish a syllabus, after which the distinctions between teaching at an advanced level and teaching at any other level are not great. Exercises on a point of grammar can be contextually grounded as in most language-teaching textbooks. From this technique, structural drills for laboratory or classroom have been introduced. The technique of a question-and-answer battery will require tact if used at an advanced level. Talks by a student on a particular grammatical point and lectures by the teacher still need a transfer from talking about correct language to the actual use of it. The contextualists will first want to establish a meaningful situation. Some will accept structure drills if they refer to a context and to each other, but some think it better to teach by exemplification, extensive reading and numerous exercises such as translation. Audio-visual techniques may be used at elementary level to create a context in which a certain use of language is appropriate and natural but such techniques have been little used for advanced teaching, though the 'entertainment' film is probably one of the most useful aids for teaching.

Translation has been accused of being principally a testing rather than a teaching method. Too rigid, it will sound unlike the original work; too free, it will destroy the point of the operation. It would be better to recreate a passage, change a dialogue to narration or describe a scene from another's point of view.

Careful preparation in class must precede the production stage of free composition. Summary writing is a flexible technique in that the summary can be of any length. *Lecture expliquée* is an ideal method for language-teaching. Extensive reading, listening, debate and discussion are all of great value at an advanced stage. Whatever the techniques chosen, motivation will be what matters most and the teacher's personality must be capable of inspiring students. His main task at advanced stages of language learning is to offer opportunities and materials so that the student can get on with the job.

68–108 Brend, Ruth M. The return of the paradigm. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 1/2 (1967), 33–6.

In some language-teaching courses the grammatical patterns are not presented overtly. Moreover, the vertical organization of the paradigm is lost. Paradigmatic summaries are not even provided in an appendix. Thus a significant aspect of language structure has been ignored, and the analytical ability of the adult student is not used. Overt paradigmatic descriptions of pattern should be added to repetition drills.

At least one current linguistic theory (Pike's tagmemics) provides theoretical justification for the inclusion of the paradigm as part of the total description of language. 'Item-and-paradigm' has been ignored in the preparation of language-teaching materials.

A language has not been fully learned until one not only knows the units of grammar, phonology and lexicon, and the contexts in which they occur, but also has learned the paradigmatic relationships between those units. Such learning may lie between tacit and explicit knowledge.

68–109 Pohl, L. Zur Bedeutung der Algorithmierung im Fremd-sprachenunterricht. [On the implications of algorithms for foreign-language teaching.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 1/2 (1967), 76–82.

Algorithms help to optimize the teaching process, by prescribing exact procedure for solving certain types of problem. Any learning process consists of a sequence of minimal steps, at each of which the

information available is processed to give new information. An algorithm so orders these steps that the objective is attained after the shortest and most rational sequence.

Pupils' errors and frustrations, observed in actual teaching situations, can often be attributed directly to the lack of such a precise teaching procedure.

Two kinds of algorithm can be established: teaching algorithms, which enable the teacher to present new information in the optimal sequence, and solving algorithms, which give the pupil a check-list for applying the complicated procedure he has been taught to new data of the same kind. In the latter case the algorithm is determined by abstracting from the pupil's mental processes the choices he must make as he works through the procedure, and takes the form of questions whose positive or negative answers determine the next step. The choices can best be organized into an optimal algorithm by being represented in a branching diagram or in a flow-chart.

One example is given of a general teaching algorithm for the presentation of grammatical phenomena, and there are several examples of solving algorithms, with accompanying diagrams and flow-charts, illustrating both the agreement of the past participle in French (following the sequence given in *Nos amis français*, book 2, and in an ideal form), and the use of the relative and interrogative pronouns in English.

68–110   Shaw, A. M. The way ahead ? *ELT Broadsheet* (Kaduna), 6 (1967), 1–2.

Much progress has been made in developing new techniques for second-language teaching. Problems of grammar, lexis and pronunciation have been analysed and drill techniques evolved. Materials are now being designed with a local target and consideration is being given to remedial work at post-primary level.

There is still danger of over-mechanization. This can be avoided if the teacher adapts his material to the situation of his own students. Students can often write their own drill materials and can be encouraged to use humour, and names of people known to the class. Controlled composition must not entirely supplant guided freer writing.

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The syllabus should serve as a check-list but not impose excessive rigidity. Students should be able to see a lesson as directly related to their own language problems, or as extending their powers of expression.

68–111 Spálený, Eugen. Wege zur Steuerung der sprachlichen Reaktionen im neusprachlichen Unterricht. [Guidelines for the control of speech reactions in modern-language teaching.] *Metodická sdělení k vyučování cizím jazykům* (Olomouc), 2 (1967), 1–15.

Foreign-language teaching is a directed psychological process in which knowledge and skill both play a part. In the past the knowledge has been contained in the textbook and the teacher has imparted it well or badly according to his skills. A basic training in phonetics and linguistics and some knowledge of the psychology of teaching contribute to the teacher's skill.

Programmed learning and teaching machines are expected to add considerably to the skill of imparting a language and indeed the logical construction of programmes and the advantages of self-pacing for the student are of great value, particularly when the teaching is for professional purposes. Nevertheless, mastery of a language cannot be simply equated with mastery of a complex of information and every aspect of a language cannot be reduced to algorithms. [An example is taken from part of a Russian programmed instruction course showing how time-consuming and boring this kind of instruction can be.]

The effectiveness of language teaching does not rest in the machine–pupil relationship but in the teacher–pupil relationship. In this latter relationship, the teacher's function as control mechanism must be cultivated while his personality and temporary moods are eliminated as far as possible.

Absorption of information, directed practice and finally independent usage are the three stages in the language-learning process. Both teacher and pupil need careful direction. Language teaching is an empirical process which must be measured and corrected at every

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stage. The textbook, as programme, must show the exact purpose of every lesson and provide the teacher with indications of the way in which the aim is to be achieved. This should not be left to the teacher's choice. If the details of the process are carefully signposted the role of the teacher is confined to imparting information and correcting the pupil's efforts. In laboratory work the teacher is again the only control.

In the third phase, the so-called independent use of language, work will probably still be directed. The teacher's task is still confined to instruction, correction and evaluation. Stimulus can be given to the pupil by visual aids.

68–112   Wardhaugh, Ronald. Some current problems in second-language teaching. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 1/2 (1967), 21–6.

A language is more than a system of habits. A native speaker can make judgements about such matters as grammaticality, foreign accent, deviancy, synonymy and paraphrase. Habit formation drills can teach control of the surface skills, but are insufficient to develop these other abilities.

Two facts about language have been overlooked: that voluntary uses of language create linguistic and pedagogic problems not yet solved, and that language is essentially a human possession.

A group of problems associated with motivational and personality variables in second-language learning needs linguistic attention. Another group of problems is associated with language description and language contrast. Recent developments in grammatical theory have clarified the distinction between the deep and surface structures of sentences. Basic changes are necessary in making contrastive analyses so that such studies do not refer entirely to surface contrasts. Then there may be a significant advance in the gradation of materials, and perhaps significant similarities among languages will be found. Recent insights into the nature of language may lead to an understanding of what is involved in productivity and competence.

There is still debate as to whether teaching materials should be ordered according to principles derived from a transformational

grammar, and opinion is still divided as to whether students should be taught about the language as well as taught the language.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

68-113 Beaudot, Alain. Le 'SAID system'. *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **61**, 4 (1967), 395-8.

The 'Speech Auto-Instructional Device', developed at the University of Michigan by Harlan Lane and his colleagues, is used for analysing and teaching the prosodic features of a speech pattern. Because of its high cost the machine is more useful at the moment for providing psychological data, as described by the teleprint records of the student's learning behaviour, than for teaching.

The machine examines automatically and separately the efforts of the student to attain an acceptable standard in the pitch, amplitude, and tempo of the patterns being learned. The student is allowed to pass to a second feature only when he has mastered the first, which may require various repetitions. Each time the student imitates the model sentence his efforts are recorded by the teleprinter, which provides a picture of his progress. Different standards of acceptability by the machine can be pre-set, according to the degree of perfection sought. In spite of one or two points of regression in the student's performance it is found that he always reaches his goal. It has been found that the machine is much more accurate than skilled linguists in the assessment of performance in the three aspects mentioned.

68-114 Dušková, Libuše and Eduard Beneš. K otázce objectivního zjištování úrovně znalosti cizího jazyka potřebné pro čtení odborných textů. [Finding the level of foreign language knowledge necessary for reading professional texts.] *Bulletin of the University of 17 November* (Prague), 2 (1967), 17-33.

To find the level of language knowledge in various classes and to determine the efficiency of teaching methods, it is necessary to work out an objective method of evaluating the students' knowledge.

The article reports an experiment to find the level of foreign-language knowledge necessary for reading professional texts. A test sample was constructed from groups of sentences selected from various professional texts. The groups were classified according to their difficulties into five grades. Each grade contained a test with four sentences of the same lexical and grammatical difficulties. [The translations of the five-grade test into English and German are given at the end of the article.] A complete five-grade test is presented at the beginning of the year. In further teaching stages the first grade is left out.

The test vocabulary was chosen from minimum general-science word lists compiled by the Department of Foreign Languages of the Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences.

Experience has proved the validity of the tests. They will show a student's ability in reading and understanding foreign-language texts, and satisfy the inquiries of examiners in various departments. Similarly constructed tests can also be used in secondary schools.

68–115 Gommes-Judge, Anne. Evaluating students' progress in language learning. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **5**, 1 (1967), 21–5.

The principles of test CGM 62 (by Mialaret and Malandrin) can be applied to testing students' progress. The writer uses four tests, covering (*a*) oral and written comprehension, through translation into English and rapid dictation, (*b*) oral and written expression, through free composition and oral question and answer. Marks obtained are then plotted on a circular diagram so as to produce a quadrilateral, graphically representing over-all performance. [Examples of scoring procedures are given.]

68–116 Politzer, Robert L. Towards a practice-centred program for the training and evaluation of foreign language teachers. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 5 (1966), 251–5.

The MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students are now widely accepted as the norms according

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to which the preparation of the foreign-language teacher is to be judged. However, additional tests appear to be needed which measure the teacher's performance in the classroom (which to some extent can be done objectively in terms of the achievement of his pupils). Such tests would help to develop practice-centred training. At Stanford University micro-teaching procedures provide instruction in a specific classroom teaching skill to the trainee, who then applies it in a five- or ten-minute lesson to a small group of pupils. This technique can be applied to the retraining of language teachers, using as a basis the pattern of skills suggested by the MLA tests. Examples are given of how this can be done, particularly with the use of video-tape recordings. A syllabus is being developed for training teachers of French through the use of twenty-five micro-lessons of five to ten minutes each.

68–117 Spencer, Richard E. The influence of disc or tape language laboratory equipment on foreign language speaking test scores. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 4 (1966), 207–8.

Eighty-eight students of French were given the MLA Speaking Test, administered on discs, and another 372 were given the same test on tape. Results were scored in common without the scorers knowing which system had been used by individuals. A 10 per cent sample was rescored for reliability checks. There was no significant difference in test scores resulting from the method of recording used.

68–118 Spolsky, Bernard. ATESL report. *NAFSA Newsletter* (Washington, DC), **19**, 1 (1967), 6.

The Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language is the oldest section of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs. The Association is constantly asked to test the English proficiency of overseas students, and the scores from Test of English as a Foreign Language administered by the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service are usually used. The inter-

pretation of this test is somewhat complicated as there is no 'pass-mark' or 'cut-off' though a score of 500 is average. It is felt to be unwise to use an English score as a prediction of academic success. A high standard of English may, in some countries, reflect social class. The ATESL therefore has its own set of tests which helps to check the interpretation of the TOEFL and other scores. On the combined result recommendations are made to the academic adviser. The results are followed up and from this experience for future decisions is gained.

68–119   Vernon, Philip E. Administration of group intelligence tests to East African pupils. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (London), **37**, 3 (1967), 282–91.

The article presents a consideration of the choice of language in which to give instructions for an intelligence test to children with English as a second or foreign language.

Entry to secondary schools in East Africa is competitive and ad-mission is by tests in English, arithmetic and (in Tanzania) general knowledge and Swahili. Results vary according to efficiency and linguistic background in primary schools. Hence there is a case for introducing tests of the intelligence type, but administrative difficulties arise from the unfamiliarity of such tests to unsophisticated East Africans, especially working with printed instructions only.

An experiment was carried out with fourteen top primary classes in Tanzanian schools, where a short non-verbal battery was given with printed or minimal oral instructions in English or Swahili. A second parallel form was taken after this practice or after various types of coaching. The mean improvement varied considerably in different classes and different subtests, and was affected by certain motiva-tional or attitude factors. Oral instructions gave better mean scores than printed, and Swahili better than English. The overall rise with practice averaged three to four points in deviation IQ units, with coaching about seven points. Thus they suggest that intelligence   . tests could be introduced with the same kind of familiarization procedures common in England, though the actual items should be constructed locally.

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TEACHER TRAINING

68–120 Ludwig, Robert J. The creative teacher of modern foreign languages. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **24**, 1 (1967), 12–23.

The basis of creative teaching is technical competence, and familiarity with the goals and philosophy of the teaching programme. A professional attitude and up-to-date knowledge, maintained by reading professional journals, taking an active part in language teaching associations, and visiting the country whose language he is teaching, will enable the teacher to maintain proficiency and enthusiasm in his work. Modern teaching aids and also theories of learning will help, but a creative teacher uses them with understanding of the strengths and limitations of his students. Automatic speech response can be taught but it is only valuable if seen in context by the student, knowing that the goal is independent speech. The use of a textbook, cultural background, and the realities of everyday life are illustrated. The teacher's own temperament is a prime factor, as are also his willingness to absorb new ideas, create a happy learning environment, recognize the force of motivation, use English without inhibition where appropriate, experiment in presentation, devise appropriate tests for his own purposes, and make use of mechanical teaching devices, recognizing that they are only as good as the programmes he feeds into them.

68–121 Plastre, Guy. Spécialistes: en avant! [Specialists: forward!] *Canadian Audio Visual Review* (Toronto), **3**, 4 (1967), 14–16.

Language laboratories do not exempt us from the necessity of acquiring professional expertise in order to teach languages. Training in the use of the laboratory is essential: the content of a possible two-year specialist course for language-laboratory directors is outlined (in French Canadian terms). A student should already have general educational qualifications at *baccalauréat* level with some specialization in language or linguistics, educational psychology or education, or science (physics, and perhaps biology).

A course would comprise three sections: (1) linguistics, study in depth of a second or third modern language, relevant psychological studies, educational studies; (2) specific training for directors of language laboratories: appropriate branches of biology, physics and technology; teaching aids; language laboratories (types, equipment, organization, uses, etc.); applied psychology (personnel management, etc.); (3) a period of practical training.

Ideally, this would be a 'co-operative work-study programme'; four months being spent each year in practical training in an educational institution. The professional specialization proposed is not over-ambitious (already part of a Laval course is on these lines), and it is preferable to leaving laboratory directors to feel their way and teach themselves.

TEACHING METHODS

68–122 Baird, Alexander. The 'conversation' lesson. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 129–34.

Conversation is not the uttering of a number of formal words appropriate to a given occasion or situation, nor the exchange of colourful idioms. It is basically a stimulus/response situation involving the reception and the production of the spoken form of the language. [Examples.] Stimulus and response do not necessarily correspond to question and answer.

Isolated groups of questions which lead nowhere should be avoided. It is difficult for pupils in a class to react to questions in a conversational way. Drills are needed to bridge the gap between the teaching situation and conversational exchange. Questions can be supplied for answers. Such exercises could lead up to a sequence or chain of stimuli and responses. Drills should be contextualized in situations.

The teacher must supply a word where it is needed. The reader can be used as a starting-point. 'Hesitation traps' should not be allowed to last too long.

68–123 Lamicela, Helga and Gerhart Wothly. Spezielle Übungs-
formen zur Ausbildung der Fragetechnik bei der Ent-
wicklung der Gesprächsfähigkeit. [Special exercises for
teaching question-and-answer technique to develop con-
versational ability.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 6
(1967), 245–50.

It is well known that the teacher is usually the questioner and the
pupil gives the answers. The pupil rarely finds himself in a con-
versational situation where he would both ask questions and give
answers. On the other hand the use of dialogue is becoming popular,
particularly in the authors' case—the teaching of Russian in Germany.
Vital to question-and-answer work are: control of sentence intonation,
automatic formulation of defining and deciding questions, control of
the interrogative pronouns and intensive adverbs. Complete control
of these points will be an end-product. Preparatory exercises can be
given to practise the points individually. [Examples of tables for such
exercises are given for Russian.] Working from an answer, the pupil
can compose the question. The pupil is invited to return questions on
personal and everyday matters which the teacher asks first, the teacher
addressing the pupil with the informal 'you', and the pupil question-
ing his teacher with a formal 'you', practising the declensions of
Russian pronouns. The visual assistance of substitution tables as
preliminary practice material is recommended. The teacher will judge
to what extent the latter should be used according to the stage of
development of his pupils and adjust the lexical content accordingly.
This kind of practice should be more suitable for the elementary stages.

TEXTBOOKS

68–124 Alexander, L. G. The task of the course-designer today.
Englisch an Volkshochschulen (Munich), **14** (1967), 215–21,
15 (1967), 231–5, and 16 (1967), 247–9.

A brief sketch is given of the change in teaching methods from trans-
lation and learning grammar rules to the present-day attempt to

enable a student to learn with a minimum of error and correction. Recognizing that the best course is only a compromise, that it cannot present a *whole* language, that it must be directed at specific users, and bearing in mind the time they will have available to spend on it, the writer can design his course, integrating methods which are relevant to its purposes.

A fully integrated course will train the student in understanding, speaking, reading and writing, in that order. [Details are given of what this implies at various levels.] It is possible to combine structural grading with situational teaching. Repetition of patterns and structural words is needed at frequent intervals to ensure that material learnt is not forgotten.

At the outset a modern course must fully exploit the use of audio-visual aids. As the course progresses the visual element will diminish and eventually it will become purely audio-lingual. Multi-purpose texts are needed, graded in terms of structure, vocabulary, complexity, length and thematic content, but no matter how restricted the linguistic content of the multi-purpose text may be at the early stages, the student should always be presented with natural English. Social phrases and polite expressions can be introduced very early in the course. The emphasis in the presentation of grammar must be wholly on usage, not on analysis.

The relationship between the students' speed of work and the course is important. A 'lesson' should not be a convenient sub-division of the total book, but a genuine estimate of what the class can accomplish in the allotted time, with sufficient flexibility to cater for brighter and slower students. Layout should be simple and pleasing. Complicated instructions and information should not be in the student's book at all.

At the elementary level a teacher's handbook is essential, though at the intermediate level the student should be in a position to work from printed instructions. The handbook should contain material which the teacher can use effectively in each lesson. It should give: (1) a list of patterns and vocabulary that will be introduced in the lesson, (2) remarks on any special problems in the lesson, (3) an outline of aural/oral procedure, (4) a list of graded questions on the content of the multi-

purpose text, (5) suggestions for classroom activities, (6) oral drills. Ideally it should also contain the illustrations and texts which are in the student's book so that the teacher is not obliged to work from two books.

Written tests for regular use can be both diagnostic (for newcomers) and to assess terminal behaviour.

Formal examinations may seem to hinder rather than help the student but they cannot be abandoned altogether as formal qualifications for practical purposes are needed. An integrated course must take this into account. The examination must not be an end in itself, detracting from the main purpose of teaching the living language, but something which the student will take in his stride.

68–125 Fiks, A. I. and J. P. Corbino. Course density and student perception. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 1/2 (1967), 3–8.

Vocabulary counts indicate the amount of material to be learned in a foreign-language course. Density ratio can be derived from vocabulary size and course duration, and all three are gross measures because one cannot infer from them the level of grammatical control nor the degree of phonological skill attained.

Information on active vocabulary size and number of instructional hours was obtained from nine schools. The students were given a questionnaire.

Results showed vocabulary size and course variation to be in regular covariation. Course density was fairly objectively perceived by the students.

68–126 Stahlke, Herbert and Ruth M. Brend. The use of index matrices in the preparation of language textbooks. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 1/2 (1967), 37–44.

As a source of information about gaps in his presentation of language structures, matrices can be useful to the author of a language textbook. Paradigmatic lists of sentence types may serve as the basis for such matrices.

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[Using variants of the equative sentences of Yache as examples, the authors give three citation paradigms, from which they construct a tagmemic paradigm and a series of matrices.] Such matrices would also be useful in the preparation of examinations and of contrastive-type textbooks.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

68–127   Monod-Cassidy, Hélène. The new audio-visual student. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 1 (1966), 15–18.

Students taught by the 'New Key' oral methods in the high school are ill-equipped to deal with the kind of work done in university departments. They seem reluctant to make sustained, intelligent effort; they lack the ability to handle language-learning problems; matters of meaning and individual style, and wider cultural aspects are foreign to them.

Although all the newer techniques have helped oral proficiency, it is necessary to go beyond the stage of repetition and substitution practice to a conscious, discriminating use of the spoken and read language. Oral communication of the trivial information contained in everyday dialogue is not enough. Language must be a tool to widen students' horizons, and respect for the subject-matter of the course must be cultivated. Understanding of ideas is needed, and 'New Key' methods may be doing more harm than good to the ultimate goal of language learning in depth. Endless repetition, pattern practice, substitution drills, concentration on phatic communion, make the student lose interest in language. Fifteen-year-olds cannot be treated like bright three-year-olds.

Language laboratories do not allow for social factors in learning progress (the approval of the group), and all the new tools are very imperfect. Just as the eyes are trained to understand what they see, the ears must *understand* what they hear; children see selectively, they could learn to hear selectively. Language laboratory and television courses, with their flat two-dimensional representational world, are

only effective if children are prepared psychologically to like and understand the new techniques required by the new tools.

The author concludes that in spite of advances in oral proficiency the new techniques have produced students who are badly motivated, poorly prepared, and dissatisfied with foreign-language experience.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

68–128 Campbell, Russell N. The language laboratory and pronunciation teaching. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 2 (1968), 148–55.

There is little evidence to suggest that current language-laboratory practices are making their maximum contribution to the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages. A high percentage of students are apathetic during laboratory sessions.

[The author describes the teaching of Thai sounds to English speakers in such a way that classroom activities were closely co-ordinated with laboratory activities. He describes also a technique designed (1) to stimulate the student to give his undivided attention to the content of the materials by providing him with an immediate objective for his language laboratory endeavours, (2) to provide the teacher with an instrument to appraise the student's progress, and (3) to provide a joining-link between classroom and laboratory activities.] At step 1 the objective of the lesson is announced, at step 2 the student's ability to discriminate aurally is developed, at step 3 'recognition' drills are given to develop discriminatory skills further, and at step 4 production of the problem sound is taught. The sound was practised in phrases and dialogues as well as single words.

Each student was then issued with a taped assignment, consisting of a programmed review of the classroom material and of an achievement test. The student receives stimulation from being given immediate confirmation of a correct response, but this type of drill has been found inadequate to hold the students' attention. The inclusion of a taped achievement test, however, resulted in a desire to perform well. The test also provides the teacher with useful information.

68–129   Friedmann, D. M. The language laboratory and the audio-visual student. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **3**, 3 (1966), 143–6.

Teaching disparate groups of adult beginners demands careful programming, and the role that a language laboratory will play is limited by the fact that a language is a minor study subject for the students who are involved chiefly in some other field of study. Questions of whether total correctness should be aimed at from the outset and whether students' attention can best be held by drills or questions on a reading passage are examined. Too gradual progress can be a cause of frustration to students used to abstract reasoning in other fields. Personal contact in the classroom with questions and conversation on the students' daily lives will add warmth and interest to the formal use of material learnt in the laboratory.

68–130   Probyn, H. E. The role of the monitor in the language laboratory. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **3**, 3 (1966), 137–41.

Machinery does not take over the functions of the teacher, but the new complementary functions of teacher and laboratory have not always been thought out. The system which allows the teacher to listen to what the students in the booths are saying is referred to as 'monitoring', but the precise function of the monitor has not been adequately defined. If the laboratory is to be used as a place where new material is introduced and exercised then the work is under the direct control of the teacher/monitor and the arrangement and timing of it are his responsibility. Random eavesdropping on a student at work may be unhelpful; he may at that moment be listening or gathering his thoughts as he begins to understand a point and the interruption would be interference. As random monitoring can be of little use, the solution lies in a really well-equipped laboratory with adequate mechanical checking devices and small groups of six to ten students per monitor. It is only by continuously watching the progress of a group that the teacher can learn more

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about the work he is giving his students to do. Casual monitoring will destroy the student–teacher relationship, but this will be maintained if the teacher remains in control, using live broadcasts as well as tapes, ready to take over if the students need it and in constant visual contact with his pupils.

68–131 Uthess, Herbert. Vorüberlegung zur Erarbeitung von Unterrichtsmaterialien für die Arbeit in audiovisuellen Fremdsprachenkabinetten. [Suggestions on the construction of teaching materials for audio-visual language laboratory work. *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 1/2 (1967), 82–8.

[The author's intention is to list the basic principles underlying the design of language-laboratory exercises by teachers who need to supplement available material, and to show how material from existing textbooks can be adapted for this purpose.]

Laboratory work is only one of several phases of the language-teaching process and needs to be properly integrated with ordinary classroom work. Laboratory course material need not be exclusively restricted to visual or recorded material. In some phases it is both possible and desirable to introduce textual material, since working with programmed drills alone does not lead to the acquisition of all language skills. Optimum results will be obtained only by the correct combination of approaches and types of material, not by maximum possible drilling in the laboratory.

After enumerating the classes of programmed and unprogrammed material that can be used and how they are assimilated by the student, the author goes on to show that the degree of individual work possible in a laboratory is determined not by the form of teaching material selected, but by the technical facilities offered by the equipment.

Through the terminology and analytical procedures of programmed instruction, the effective handling of different types of material and work with or without a language laboratory are discussed.

SECONDARY PUPILS

68-132   Leeson, R. Oral composition with advanced students: an integrated technique. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **4,** 2 (1966/67), 75–82.

The Joint Council of Language Associations proposed an oral–aural examination at 'A' level which would include an oral composition. The preparation for this would have to be slow and careful to avoid a feeling of panic. Success would depend not only on linguistic ability, but on imagination, general intelligence and fluency in the native language.

If a language laboratory had been used from the start, the student would find the progress to composition work a natural development from drills and structural exercises. The production of responses which are not entirely automatic gives the student the opportunity to express single ideas in his own words and gain confidence in his oral ability. Reported dialogues, commentary on a cine-loop, the précis of a lecture, or a historical portrait will lead to full imaginative oral composition. Subject-matter can be presented in the form of texts from set books, newspapers and magazines, carefully chosen both for stimulating subject-matter and linguistic interest. The suggested treatment of such texts, with one detailed illustration, for both classroom and laboratory work shows how to lead up to oral composition and to provide information and ideas together with the language in which to express them.

TECHNICAL COLLEGE STUDENTS

68-133   Černá, Jiřina. Odborný text při vyučování češtině u cizinců. [Technical texts in Czech for study by foreigners.] *Bulletin of the University of 17 November* (Prague), 2 (1967), 53–61.

Czech is usually taught to a foreigner to prepare him for a technical course. The aim is to enable the student to understand technical lectures and to read and discuss technical texts. Terminology is characteristic of a technical text. For this reason not only the terms but the rules for their formation must be taught.

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The essential basis for such work is a good choice of texts. About 40 per cent should be technical. This 40 per cent can be taken directly from manuals or can be adapted—for instance, in the form of dialogues. In studying these texts one must bear in mind the psychological preparation of the student, his participation and the subject-matter. As the study of Czech precedes technical specialization, subject-matter is very important. A minimum vocabulary and graded structures are very necessary. Soon it will be necessary to prepare technical texts for foreigners on the basis of scientific research.

SPEECH

68–134 Emsig, F. Das Schaffen von Sprechbedürfnissen im Unterricht. [How to create situations for conversation in language lessons.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 7/8 (1967), 289–90.

Pupils will only speak when they feel the need to communicate, and in order to learn to use a foreign language they must practise it in real-life situations.

The first possibility is an unprepared conversation between teacher and pupil, during which the pupil should have the opportunity to react to statements, as well as to ask and answer questions.

Teaching texts can also be used as a basis for conversation, provided the questions on them give the pupils a chance to express their feelings and ideas.

It is also possible to describe a given situation which will involve a conversation. Slides and filmstrips can produce an even greater variety of situations. Through a carefully built-up system of easy exercises, pupils can be lead towards the goal of natural communication.

INTONATION AND STRESS

68–135 Lewis, J. Windsor. Phonetic transcription and weak-forms. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 41–4.

The primary importance of phonemic distinctions has been the guiding principle in the choice of phonetic transcriptions for language teaching. Allophones need not be differentiated in transcription because the selection of them can be quickly learnt once and for all. [Use is made of the compounds 'strong-form' and 'weak-form', hyphenated to emphasize that they are technical terms of phonemic analysis and not merely equivalents of 'pronunciation, having more/less loudness, breath force, etc.'.]

A weak-form contains a different set of phonemes from its corresponding strong-form. Certain pronouns have weak pronunciations but no weak-form. Variations in transcribing them serve no useful pedagogical purpose. If a passage for transcription is fully marked for intonation, the vowel values in such words are predictable.

VOCABULARY STUDIES

68–136 Heidrich, H. Prepositions—a contrastive language study. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), November (1967), 3–6.

It is helpful for the language teacher to know what modern linguistics has to say about both the language being taught and the learner's own language. Knowing the contrasts between the two, the teacher can anticipate students' difficulties. The article shows contrasts at the semantic level between Brazilian Portuguese and British English. [Examples are given of prepositions in the two languages.]

READING AND WRITING

68–137   Scott, Charles T. The linguistic basis for the development of reading skill. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 8 (1966), 535–44.

The article examines some of the linguistic principles which underlie the reading process and the pedagogical implication of these for acquiring reading skill in a foreign language.

Visual, vocal and audible symbols enable communication to take place between individuals. The primary symbols of writing are visual, though based on the vocal symbol of speech. When response to these symbols is not automatic, as in the distortions of a beginning student of a language, communication may be considerably hindered. Devices for representing entities of speech may be logograms (Chinese), characters representing syllables (Japanese), or letters (as in English). The variables which complicate learning to read a particular writing system are: (1) the learner's command of the spoken language represented by the writing system, (2) the nature of the writing system itself, (3) the extent to which the writing system fits the spoken language, (4) the learner's past conditioning to the graphic configurations of the writing system.

All these variables must be dealt with in the foreign-language situation. [The problems of the Japanese learner of English are taken as an illustration and some of the inconsistencies between English spelling and pronunciation are noted.] Punctuation difficulties are illustrated applying to both the English mother-tongue learner and the foreign learner.

The most serious point to be considered in teaching students to read is the students' command of the spoken language. When teaching a child to read, insufficient attention has been paid to his skill in manipulating his mother tongue. To some extent this is true when the foreigner is learning English. The audio-lingual approach to teaching English as a foreign language does not exclude reading but insists that speaking skill must be achieved before reading. The two learning activities need not be separated in time—only in order of presentation. Ultimate success in developing the learner's ability

to read with speed and comprehension depends on his control of the pronunciation, intonation and rhythmic features of the spoken language.

There should be three stages in developing reading skill in a foreign language: (1) oral reading drill, (2) controlled reading, using material controlled in grammatical structure and vocabulary, (3) free reading. Neglect of the first stage weakens the chances for success in the later stages.

68-138 Valdman, Albert. On the primacy of writing in French: the primacy of speech. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 7 (1966), 468–74.

As one of the fundamental assertions of linguistics is that language is sound, the claim for the primacy of speech has a long history, with its corollary that the spelling of a word is never more than a reflexion of the way it is pronounced. Nevertheless, foreign-language teachers have resisted the theory of the primacy of speech with an intuitive feeling that speech and writing are two realizations of a more abstract system—the grammatical structure of the language. Those who see writing as a phonemic notation advocate the reform of spelling systems. Difficulties in applying such a conception are illustrated from the complications of elision and liaison in the French language with reference also to regional varieties of pronunciation. The pedagogical implication is that as writing reveals some grammatical features directly, which sound features do not, students need not only be asked to read or write material containing structures previously presented orally. It is undoubtedly best to introduce the written word first as a direct representation of the spoken form, but soon the student must learn to understand the full writing system and use the visual cues that bear only an indirect relationship to acoustic signals. A renewed effort to investigate the complex relationships between linguistic sign, sound and letter will enable the skills of reading and writing to be taught more efficiently.

68–139   Kuhnert, H. Stilles Lesen und Artikulieren. [Silent reading and articulation.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 5 (1967), 190–4.

In this article the writer discusses the value of reading and its effects on language learning. There is little value in reading aloud as a teaching objective, since few learners will ever want to read a language aloud; it is a skill acquired with great difficulty even in the mother tongue. In the foreign language, reading aloud demands a distribution of the learner's attention to a variety of skills, none of which is fully developed. But as a means of developing skills, reading, whether aloud or silent, is invaluable. Inner articulation serves as a preliminary to an utterance, and helps the learner as a reader or as a listener to understand. Internal speech is a motor habit which accompanies reading. In an experiment carried out by the writer, the observation was made that out of a class of forty-six second-year students of Russian, over 70 per cent made some form of lip movement, and either read aloud or to themselves when confronted with a text of moderate difficulty. The overemphasis on silent reading to the neglect of reading aloud could have an adverse effect on the learner's ability to make phonetic distinctions and to produce the correct intonation. But reading aloud is justifiable only when the text has been understood.

TEACHING LITERATURE

68–140   Werlich, Egon. Lyrik im Englischunterricht II: die Sprache der Interpretation. [The teaching of poetry in English: (2) the language of interpretation.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **14**, 4 (1967), 349–64.

Poetry must be interpreted in the language in which it is written. [This is demonstrated with reference to the study of English poetry by German speakers.]

   To appreciate a language's characteristics, the student must use and assimilate it; its characteristics are most evident in poetry.

Experience of a foreign language takes the student into new areas of existence [the author compares German and English sentence structure; he also shows that specific categories encountered in the foreign language can be illuminating]. To acquire the linguistic habits that impart this experience one must speak, not simply quote, the language, avoiding the intrusion of concepts and categories from the mother tongue.

Discussion in German of English literature and its vocabulary cannot enrich one's linguistic experience; such interpretation diverges even more from the original than does translation. Use of the same language allows creative interaction between the language of the poem and that of discussion, the poetry enriching the everyday language.

If the mother tongue, embodying its own outlook, thought-forms and associations, is used, these transform the language of the poem itself. Even the most meticulous interpreters of English poetry in German suffer interference from the associations and categories of German. [Illustration.]

That a poem can only be interpreted adequately in its own language is important in teaching, where the ultimate aim is the acquisition of the mental habits of the new language through its use. The student must abandon his mother tongue, penetrate the language of the poem and make it his own; only thus can it acquire existential meaning for him, and be assimilated without the influence of his mother tongue.

ENGLISH. *See also abstracts* 68–110, –118, –119, –122, –124, –136, –140

68–141 Bending, H. B. Meaningful comprehension work in secondary schools. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 1 (1967), 27–9.

Comprehension enters into all language lessons, but a case can be made out for comprehension exercises. A distinction has to be drawn between the lesson designed to arrive quickly at the *gist* of a passage and the lesson which concentrates on a detailed study of the argument and lexis of a passage. The first of these has been neglected, and needs emphasis in Nigeria. Work of this kind can be associated with exten-

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sive reading. Passages for detailed comprehension should be carefully chosen and prepared. The pupils should be guided to the meaning by skilful questioning.

Word exercises based on the comprehension passage have often been too difficult.

In the lower forms, passages chosen for study should be related to what is familiar in the pupils' background. Matter may become increasingly international in the higher forms. [The author lists topics of interest to Nigerian boys and girls.] A few words or phrases from different registers may be included, and passages chosen to illustrate a variety of styles.

68–142 Boseiri, M. The influence of Sudanese Arabic on the pronunciation of English: (2) vowels. *Sudan Teachers of English Newsletter* (Omdurman), 6 (1966), 5–8.

A collection made from common mispronunciations of intermediate school teachers and pupils forms the basis of a contrastive study of consonant and vowel sounds which cause special difficulty for a speaker of Sudanese Arabic learning English.

The consonants which give difficulty are: /θ/, /ð/, /p/, /v/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, and /dʒ/.

While many vowels and diphthongs are close to English, the author notes several which occur in different positions in Sudanese Arabic. /e/, /æ/, /eː/, /ei/, /eə/, /iə/, /uə/ and /ou/ are noted as being of particular difficulty.

Techniques of teaching these more difficult sounds are suggested.

68–143 Chromečka, Julius. Übungen zur kommunikativen Sprachausübung im Englischunterricht. [Exercises leading to conversation practice in English.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 6 (1967), 251–4 and 257.

Pattern practice based on sentence patterns has increasingly become the normal method of teaching. These are of two kinds—isolated sentences, and sentences in context. The first kind only provides a

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monologue and cannot lead to lifelike exchanges of conversation. Providing a choice of two answers to a question will more nearly represent everyday conversation, and so will replies expressing emotion, surprise, shock, doubt, etc. [Examples.]

The second variety of guided conversation consists of reacting to a question or proposed action according to a gesture from the teacher or providing advice in answer to a question. [Further examples.]

A warning is added that such work cannot be undertaken without considerable preparation; it can be planned for programmed learning and language laboratory work. Each proposal will contain a grammatical point to be practised in various contexts and each will form a link between the emotion of the speaker and the speech of the person he is reacting to. Grammatical structure is a means to an end, the meaning and implication of an expression are of prime importance.

68–144 Egal, Nasr Abu. The teaching of English in Jordan. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 72–8.

In Jordanian state schools the teaching of English begins in the last year but one of the elementary school at the age of eleven to twelve. All children get a minimum of five years (700 hours) of English. A direct method of teaching, with stress on functional use, has been adopted. Before 1960 reading and writing were the primary aims, but now the emphasis has shifted to understanding and speaking. [The author mentions specific aims as listed in the syllabus. He gives particulars of the textbooks used.] At the second stage there is still the traditional approach of intensive study of short extracts.

All students at teacher-training institutes take English, and about one-seventh specialize in it. The instructors are graduates of British or American universities. First-hand knowledge of teaching in elementary schools is provided. Summer courses are arranged by the British Council and the American University of Beirut.

There are many one-teacher schools, teaching English under great difficulties. Nevertheless it has been decided not to drop English from the elementary school.

Large classes are also a problem. Many teachers speak English

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badly, and many have difficulty after the first two months of teaching. Recordings of the texts by native speakers are being prepared.

Teachers try to construct situations wherein the patterns of English can be used. There is carry-over from the English lesson to the playground at first. Later, when structures are expanded, there is a lot of confusion.

All-the-year-round regional in-service teacher training courses have been started.

(N.B. This article was prepared for publication in September 1966.)

68–145 Feldges, Alfred. Interpretation und kritische Stellung-nahme als Arbeitsformen des Englischunterrichts auf der Prima. [Interpretation and literary criticism as part of English teaching in the sixth-form.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **66**, 10 (1967), 491–9.

The 1963 regulations for the North Rhine-Westphalia school-leaving examination recommended the interpretation of a literary or philosophical text. A choice of texts was provided for the various stages, the amount of time to be spent on them indicated and recommendations for the method of treatment given. Although occasional explanations in the mother tongue are recommended, most of the literature teaching is expected to be in English. The pupils are also to be taught to express their own thoughts both orally and written, in a suitable English style. Reading as the central part of literature teaching will play an increasing role as the student matures, but this should not be a source of detailed grammatical study, rather a means of studying the spirit of the English and American people and their language. A deeper understanding of form and content of the texts studied will help the student's powers of expression. Methodical study will also help him to develop his own critical powers and express them in a foreign language. Paraphrase and analysis will be used in the study of poetry. Prose will be studied through paraphrase, clarification in depth and critical reaction.

Hitherto a study of the emotional and spiritual content of a passage and independent criticism of it have not entered into German

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teaching of English. The method of *Nacherzählung* has been one of the main instruments of teaching and this has excluded all but prose of suitable length and containing a memorable story. An English–English dictionary is seen to be essential for the new kind of approach. As a general outline, the passage for study should first be read at home, difficulties or special points explained in class and studied again at home following some leading questions on style, symbolism, aim, etc. [Some detailed suggestions are made for the treatment of contemporary short stories and essays.]

68–146 **Hodek, Nada.** On teaching English intonation to Serbo-Croat learners. *English Language Teaching* (London), **22**, 1 (1967), 67–72.

Intonation and rhythm in English give more difficulty to Serbo-Croat learners than English sounds, yet have not been given enough attention in works on English pronunciation. In experimental work at Zagreb, students have been drilled from the beginning with complete sentences, and a corrective method, based on the assumption that the student selects only certain phonetic elements of the foreign language, has been established. [The author summarizes the main points of difference between English and Serbo-Croat intonation.] A purely phonetic approach to the teaching of English intonation has been adopted. An acoustic analysis of English sounds from the viewpoint of their pitch qualities was made. 'Low', 'medium', and 'high' sounds are combined with corresponding low, medium, and high intonation patterns. [The author gives several examples.] The experiments have proved to be effective in giving the students a fairly natural English intonation.

68–147 **Jacobs, Robert.** English language teaching problems and needs in Nigeria. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 1 (1967), 3–6.

A survey carried out in Nigeria showed that the heart of the English-teaching problem lies at the primary level. Many felt that English

should be used from the beginning of the school course, others thought that English should not be taught at all during the first three years, and others again said that nothing but English should be taught either in the first year or, if the local language is used for the first two or three years, for a whole year at the transition point. Major research is urgently needed to explore the questions which need answering before a decision can be made on the most effective approach to the primary-school teaching of English and to its introduction as a medium. Nevertheless a lot of research and experiment is going on. The teaching of reading skills is a major problem. English language skill requirements in Nigeria are not being met adequately. The survey recommended the establishment of an English-language centre to provide co-ordination, establish priorities, and give central focus to a national effort to improve English teaching.

68–148 Levenston, E. A comparison of English and Hebrew: differences in clause structure: (1). *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 8 (1967), 4–9.

English clause structure is difficult for Israelis to learn to the extent that it differs from Hebrew clause structure. [The author deals with five types of difference in uses of *be* and *have*, giving Hebrew and English examples, and adding comments on teaching methods. In some instances he lays emphasis on drill, in others on drill plus examination. He deals also with the interrogative and negative alternants of certain structures.]

Hebrew questions are usually signalled by intonation, English by word-order. 'Yes–no' questions in English as often end with a fall as with a rise. If teachers insist on the fall, attention will be concentrated on the English device of word-order. Some kind of grammatical explanation may help the pupil to use interrogative structures.

Information-questions seeking *new* information are always uttered with a falling tone, whereas those which ask for a repetition of some previous remark are always uttered with a rising tone. Information-questions in which the 'question word' is the subject present no difficulty to Israelis.

68–149 Madsen, Harold S. Let's make room for reading instruc-
tion. *Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia* (Addis
Ababa), 2 (1967), 21–6.

The majority of learners of English would benefit from assistance
with reading comprehension skills and most could benefit from
assistance in oral reading. Habits of mouthing and pointing at words
during silent reading must be broken. Standardized reading-speed
tests have been devised but rapid checks can be made by timing the
reading of a 500-word passage followed by a short written quiz to
test comprehension.

Abundant reading is essential for improvement and a sufficient
variety of books should be available to appeal to the students'
differing interests. Students should be pushed to read faster with
material which they can read easily. [Material to stimulate faster eye
movement is suggested.] Many students, however, will need to be
taught how to read before they can profit from instruction in rapid
reading. Varying reading speed according to subject-matter is an art
to be learnt. Rapid reading is not a goal in itself.

68–150 Montgomery, M. Conversations as compositions. *ELT
Broadsheet* (Kaduna), 6 (1967), 3–4.

A new variety of composition is the construction of a conversation.
Structural guidance can be given and the composition may be pre-
ceded by oral drills to practise some point found difficult at that
moment. Some acting and actual conversation will precede writing.
[Illustrations of conversations between principal and prefect and
between a prospective car-buyer and salesman are given.]

68–151 Moody, K. W. Primary school syllabuses for English.
Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association (Ile-Ife),
1 (1967), 21–5.

A typical primary-school syllabus for English is a gallant failure.
The main weakness lies in the scheduling of the content of what is

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to be taught. Content has been insufficiently considered, as a result
of not distinguishing between second-language and first-language
teaching.

One of the obstacles to a precise formulation of what should be
taught is that language has for long been thought of mainly as an
accumulation of words.

Among the advantages of listing the structures to be mastered each
year in the primary school are that a primary-school leaver would have
a better mastery of English through having concentrated on what is
essential, that he would be better placed to develop his mastery by
means of lexical control, that post-primary teachers would be fairly
certain of what their incoming pupils knew, that teacher-trainers
would have a firmer basis on which to plan, that the skill of compre-
hension would be improved, that there would be a solid basis on which
to plan schemes of work, etc., and that authors would have a precise
scheme on which to base their books and readers.

68–152 Polak, Hana. Teaching deprived children. *English Teaching
Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 8 (1967), 10–16.

Culturally deprived children are given a year's intensive schooling in
small groups and then sent to kibbutzim in groups of forty. They are
hard to teach, but gradually become integrated into the life of the
community. Only where there is a reasonable chance of success is it
advisable to teach them English. Initially they demand English,
because all the kibbutz children are learning it.

An introductory talk about aims can make the pupils feel they are
being treated as grown-ups. There should be concentration on speech,
as a basis, for a long period, since it offers the best chance of success
and is immediately useful. Reading and writing should be introduced
much later, and here the differences in amount of previous knowledge
are harder to cope with.

Most of the pupils are 16–17 years old, and a fresh start must be
made. The pupil enjoys speaking about himself, other pupils, his
home town, food, etc. Dramatic dialogues are successful. New
structures must be introduced with known lexis.

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The teacher must find the best methods to hold the pupils' attention and enhance memorization. They enjoy choral work and love to see objects and pictures. Remarks and explanations in Hebrew give them a feeling of security. Individual practice must be combined with group drilling. The children love songs and acting.

Flannelboard reading drills of one-syllable words are a good introduction to reading. Writing should be introduced at the same time. Individual attention is necessary for the slowest.

[The author gives in an appendix the first ten units of her own programme.]

68–153 Ritchie, William C. Some implications of generative grammar for the construction of courses in English as a foreign language. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **17**, 1/2 (1967), 45–69.

[The author offers a Chomskian view of language teaching and learning as an alternative to former more or less behaviouristic ones. He calls for a re-affirmation of traditional concern for the acquisition of abstract information about utterances without denying the importance of practice in the use of such knowledge.]

Knowledge formation or acquisition must take place before knowledge use. The type of material best suited to knowledge formation is visual and written. The learner must acquire knowledge which will allow him to understand future possible events as well as past actual events.

A course in English as a foreign language at an English Language Institute must include a written programme, oral grammar practice and pronunciation practice, as well as conversation and laboratory exercises. Contrastive analysis is peripheral.

[The author outlines the psychological assumptions underlying the work in course construction.]

People are born with certain capabilities which allow them to process and store information about parts of the environment in the form of maps or theories. The layman sees greater similarity between linguistic knowledge and written texts than between writing and

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sound. Few writing systems can be considered as a secondary pre-
sentation of speech. People who speak mutually unintelligible dialects
can communicate through a writing system (e.g. Chinese). Literates
tend to regard writing as primary, speech as secondary. A direct
visual representation of the native speaker's competence can be
expected to help the learning process.

[The author describes the changes made by Katz and Postal in trans-
formational generative grammar. He discusses the syntactic, semantic
and phonological components, and the relations between them.] Inter-
pretation of a particular utterance involves categorizing it in terms of
the information represented by the grammar of the speaker-hearer.

68-154 Scherer, Günther. Ausspracheschulung im Anfangs-
unterricht: (3) intonation. [Teaching pronunciation to
beginners: (3) intonation.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 4 (1966),
97–100.

Intonation, sound values and stress are the three essentials conveying
the meaning of a statement to the hearer. If grammatical form and
intonation do not agree, the hearer depends on the intonation for the
correct emphasis. There is similarity between the German and
English uses of intonation but they are not identical. [Illustrations.]
A study of intonation should probably begin with the *end* of a sentence
as a rise or fall at the end of a short English sentence can completely
alter the meaning. In longer sentences three points are important
for Germans learning English: (1) the first accented syllable is near
the beginning of a sentence or sense group, (2) in ordinary speech the
first stressed syllable is on a higher pitch than in German speech
(American English is nearer to German), (3) the stressed syllables fall
gradually in tone, which is also the German principle, but whereas
Germans tend to lower the tone of unstressed syllables, English tends
to maintain them at roughly the same pitch as nearby stressed syllables.
[Illustrations.] The foregoing applies to normal speech but changes are
made by emotion which is very often present in speech giving stronger
stress. Variety of intonation in questions which may be repeated,
impressive, reproachful, etc., will not affect beginners to any extent.

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68–155 Stephenson, Lynne. Theories and practices. *English Teaching Guidance* (Tel Aviv), 7 (1966), 25–9.

It is nonsense to talk about teaching by the 'natural method' if the beginners are eleven or twelve. English must be started at six or seven, and not at an age when it is difficult to learn whatever method is used. The class must be kept in order. Praise should be lavish where it is deserved. Merit-stars are effective, and the standard of judgement should vary from pupil to pupil. There must be plenty of songs, games, pictures and plays. Teachers must be prepared to sing, draw, act, etc., constantly. Reading-matter should be based on what excites the pupils in their own language. Interesting or emotive words are remembered. Slang may be introduced early: it makes the children feel they are 'inside' the language.

68–156 Sudhölter, Jürgen. Gedanken zur Behandlung der Rechtschreibung im Englischunterricht. [Thoughts on the teaching of English spelling.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 4 (1966), 100–1.

Before their first English lesson, pupils have already heard how difficult English spelling is. It is worth convincing them that there is more regularity than might at first appear. Collecting lists of words where sound and spelling follow definite rules is recommended. These can then be practised in spelling games [examples], which the pupils enjoy and which give them the psychological support of success and the feeling that even English spelling can be learnt.

68–157 Ubahakwe, E. Ebo. Planning a literature course for the Nigerian secondary school. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 1 (1967), 37–44.

The literature course in Nigeria is badly planned and there is poor classroom presentation. It is merely an examination subject. Little is done to help the teacher to plan a literature course in his peculiar cultural setting.

A successful teacher of literature is one whose students continue to

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read the works of great minds long after external pressures have been withdrawn. Literature should entertain and educate. The language and content aspects of literature are like two sides of a coin. Literature should be related to other disciplines.

For the average Nigerian secondary-school pupil 'literature' is synonymous with English literature. Most are unaware of Nigerian literature. They are exposed to that of a second language.

[The author then suggests objectives and approaches for the teaching of literature in various school classes.]

68–158 Williams, D. J. An experiment in faster reading. *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association* (Ile-Ife), 1 (1967), 45–51.

The problem of reading speed does not only arise at sixth form and university level. Pupils have the opportunity of reading a lot from the beginning of the secondary or teacher-training course, the main cause of slow reading probably being the lack of reading material in primary schools.

Over a period of eight weeks eleven different classes were given a number of reading passages set out in different ways, two of the classes being control groups. Results showed an average gain in speed of 130 per cent. Out of the 252 pupils who took part, 111 increased their speeds by more than 100 per cent. Gains differed mainly according to the school. Of the types of text, a plain text with red guide-lines seemed the most effective.

The inquiry shows that a course to increase reading speeds is helpful at first-year and second-year level in post-primary education.

FRENCH. *See also abstract* 68–138.

68–159 Bashour, Dora S. Teaching French pronunciation to beginners, *French Review* (Baltimore), **39**, 6 (1966), 910–18.

From a recent survey of some twenty beginners' French textbooks for American children, it appears that the approach to pronunciation is

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more often corrective than preventive. Dialogues for comprehension precede pronunciation practice. Suggestions are made for pre-dialogue preventive lessons to provide a firm foundation for the development of audio-lingual skills. Ear-training is followed by artic-ulation exercises, conversation and pattern practice, all of which are recorded for use in the language laboratory. The lessons concentrate on a small number of closely related sounds at a time and reinforce these habits in conversation. In the process many lexical and structural items are taught which appear in the early lessons of the regular course lesson.

68–160 Leng, A. I. An alternative French 'O' level examination. *Modern Languages* (London), **48**, 3 (1967), 105–7.

A syllabus for a new examination, drawn up on behalf of grammar schools in the north-west of England, was intended for schools wishing to spend more time on speaking and reading. The Joint Matriculation Board adopted the syllabus for an experimental period. Sixteen schools took the paper in 1965 and seventeen in 1966. Parts of the question papers were common to both normal and experi-mental syllabuses which enabled comparison of the performance of the candidates. [A summary of each syllabus is given and notes amplify each aspect in turn—dictation, comprehension, composition, reproduction (oral), unseen passages for translation into English and an oral examination carrying 20 per cent of the marks.] The oral examination was marked by school staff. Tapes of the interviews were sent to the chief examiner, who re-marked a sample, and an assessor from another school also attended a sample of interviews and sent his marks to the chief examiner.

From experience gained, a new alternative syllabus has been drawn up for 1968 for French and for other modern foreign languages.

68–161 Page, Mary M. We dropped FLES. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **50**, 3 (1966), 139–41.

After a six-year pilot programme in teaching French to elementary school children it was decided to discontinue it. Only the more able

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pupils were taking the course and they were taught by well-qualified language teachers. The Revised Modern Language Association Guides from 1958 were used with their emphasis on audio-lingual method. Lessons were from twenty minutes to forty minutes, three times a week, the length increasing as one passed from grade three to grade six. On the children's part, there was a progressive disenchantment with French over the years, ending up in grade six with a positive dislike for the subject. This negative psychological reaction was the prime reason for dropping the FLES programme. Even in the junior high school there was very little carry-over from the deceptively fluent 'conversations' of dialogue adaptation. Pupils reacted against the slowness and everlasting repetition of the FLES method. It was decided to preserve the initial thrill and enthusiasm of starting French for the seventh grade.

68–162   Stern, H. H. and M. Sculthorp. Eleven to Sixteen. *Modern Languages* (London), **48**, 3 (1967), 96–101.

In September 1967 the first children who had been taught French in primary schools in Britain entered secondary schools. Believing this to be a crucial moment for modern-language teaching, the Consultative Committee of the Modern Language Association presented its notes on the teaching of pupils from eleven to sixteen years to the MLA Council and is prepared to follow them up with a bibliography, discussion points, suggestions for pooling ideas, etc.

A summary of the teaching of modern languages now is followed by a statement of the aims of the pilot scheme for French in primary schools, problems of transition to the secondary school, the development years in secondary schools up to sixteen and the response of the examining boards to the new situation. [Notes for further reading and discussion are appended.]

GERMAN

68–163 Birkenfeld, Helmut. Randbemerkungen zur Lehre der deutschen Sprache für Ausländer. [Marginal notes on teaching German as a foreign language.] *Deutsch für Ausländer* (Königswinter), 6 (1967), 11–15.

Where German is taught as a second or third foreign language, some knowledge of English can usually be assumed and this knowledge can be used to advantage both in vocabulary acquisition and in development of structures.

Comparative tables are given showing the importance or otherwise of inflexion, verbal constructions, transitive and intransitive constructions, building of compound words, ways of spelling and writing.

The consequences of presence and absence of inflexion, variety of grammatical uses of one word, synonyms and triplets are then considered in relation to teaching. The multiple inflexions of German can be alarming to the learner; the uses of the subjunctive can prove difficult. Textbooks should lay more emphasis on the word-building power of the German language. Passive constructions are much rarer in German than in English.

RUSSIAN. *See also abstract* 68–123

68–164 Süss, Joachim. Funktionen, Formen und methodische Gestaltung von Tonbildreihen für den Russischunterricht an der Oberschule. [Functions, patterns, and methodical making of audio-visual aids for Russian teaching at advanced level.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **11**, 4 (1967), 153–9.

Many countries are now using a combination of records or tapes with film, filmstrips or transparencies. Many East German teachers of Russian have met this year to consider the bases on which such aids to Russian language teaching should be built. This work still has many unsolved problems. If such an aid is really to intensify learning

there must be a clear idea of the particular contribution it is to make in the teaching programme. The assumptions made in the early stages of such an experiment can only be checked as the work nears completion. [The linguistic and cultural contribution of such aids are noted, followed by some more technical details on the advantages of record, tape (quality and availability), film, filmstrip and transparency (colour, mobility, photographs and drawings) together with notes on the methods of combining them to achieve different ends.]

In conclusion a specific example is given of the use to be made of pictures and conversation for a scene at a railway station, with a table showing the various stages of learning which are expected to take place through the specific picture and sections of conversation.

SPANISH

68–165   Cardwell, Richard A. The language laboratory as a teaching machine, equivocal response and psychological choice: an attempt at resolution. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 4, 2 (1967), 57–68.

The use of the subjunctive in Spanish very often depends on the intention of the individual speaker. In what ways can basic structures involving the subjunctive be practised in the language laboratory? Although mechanical manipulation of obligatory forms of subjunctive usage is possible, the question of subjunctive choice in some cases proves more difficult. A course based on the tenets of programmed instruction can go a long way towards solving problems of teaching the subjunctive where subjective choice is involved.

[The author develops at length an actual example of how such a programme could be drawn up.] By a careful procedure of grading and repetition techniques it is possible for the student to obtain an instinctive feeling of whether the subjunctive is apposite or not in any particular case.