Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

70–31   Apelt, Walter. Bewußtheit und imitativ-automatischer Spracherwerb im modernen Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Conscious and imitative-automatic learning in modern foreign language methodology.] *Zeitschrift für Anglistik und Amerikanistik* (Leipzig), **17**, 3 (1969), 265–73, and *Contact* (Aarau), 13 (1969), 13–19.

Conscious and imitative-automatic language learning are not mutually exclusive. They should be combined but the proportion of one to the other will depend on the age and intellectual maturity of the students. Older learners need more explanation because of their more advanced conceptual development. For younger pupils intensive learning should follow plenty of imitative practice conducted only in the foreign language. Conscious learning must not be confused with translation, which is not a method of teaching but an additional skill needing special training. Drills should always be set in context, otherwise monotony will characterize learning by repetition and this will destroy motivation which is one of the main determiners of success. Emphasis must not be laid on theoretical knowledge of grammar as if it were a goal in itself. Its role is to show the basic structure of the language on to which increasing dexterity in usage will be built.

70–32   Chastain, Kenneth. The audio-lingual habit theory versus the cognitive code-learning theory. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **7**, 2 (1969), 97–106.

Since it has been realized that language acquisition is not merely a matter of overlearning, the audio-lingual method has been challenged on both theoretical and practical grounds by the cognitive code-learning theory. Based on recently discovered neuro-physiological facts, cognitive code-learning theories disagree with audio-lingual

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habit theories on what language is and how it is acquired. Although habitual actions are performed without conscious thought, they are not acquired without it. Opinions on these theories must be examined in the light of adequately controlled research and classroom experience. Present knowledge is far from static and the language teacher should remain receptive to continuing innovations in the field.

70–33 **Irteneva, N. F.** Die Nominalisierung und ihre Rolle im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Nominalization and its role in the teaching of foreign languages.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **6**, 2 (1969), 98–102.

The syntactic structure of English can be shown in a hyperparadigm consisting of four paradigms which illustrate rule mechanisms. The paradigm of the nominal phrase seems to cause certain linguists some difficulty, as the rules for nominalizing transformations have not been fully elaborated so far.

Each paradigm is a hierarchy of rules and structures. That of the nominal phrase consists of three levels. [Levels described and examples given.]

Reference is made to an article by Winter, *Transforms without Kernels?* (*Language*, **41**, 3/1 (1965), 484–9, in which the nominalizing transformation T_{Adj} that converts *T-N-is-Adj* into *T-Adj-N* is criticized and examples are given to prove it inadequate. The author refutes the criticism by showing that the *Adj* elements in the examples given by Winter are not normal adjectives but irregular exceptions.

The problem of ambiguities resulting from nominalizing transformation is dealt with. Here a thorough knowledge of the various types of kernel sentences, base structures, phrase markers, and of the valency of verbs is important for the student of a foreign language. [A list is given of kernel sentences and resulting nominal phrases used in language teaching in the USSR.] This knowledge and the ability to translate difficult surface structures into simple deep structures help the student to understand complex and unknown sentences. [Description of test.]

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70–34   Kiln, George. Our unrealistic language program. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 5 (1969), 722–7.

Recent dramatic reforms in language teaching do not appear to have greatly increased American students' competence in foreign languages. There is a danger in overemphasizing the importance of language laboratories and teaching machines. The audio-lingual approach is more meaningful but has been hampered by inadequate time for learning. Two to three years is not sufficient for a student whose major subject is not a language. Where the audio-lingual method is used in secondary schools beginning a language in the seventh grade, it has been more successful. We must abandon attempts to achieve speaking fluency for non-majors for this goal is unrealistic. The aim should be a reading knowledge of a language. Much of the work necessary to achieve this can be done privately, whereas the spoken skill demands practice and immediate correction. Grammar can be much simplified to enable reading ability. Genders need not be memorized. Most universities prepare doctoral candidates for a reading examination in a foreign language in one semester, and in four semesters it should be possible for all students to become skilful readers. For language majors, nothing but thorough immersion in the language is satisfactory. A foreign milieu should be created where the foreign language becomes a social need. Diplomats, business men and journalists will need complete mastery of their foreign language. For the academic community language is an indispensable tool to extend the frontiers of knowledge.

70–35   Oller, John W. and Dean H. Obrecht. The psycholinguistic principle of informational sequence: an experiment in second language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **7**, 2 (1969), 117–23.

An experiment was designed to test the hypothesis that informational sequence, IS (a psycholinguistic principle involving semantic and pragmatic considerations restricting the order of utterances in communicative events), is a useful device which facilitates the learning of a foreign language. First-year high-school learners of Spanish were

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used for the experiment, being presented with two short dialogues to learn in each lesson, one constructed according to IS principles and the other not, and it was shown that the students learned much more rapidly and accurately where IS was observed, providing chronological and causal relationships to aid the memory.

70–36   **Roulet, E.** Linguistique appliquée et méthodologie des langues vivantes. [Applied linguistics and the methodology of language teaching.] *Contact* (Aarau, 12 (1969), 12–21.

An urgent need in modern language teaching is for good structural exercises for use in the language laboratory. The composition of these is made easier by the fresh insights into language given by the new analyses known as distributional, tagmemic and transformational grammar. A brief description of these three systems is given with a view particularly to their application to teaching methodology. An appeal is made for the establishment of university centres of applied linguistics to coordinate and further research in this field.

70–37   **Stern, H. H.** Foreign language learning and the new view of first-language acquisition. *Child Study* (University of Toronto), **30**, 4 (1968/9), 25–36.

Recently there has been criticism of earlier insistence on the dominance of learning and environmental influence in language acquisition. Stronger emphasis is now laid on the biological foundations of language. A special 'language acquisition device' is postulated, which enables a child to seek out linguistic processes and construct his own language from the data offered by his environment. The new view of language attributes importance to the common features of all languages—vocal, structural, an arrangement of units of increasing complexity. The effect for language teachers is that emphasis is shifting from an insistence on habit-forming practice to attention to the innovative, productive aspect of language. Phoneticians now think of the child as first acquiring sound *patterns*, rather than isolated mother-tongue sounds. The only view that accords with earlier presentations

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is that listening and understanding precede productive use and these are now seen as productive, not passive processes. The new view makes the difficulties of knowing how to teach foreign languages even greater. It appears that the 'language acquisition device' atrophies as the child reaches maturity—this reinforces the demand for language-teaching in elementary schools. It need not, however, be assumed that a statement about first-language learning necessarily relates to second-language learning. Once language development has taken place in an infant it produces a lasting structural change and a new language learnt later is filtered through and modified by the first language. The learning process is therefore different. The presence of the first language cannot be ignored by the teacher. Insights derived from the study of mother-tongue acquisition must be looked upon as imaginative interpretations when applied to second-language teaching. The difficulties of second-language learning must be given serious attention in developing a general theory of language acquisition, for they can contribute as much as the observation of verbal behaviour, first-language acquisition or speech pathology. [Bibliography.]

70–38   **Stern, H. H.** Psycholinguistics and second-language teaching. *English Quarterly* (Waterloo, Ontario), **2**, 2 (1969), 14–24.

The attempt to apply the psychology of language and language acquisition directly to second-language learning can be problematic. Nevertheless psycholinguistics can provide certain ideas and attitudes which will influence the methodology of language teaching. Three such ideas are that: (1) language-learning is a complex process, and a study of psycholinguistics can counteract primitivism in language teaching; (2) languages are ordered systems but we do not yet know how to impart the intuitive grasp everyone has of the structure of his native language; (3) it is possible for teachers, preoccupied with details of structure, to forget that language is used for communication; psycholinguistics emphasizes the human being as a user of language. [Sketch of the development of psycholinguistics.] Three different models of language are revealed by psycholinguistics: the *sequential* model, in which utterances are seen as links in a chain that we produce,

the *associationist* model—we never think of words alone, they always relate to something else; and the *competence* model, which enables a native speaker to distinguish well-formed sentences from nonsense, or interpret semi-sentences. These three models have been used in the study of the three major themes of psycholinguistics: language acqui-sition, use, and the relationship between language and meaning, emotion and culture.

Conclusions for second-language teaching which arise out of this study are: (1) that one cannot be dogmatic about language-teaching method, more than one approach will be useful, (2) the student's mother tongue cannot be ignored as it gives him one frame of reference and the teacher is helping him to construct another, (3) students can cooperate in the learning process; they need practice, particularly in simulated contexts that are meaningful, but they also need explana-tion. [Bibliography.]

70–39   Titone, Renzo. A psycholinguistic model of grammar learn-ing and foreign language teaching. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata* (Rome), **1**, 1 (1969), 35–52.

A pedagogical grammar will result from combining linguistic with psychological grammar. The characteristics of an adequate psycho-linguistic model of grammar are examined. It should explain how grammatical sequences are encoded and decoded in communication contexts and how the learner acquires the ability to encode and decode. It will be concerned with the linguistic aptitude and mental develop-ment of the learner. Some individuals have greater 'inductive language learning ability'. They will need fewer facts to be able to deduce rules by analogy than others with less facility. Psychological grammar seeks to discover which patterns are essential for the basic functions of expression and communication.

Grammatical patterns are perceived as whole and organized. Com-petence in using structure is acquired by repetition which, once the task to be performed has been understood, ensures control of details of performance and smooths out the physical (or psychological) frictions inherent in initial articulation.

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A tentative psycholinguistic model of grammar will consist of (1) association of elementary linguistic units, (2) induction and integration, (3) deduction. The model needs detailed adaptation to the process of acquiring a second language. In mature learners association and induction are developed more rapidly.

At the beginner's level grammar teaching must try to create linguistic feeling; at a more advanced level grammar will have to provide systematic awareness of the structure of the language. Pedagogy must proceed from practice to theory, from functional mastery to conscious study.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

70–40   Shipley, Elizabeth F., Carlota S. Smith, and Lila R. Gleitman. A study in the acquisition of language: free responses to commands. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **45**, 2, part 1 (1969), 322–42.

Psychologists who have observed the development of language in a small child have attempted to describe a child's organization of linguistic material by inference from his 'telegraphic' utterances. Even at an early stage of speech words are not haphazardly ordered. An experiment is reported on the spontaneous responses of young children to commands differing in structural format and semantic content. Results indicate that syntactic comprehension exceeds production in 'telegraphic' speakers. From these results conjectures are offered about the techniques which a child might use in coping with his linguistic environment.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

70–41   Kobersky, Eva. Testing recognition and production with oral stimuli (experiments being carried out at the Department of Linguistics at the Centre Universitaire in Mons, Belgium). *Contact* (Aarau), 12 (1969), 22–4.

Potential students at the Ecole d'Interprètes Internationaux are tested for their knowledge of French. They are also given an aptitude test for

language learning, as they are required to learn two completely new languages to interpreter's standard in¦ two years. The aptitude test, which has to be suitable for students of various mother tongues, aims to reveal ability to recognize and reproduce foreign phonemic contrasts. Hungarian was chosen for the test. Through three batteries of five minimal-pair sentences, recognition and reproduction of intonation, double versus single consonant, and long versus short vowel in unstressed syllables, are tested. Instructions for the test are given in French and it lasts four minutes. Native Hungarian speakers score the results. All students are tested at the same time in a tele-directed language laboratory. The aptitude test is validated at intervals with revised tests containing new samples. Comparison of results should show if the aptitude test has successfully predicted ability to study foreign languages.

70–42 **Nehls, Dietrich.** Report on the meeting of experts on language testing in adult education held at the residential college for adult education at Göhrde, W. Germany, June 12–15, 1968. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **7**, 2 (1969), 133–48.

This conference, organized by Nowacek, head of the federal testing centre in foreign languages of the German Adult Education Federation, provides in its report a valuable summary of available aptitude and proficiency tests, showing contemporary aims and procedures. The conference was divided into two groups, one concerned with the testing of English as a foreign language and the other with testing French.

SYLLABUSES

70–43 **Morgan, D. Y.** Structurally graded syllabuses. *Bulletin of the Central Institute of English* (Hyderabad), 6 (1966/7), 13–21.

The selection and grading of syntactical features was once considered of little concern to the teacher. Then the London Institute of Education and other teacher-training establishments began to promote a

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methodology with emphasis on selection and grading of both struc-
tures and vocabulary.

Structurally graded syllabuses have led to great improvements in the
teaching of English as a foreign language, but hopes have not been
entirely fulfilled. There was little contact between advocates of a
structural syllabus and advocates of the linguistic approach. Some-
times the linguistic approach was badly applied. A so-called linguistic
comparison between two languages was often no more than a study in
contrastive phonology. The best language-teaching along the lines
suggested by Jespersen and Palmer was very effective.

Linguistics can be better applied now that it treats grammatical
and semantic features more fully. There is no need for the linguistic
approach to be at odds with the structural syllabus. A structural
syllabus is not a self-contained methodology. It must be embodied
in sound textbooks. The textbook writer's role is extremely important.
The stage after the pupils have left the graded syllabus has received
insufficient attention. There must not be a sudden plunge away from
restricted exposure to the language and controlled practice of it. The
potential of the structural syllabus as an aid to reading has been under-
exploited.

TEACHING METHODS

70–44   **Cole, Leo.** The structured dialogue: an attempt to integrate
structural and situational approaches to language teaching.
IRAL (Heidelberg), **7**, 2 (1969), 125–32.

A structural and a situational approach to language teaching are not
mutually exclusive. Dialogue is essential to the situational approach.
Its conversational character provides a stimulus–response interchange
and alleviates boredom from the repetitious nature of drills. With
imagination and good use of visuals, questions and answers can be
produced which can stimulate curiosity. Practice in *learning* and
practice in *using* the language must be carefully distinguished. It is
usually the drills for learning the language which come under attack.
Some progressive audio-visual courses show a haphazard choice and

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ordering of items in the drills. Structures, vocabulary items and idioms are made to subserve the situation or theme, but the same linguistic criteria should be observed as for structural drills. Spaced repetition is most valuable, enabling a firm build-up of associative networks. Intensive question-and-answer work can be performed without the books, ensuring that the learner is using his memory to the full.

CLASS METHODS

70-45 Galisson, Robert. Le dialogue dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. [Dialogue in foreign-language learning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 63 (1969), 6–11.

During the last twenty years language teachers have come to concentrate on the spoken language using dialogue as a means of teaching. Many structures cannot be used in isolation in normal language and more realistic and therefore more valuable practice is provided by dialogue than by isolated drills. Subjects should be chosen which will appeal to the class in which they will be used. A class of mixed sexes and nationalities will cause difficulties and only neutral subjects could be used there, which will not be entirely satisfactory for any group. Wording of the dialogues should be chosen from language in very common use: choice of food from a menu, commentary on politics, sport, topical events, encounter between a driver and a policeman, or a traffic accident. The rule of the three unities is cited as a good guide to the necessary concentration of the dialogue to avoid posing the student extra-linguistic problems. For beginners two speakers or at the most three will suffice, more will confuse. The dialogue should be short and a story element will help memorization. If other small anecdotes and dialogues can be developed from it so much the better, but obviously the form is of prime importance for teaching purposes. The proportion of nouns, verbs and adjectives calculated in *Français Fondamental, 1er degré* should be reflected in the composition of the dialogue. There is no need to repeat structures as dialogue is an instrument of presentation, not of reinforcement. Visual aids are of

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limited use; a flannel board, for instance, cannot represent aspect or development. Finally there must be true dialogue. The speakers should have contradictory or incomplete information and show a genuine desire for conversation.

TEACHING AIDS

70–46   Corder, S. Pit. Technology and language teaching. *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **16**, 3 (1969), 186–91.

Effective use of technical aids in language teaching depends on matching the machine's performance to that of the learner. It is the job of the psycholinguist to discover and describe learning strategies, just as it is the teacher's job to ensure that the learner has available to him at each stage all the data necessary for him to arrive at the solution either by an inductive or deductive process. The technologist merely provides us with an account of what the machine can or cannot do, and we must not mistake this description for a statement of the content of the auditory or visual data which the machine passes on. The characteristic limitation of current equipment is that it will reproduce any given message or data tirelessly, but that it is largely unable to vary the content or approach of its output to suit the varying needs of the learner. In the present state of things, only the teacher can do this: the inflexibility of the machine ensures that it cannot effectively replace him, but only be regarded as an aid to supplement his efforts.

70–47   Országh, Ladislas. Wanted: better English dictionaries. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 216–22.

From a foreign user's viewpoint one of the chief deficiencies of English monolingual dictionaries is the treatment of phraseology. Idiomatic locutions, standing combinations of two or three words, and word-associations need to be fully listed. Such dictionaries often omit clear indication of the sphere of applicability of many of their words. Emotive connotations and stylistic range should also be in-

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cluded. Subjective judgement will always have a role to play. The new-type dictionary will have to limit strictly the number of head-words. Etymologies should be left out, and quotations severely curtailed.

TEXTBOOKS

70–48 **Belasco, Simon.** Towards the acquisition of linguistic competence: from contrived to controlled materials. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 3 (1969), 185–205.

A pedagogical system based solely on drills, dialogues and similarly contrived materials cannot cover the many idiosyncratic rules of a language. A dialogue-drill grammar cannot adequately teach sentence embedding. Even good students under ideal teaching conditions will learn a language in different ways and contrived foreign language materials cannot take into account individual differences between students. *Controlled* materials attempt to bridge the gap between learning to recognize and liberated listening and reading. Use should be made of 'live' written texts (stories, newspaper articles, etc.) and recorded broadcasts, soundtracks of films, etc. None of this is deliberately designed to give the learner *active* control of the concepts involved, but it will help him to produce correct utterances once he has internalized the abstract transformational rules which convert deep structure into surface structure. [Examples of reading modules, using bilingual 'live' texts, for work with written questions, laboratory listening, dictation, and grammar work in class are provided.] All students will not understand the same portions of the texts but after work on six or seven selections each will make considerable improvement in listening comprehension. These controlled materials will minimize the amount of 'puzzle-solving' in learning to read a foreign language and are designed to overcome the individual differences between students.

AURAL AIDS

70–49   Agatstein, Michael. A tape recorder talks back. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 5 (1969), 728–34.

Commercial tapes for language teaching are, for many reasons, not always satisfactory and a teacher can enrich his teaching by planning and making his own tapes either as an individual or as part of departmental activity. Points to bear in mind are (1) to speak in a normal voice at a speed which the class can handle, (2) to set the digital counter at zero at the beginning of a tape and keep a record in footage of the subject-matter covered, making sure that the machine is set for recording, (3) to personalize the tapes, introducing a little humour where possible, (4) to provide variety within the time limit (a maximum of twenty minutes), (5) to use other voices, native speakers if possible. Four categories of tape which have proved valuable to the author are (1) aural comprehension tapes, (2) audio-lingual tapes adding conversation to comprehension, (3) grammar-drill tapes, tailor-made to arise out of passages recently read, which give a spontaneity that commercial tapes cannot have, (4) special-event tapes of varying types and lengths which become part of a permanent library. These can be recordings from the radio or short illustrated lectures on French music or art (using slides as well). A further suggestion, if a portable, cassette-type recorder is available, is to conduct personal interviews with "the student on the street".

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

70–50   Gutschow, Harald. Zum Problem der Situationsbezogenheit von Sprachlaborübungen. [The problem of setting language laboratory exercises in context.] *Programmiertes Lernen und Programmierter Unterricht* (Berlin), **6**, 2 (1969), 49–56.

The article suggests the principles by which speech phenomena can best be combined with pedagogical needs for language laboratory exercises. The exercise should be limited to the precise point which is

being drilled. Student motivation can only be maintained if such drills are treated as part of the whole situation of class teaching. An ideal learning situation can rarely be created in the classroom and only the teacher's imagination can bring about an approximation to it.

A practice system is worked out which can only be attained after the goals have been clearly defined and combined into an exercise typology. Chromečka's typology is cited, dividing exercises into four groups: imitative, structural, dialogue, free speech. Eight subcategories of structural exercise are listed. Brandt has also attempted to classify exercises into a typology and suggests comprehension exercises, imitative exercises, exercises allowing variation, and speech facility drills. There is much in common between the formative principles propounded by the author and these various classifications.

From the typology a system of exercises is built leading gradually to free expression. The exercises must correspond to the increasing ability of the pupils. Linguistic context (which identifies the two meanings of one word) is not the same as situation (which increases the student's motivation by removing some of the boredom of the exercises). Too much embedding in a situation may make exercises too complicated. Emphasis should not be laid on the drilling period at the expense of the follow-up session.

Different types of exercise, formal, contextual, item-contextual, and dramatic-situational, are examined. Context and situation are seen to be valuable for pattern practice if they enrich it. They should not be sought after merely as the mark of a 'modern' approach.

70–51   Moser, Richard and Dieter Symma. Die Nacherzählung im Sprachlabor. [Reproduction exercises in the language laboratory.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), **16**, 2 (1969), 191–6.

Stressing the need to promote more creative and stimulating manipulation of language by fifth-form pupils (*Obersekundaner*) than is offered by mechanical structure drilling, Moser describes procedures for aural–oral comprehension, repetition and reproduction work on short continuous passages by whole class groups in an audio-active-

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comparative laboratory. At first, reproduction of the original text is attempted only by three selected pupils. The remainder of the class concentrates on the analysis of errors made by these selected pupils by comparing the recording of their versions of the passage with that of the original passage. Only after this does the rest of the class begin repetition and reproduction work on the original passage.

Symma examines the objections to Moser's procedures and suggests alternatives designed to minimize the risk of the excessive passivity of most of the class and to avoid the danger of reinforcement of pupils' own errors which could easily result from Moser's first error-analysis phase.

TERTIARY STUDENTS

70–52 **De Silva, Clare.** On teaching English as a second language at the university level. *How* (Bucaramanga, Colombia), 14 (1969), 3–7.

The student's ultimate purpose in studying English must be borne in mind. The time available for study is the next factor and from that time hours will be allotted according to the goal in view. Texts must be chosen to fit the aims of the course and other teaching aids need to be carefully evaluated so that the staff is able to make maximum use of expensive equipment. Stability of staff will be very important in maintaining the quality of work. Weekly staff seminars to review current literature in applied linguistics and discuss teaching methodology help to keep staff alert and cooperative. Staff can also be helped by exchange programmes and grants for advanced degrees abroad. Plans must be made for testing students and for course evaluation. A clearly defined goal and a conscientious, objective examination of methods and materials will indicate areas where concentration of effort should be greater or less.

70–53   Wheeler, J. A. Defining aims in university language teaching. *Babel* (Melbourne), **5**, 1 (1969), 2–4.

University language departments are quite sure that their function is not to train future language teachers, yet those who do take up teaching feel that they themselves have not been adequately taught. University courses may have too literary a bias and even in this field individual lecturers may be approaching literature in different ways and there may be no coherent departmental approach. If students are expected to be fluent in speech and writing, capable of understanding and reading, the language teaching will have to be carefully coordinated. If language teaching is divided among several lecturers each year, no one will have an over-all picture of the students' capabilities. If some students only pursue the language for one year, they have special needs and should not merely drop out of a three-year course part of the way through. Language-laboratory work cannot be grafted on to a traditional course. It must be part of the whole teaching approach or not used at all. A Ph.D. is not the best qualification for language teaching at university level. A sound grounding in language methodology is needed and experience at secondary school level. Heads of departments should organize a course of seminars for those already engaged in this complex activity, calling in people from the education departments to help. Aims may vary from one university to another as courses at the new English universities show, but it is essential that clearly thought-out aims should exist.

SPECIAL CLASSES OF STUDENTS

70–54   Baumbach, Rudolf. Zur Problematik der Fachsprachen. [Problems of special uses of language.] *Metodická Sdělení* (Olomouc), 1 (1969), 1–5.

Although foreign languages are increasing in importance, there is much confusion surrounding the special uses of language. Often it is only one facet of language which is used in a special way, namely a specialized vocabulary. Grammar and the general vocabulary from

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which specialized words have been taken and given special meanings, remains generally valid. Communication which is limited to one specialized object is usually to be found in the written form. It is therefore doubtful whether there is any need to speak of a *language* of specialisms though linguists are discovering special syntactic as well as lexical features in such language. If the language of specialisms is seen as a special register of normal speech this will prevent its isolation, especially as technical vocabulary grows out of everyday vocabulary. This is borne out by the method of teaching specialized language, building on to a basic knowledge of everyday language which has to be acquired first. Postgraduate students learning a language alongside their own discipline constitute an exception. They will learn vocabulary connected with their own subject first and basic grammatical structures will be added during language instruction.

IMMIGRANTS

70–55   Klyhn, Joan. On the integration into school of young immigrant children. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 261–8.

Every school with immigrant children has different problems. For some children English is their native language, for others it is a foreign language, and some speak a non-standard dialect of English. Children in these categories are not evenly distributed. Formal language training is not very appropriate for young immigrant children. Learning the language should be an element of every part of the school day. English-speaking pupils can be used to help non-English-speaking ones. They can also be used as teachers and can prepare tapes and dialogues. Resources within the school, and community resources, can be explored. Young immigrant children should not be isolated in a special class, though special materials should be prepared for them. It is wasteful to ignore what they learn in daily life. A sequence of patterns can be an accomplishment guide, but should not restrict children who need more advanced patterns out of sequence. The immigrant child's cultural heritage must not be ignored.

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BILINGUAL STUDENTS

70–56   Clyne, Michael G. Transference patterns among English–German bilinguals—a comparative study. *Review for Applied Linguistics* (Louvain), 2 (1968), 5–17.

An examination of the features transferred from one language to another by bilinguals of various languages reveals diversity with apparently conflicting causes. This study attempts to categorize types and causes of transference under the headings of morphosemantic, morphological, syntactic and phonic transference. Reasons for such transference appear to be: connexion of an item with a certain setting, economy of semantic structure and articulatory or syntactic economy. A hypothesis of interference beginning at deep-structure level is worked out in the symbols of transformational grammar.

70–57   Fishman, Joshua, Toni D. Berney, Heriberto Casiano, Robert L. Cooper, Martin Edelman, Sheldon Fertig, Joav Findling, Lawrence Greenfield, Judah Ronch, Stuart H. Silverman and Charles E. Terry. Bilingualism in the 'barrio'. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Missouri), **53**, 3 (1969), 151–205, and **53**, 4 (1969), 227–58.

[These two issues are devoted largely to a survey of bilingualism among Puerto Ricans, examining the measurement and description of bilingualism, press coverage of Puerto Rican problems, and bilingualism in schoolchildren. The papers are selected from a large report which it is planned to publish in full in 1970–1.]

70–58   Thévenin, André. Accroissement du vocabulaire chez des enfants bilingues. [Vocabulary growth in bilingual children.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 64 (1969), 18–25.

An eight-part test, constructed to measure the amount of vocabulary acquired in both French and Spanish, was administered to a class of six- to seven-year-olds in Montevideo, 1966. The results were compared with the children's real ages and a 'linguistic' age established for

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them in each language. [Details given.] Further study is being undertaken of the extra-linguistic circumstances which affect the development of bilingual teaching in French schools abroad, and the role of intelligence in learning a second language. While the more intelligent pupils appear not to suffer at all, the others develop much more slowly.

SPEECH

70–59   Ure, Jean N. Practical registers (B). *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 206–15.

Many overseas students are linguistically incompetent to deal with practical situations in an English-speaking community. A text collection was made to help students with language in action. Language features must be separated from situational ones. [The writer gives examples of language used as part of some non-linguistic social activity.] Collecting texts of this kind is difficult. [The writer mentions some of the difficulties, including the problems of acceptability and verbal interference, and the fact that once action language is collected, the situation is changed and the patterning distorted. She describes how adequate texts for classroom use can be collected, and deals with the research aspect.] Acceptable texts can be obtained through games because of the relaxed atmosphere and because there is ordered progress. Other possibilities exist in schools where English is the medium. Forfeits and the school exercise of explaining the differences between similar objects were also used, as well as spoken and written consultation. Two sets of texts were added for contrast. The corpus contained 33 texts, totalling about 22,000 words. The collection was made in the first place for purposes of exemplification. Students are best made aware of one kind of language by comparing it with another. [Examples of register patterning.] Register discrimination cannot be taught prescriptively, but needs to be based on intensive study of chosen texts.

GRAMMAR

70–60   Arndt, Horst. Wissenschaftliche Grammatik und pädago-
gische Grammatik. [Scientific and pedagogical grammar.]
Neusprachliche Mitteilungen (Berlin), **22**, 2 (1969), 65–76.

There is no ideal scientific grammar which can be used as a basis for
a teaching grammar. Each scientific grammar will clarify only one
aspect of a language. In deciding which will be most helpful to him
a teacher will take into account extra-linguistic factors, including the
teaching purpose. Traditional, structural and transformational-
generative grammars are examined in turn to discover their principal
characteristics. It is noted that the three are derived from one unity,
the English language. For teachers, however, there are two—the spoken
and the written language, with complications of dialects, registers and
keys. These have to be indicated to the more advanced student, but the
three grammars, which are to a large extent a-semantic, cannot help
here. The aim in teaching a student English cannot be global; one
dialect, presumably 'the speech of an educated Englishman or Ameri-
can', will be chosen, and the registers suitable to that dialect. The
Gymnasium preparing its students for university may make a different
choice from the *Hauptschule*. If a pupil changes from *Hauptschule* to
Gymnasium this will not mean learning some additional grammatical
terms but the change will go deeper, from the language of everyday
conversation to the formal, largely written, language. Until sufficient
linguistic investigation has been carried out, the decision on dialect
and registers remains part of the feeling for language possessed by the
trained teacher.

VOCABULARY

70–61   Sommer, Gerhard. Zu einigen Problemen bei der Festle-
gung obligatorischer lexikalischer Minima. [Some prob-
lems encountered in establishing essential lexical minima.]
Fremdsprachenunterricht (Berlin), **13**, 1 (1969), 39–48.

Establishing exactly which lexical items a student learning a foreign
language should absorb is an essential condition for planning a lan-

guage course. Despite recent advances in research into essential lexical minima many aspects require constant reconsideration.

Selection depends largely on the degree of proficiency the student is aiming at and the aspect of the language on which he is concentrating. [The criteria used for the selection and the principles underlying the choice of these criteria are defined.]

Special attention is devoted to the criterion of frequency, which is particularly important, though problematic. The reliability of frequency counts could be improved if the material used for such counts was wider in numerical scope as well as being geared to the aim of the particular teaching programme. The criterion of topic is considered as being rather weak and requiring further research.

The second part of the article deals with the specific task of establishing an essential lexical minimum to be used in training future teachers of Russian (German mother tongue) for the oral part of their teaching work. Among the principles on which the choice of criteria for selection of lexical items is based, those of maximum communicative value and smallest possible learning effort are given special consideration. The principles determining the value and efficiency of selection criteria and those influencing the method of selection of lexical items are discussed. [A table showing the system of principles and selection criteria developed by the author is given.]

70–62   West, Michael. Vocabulary selection. *Scuola e Lingue Moderne* (Modena), **7**, 1 (1969), 4–10.

Limited vocabularies were first used for the reading approach to language teaching and the selection of words was made from printed material, largely literary. A word-frequency list is a guide to vocabulary selection but used alone it can be a hindrance and encourage the purely structural and grammar type of teaching with a paucity of content words. A selected vocabulary may be used to rewrite a textbook on some technical subject. [Four steps in the technique of vocabulary construction are described.] Recognizing that many students are taught in large classes by an untrained teacher, a minimum adequate speech vocabulary (MAV) was constructed and a self-teaching course

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written within it. MAV lacks certain things. One is a method of dealing with 'definers' such as 'tube' or 'jelly' or 'stick'. [These appear in the word-list of Basic English and in the author's dictionary.] There must be some 'behaviour' words in a minimum vocabulary such as 'Excuse me', and, at a higher stage, some emphatic and emotional words will be needed. Any language laboratory course needs an MAV with its extras in the way of definers and behaviourisms.

READING

70–63   **King, Janet K.** A reading program for realists. *German Quarterly* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **42**, 1 (1969), 65–80.

Opinions diverge on the value of reading in foreign language learning. Some of the reasoning behind these opinions is examined. West's suggestions have been borne out by applied linguistic and psycholinguistic research. He believed that reading should give the student both pleasure and a sense of achievement and to this end one new word in fifty running words of text was the limit of acceptability. Recent studies indicate that silent speech plays a significant role in comprehension and therefore pronunciation skills are important. Recent findings also indicate that foreign language reading should be conducted with concurrent English introduction and clarification of the main ideas in the text.

How much reading to assign and how to check home reading in class are still problems for teachers. A solution is to ask for both intensive and extensive reading in the same text—intensive reading being limited to a paragraph and involving translating and learning by heart. Words are then learned in context. Questioning in class can aid the development of command of German structures. Students have to be encouraged to read extensively for meaning without dictionary reference, otherwise they may feel that without intensive study they will be unable to understand.

70-64   Pohl, Lothar. Zur Vorbereitung der Schüler auf eine ratio-
nelle Verwendung des Wörterbuches. [Preparing the pupil
for a reasoned use of the dictionary.] *Fremdsprachenun-
terricht* (Berlin), **13**, 6 (1969), 277–80 and 290.

Reading speech will be much greater if a student fully understands the
complexity of using a dictionary. The difficulty of finding a word
depends on whether the word is simple, a derivative, a compound, a
catchword or group of catchwords. [Examples are given of sentences
containing words or word groups in all these categories.] If a quarter
of an hour per week for up to six weeks is set aside for a systematic
introduction to the use of a dictionary, taking one of these categories at
a time, pupils should rapidly become accustomed to dictionary usage.
Later the pupils can be given catchwords in phonetic script and taught
to decipher them silently and then look them up. With a large dic-
tionary, practice can be given with the phonetic script on proper
names whose pronunciation is rarely guessable.

70-65   Rudd, J. C. A new approach to reading efficiency. *English
Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 231–7.

Students from and in the developing countries commonly read very
slowly and with insufficient comprehension. Reading is often thought
to be only a sound-reproducing skill. Most people can improve their
reading speed without loss of comprehension. The main purpose of
reading is to acquire information. Large numbers of books should be
available as an incentive to read fast. Few schools in developing
countries have adequate libraries. Children are not introduced to the
pleasures of reading and are seldom encouraged to read outside the
textbook.

[The writer describes reading improvement courses organized at
Leeds and in Ghana.] To ensure permanent improvement, extensive
reading is necessary. With the help of continuous reading the idea of
looking for general argument and lines of development is implanted.
The reading of short passages followed by multichoice questions on
details encourages a short-term memory approach.

[A note on pacing material and apparatus used is appended.]

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ENGLISH *See also abstracts* 70–42, –43, –47, –52

70–66   Baird, Alexander. Literature overseas: the question of linguistic competence. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 279–83.

Some mastery of language skills is needed before one can study literature, but it is difficult to provide a foreign learner with the sort of language experience a native speaker brings to the study of his own literature. The study of English literature is sometimes justified on the ground that it fosters clear argument and impartiality, that it gives the student access to certain ideas, or that it conveys something of the English background. These results can be obtained in other ways. The study of literature in another tongue may cause a student to lose his own cultural roots and give up the struggle to develop his own society, but literature has a certain universality in that it is concerned with the response of human beings to the world. Literature can also be seen as the key to a language's potential strengths and weaknesses when compared with the student's mother tongue. Judgements about the literary quality of a text are not needed with foreign students of English, but critical attention should be paid to linguistic usage. The learner can be introduced at an early stage to short passages of good English, not as texts for comprehension, but as sources of pleasure.

70–67   Baskoff, Florence. A writing laboratory for beginning students of English. *Journal of English as a Second Language* (New York), **3**, 2 (1968), 83–92.

The best ways of learning to write in any language are (1) to be exposed to the different rhetorical forms of the language through extensive reading, and (2) to have intensive practice in the actual writing of compositions. The American Language Institute of New York found that adult students taught by audio-lingual and structural methods were only able to write in the kind of brief sentences they had learned to manipulate orally in class. Idioms, connectors, adverbials of time and place were lacking. Students had limited reading experience in the second language, there might be cultural interference because of a

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different literary style in their own language. Some were shy of attempting to write. The analysis of problems helped to limit the goals set in writing. Subjects had to be within the student's experience and model compositions showed him how to organize his information and provided him with a repertory of words and phrases. Two hours a week were spent on writing and each lesson consisted of (1) a model composition, (2) a quotation or epigram on the subject, (3) lists of special vocabulary items, expressions and idioms, (4) comprehension questions on the model paragraph, (5) reference to a particular grammatical structure used in the lesson, with provision for pattern drill on the item, (6) comment on a point of punctuation or style, (7) an outline model for use by the student in his own writing, (8) quizzes on the model. After three semesters there was improvement in paragraph indentation, spelling, punctuation, capitalization and grammatical usage. Students gained in confidence and acquired a more positive attitude to writing. [A specimen lesson is given.]

70–68 **Breitenstein, P. H.** How to start reading poetry in class. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 283–9.

The author describes in detail a first lesson in English poetry, using Rossetti's *Remember*, given to a class of sixteen-year-old pupils in the Netherlands. He adopts a question-and-answer approach, with the purpose of overcoming initial aversion and opening the pupils' minds to poetry. He suggests that a few months later another approach can be tried, in which the pupils hear the poem as a whole first and then study it in small groups before discussing it under the teacher's guidance.

70–69 **Emslie, Macdonald.** Hamlet and Hamilton. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 289–98.

One difficulty in first-year university teaching in English literature is that of overcoming the superficial familiarity with major writers which students acquire at school. A detailed comparison between Shakespeare's famous soliloquy from *Hamlet* 'To be or not to be' and a

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poem on the same theme written after the battle of Culloden by Wil-
liam Hamilton of Bangour, the Scots Jacobite poet, shows how this
superficial familiarity can be overcome and a familiar passage brought
to life. [Detailed analysis.] Such a comparison could eventually lead to
a discussion on why the Romantics admired Shakespeare, involving
literary history with practical criticism.

70–70   Garner, John E. and Noel W. Schutz. The 'missing link'
in our English instruction. *Journal of English as a Second
Language* (New York), **4**, 1 (1969), 35–45.

The 'missing link' is a method of instruction which will bridge the
gap between classroom drill situations and communication outside the
classroom. Course design should include a manipulation phase and a
communication phase. The manipulation phase will consist largely of
pattern drills in which the focus is on form and the ability to produce
it. The communication phase will shift attention to the content or
meaning. [The author proposes three types of classroom activity—
the situation drill, the contrast drill, and narrative.] Narrative activity
is the heart of the course design. It begins as question-and-answer
and develops towards free conversation. [Example.] The approach is
interesting and integrates a number of language skills.

70–71   Gefen, Raphael. The teaching of English in the schools of
Israel. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969),
274–9.

In Israel most Jewish pupils learn English as the first foreign language,
while Arab pupils learn it after Hebrew. English is compulsory from the
age of ten. The main emphasis is at first on speaking, dramatization,
and audio-visual techniques. New syllabuses and textbooks are being
produced.

  In institutions of higher education and teacher-training English is
compulsory. Secondary-school teachers of English are trained in
university departments of education, elementary-school teachers in
teachers' colleges. There are regular in-service courses.

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The audio-lingual approach is generally adopted. A major difficulty is the weak English of elementary-school teachers.

Research and experiment are taking place, particularly at Tel Aviv University. There are radio and TV programmes for schools. The Harvard Direct-Graded Method and the Initial Teaching Alphabet have been tried. There is a small-scale experiment in the use of scientific material, and programmed learning is attracting attention.

70–72   Harries, Lyndon. Language policy in Tanzania. *Africa* (London), **39**, 3 (1969), 275–80.

When Tanzania became independent it was intended to replace English eventually by Swahili though bilingualism in Swahili and English was seen as desirable by some leaders. Before independence Swahili expressed Islamic culture in the first place and secondly acted as a *lingua franca* between more than a hundred different dialects. Swahili is now the means of expression and development of African culture. Swahili itself is moving closer to English in its idiom and thought. The centre of this linguistic revolution is in the government, where the need to translate into Swahili notions which are quite foreign to East African society brings about constant reshaping of the language. For many people Swahili is a second or third language, but there is now much greater uniformity between the language as spoken in Tanzania and in Kenya than there was five years ago. As Swahili becomes a first language, standards of competence in English will decline as compared with standards of English in Kenya and Uganda. Swahili is nevertheless the symbol of national unity.

70–73   Hart, D. Charles. Some English pronunciation difficulties in Malaysia. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 270–3.

Malaysians have difficulty with English tense and lax vowels because of the phonological patterns of their own languages, in which long tense vowels occur in open syllables only. Care must be taken, when a new phoneme contrast in English is to be taught, not to include

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words containing long tense vowels in closed syllables, unless this difficulty has already been overcome, otherwise two unknowns are being presented simultaneously. Because of southern Chinese syllable structure, attention should be focused, in teaching English, on syllables which end on fricatives and laterals. It is helpful to list syllabically vowel allophones which are phonemes in English. [A table is given.]

70-74 Hoffmann, Achim. Some notes on English prepositions. *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **13**, 5 (1969), 238–41.

English prepositions cause much difficulty to the foreign student. They have no definable lexical meaning and therefore also present difficulty to lexicographers. On the other hand they are more extensively used in English than in other languages. Idiomatic usage can only be learnt in context. Prepositions occur as single words, as compounds and as groups and are usually placed before the noun except in conversational questions when they appear, unstressed, at the end of the sentence. Prepositions can only be distinguished from adverbs in context. Originally they almost all denoted place. [A chart for classroom use shows the usual meanings of prepositions denoting place.] Other prepositions cannot be similarly charted but those which are likely to be confused by the pupil (noted and illustrated from the German point of view) should be adequately dealt with.

70-75 Murrell, Martin. A note on idioms. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 258–60.

One of the characteristics of an idiom is that it is a single lexical item. A pseudo-morpheme is a minimal element which has the same phonic or graphic form as a morpheme but apparently not the same meaning. There are two types of idiom, those occurring in speech and those occurring in writing. An idiom must comprise at least two potential morphemes. For the beginner every compound item is a potential idiom. Idioms are not free collocations, but semantically minimal units. A battery of tests is needed to check items and an unambiguous notation to classify them.

70–76   Richards, Brian. Breaking the ice. *Journal of English Teaching* (Tokyo), **3**, 2 (1969), 113–17.

Japanese students need a great deal of reassurance and encouragement to persuade them to speak English even though they have a wide passive knowledge. From experience in teaching undergraduates at Nagasaki, ways are suggested in which such encouragement can be given: by asking students to read dictation passages to their classmates, by giving exercises on the unstressed pronoun and other words generally unstressed in speech, by using speculative questions about wall-chart pictures—the vaguer the picture the better in this case—and by aural comprehension work based on simple stories which are only partially read to the students. By oblique questions a possible ending is elicited from them. Such work should be used to stimulate and encourage speech rather than correct, but it can be followed up by a certain amount of routine language work—some of it written.

70–77   Richards, Brian. The tape recorder in the classroom: ambiguous dialogues. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 227–30.

Taped dialogues can be used to stimulate discussion among fairly advanced students and get them to use their powers of judgement in real situations. The teaching method exploits ambiguities; the teacher asks questions arising from the dialogue to which there are not necessarily 'correct' answers, and this may provoke a class discussion. The method will only work when a teacher and his students have established good relations. Questions should interest the student and discussion can be allowed to go off at a tangent. [Specimens of ambiguous dialogue are given, with notes on their creation and use.]

70–78   Richards, Jack. English as a second language for young children. *Journal of English Teaching* (Tokyo), **3**, 1 (1969), 8–13.

We have been too little concerned with the child. Courses are designed around theories of learning or of language, and psychological investi-

gations into motivation in second language learning have not been directly concerned with the classroom. Language has been regarded as · a skill instead of a means to personal development. With young children, the aim is not so much to *teach* as to provide situations in which certain intellectual, emotional, cultural and perceptual processes can develop. We should aim at giving the child just enough of the language to form a tool for creative and constructive use. Lessons should make demands on his initiative and intelligence, and pleasure should be built into the course. [Examples are given of ways in which language can be made vital to young children.] The language lesson should not be something divorced from what the children do at other times. A foreign language can only play a role in primary education if it centres around the child and is sensitive to his interests and to his particular learning pattern.

70–79 Roy, Mira. Some problems of English consonants for a Bengali speaker of English. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 268–70.

The author deals with a number of common mispronunciations of English plosives and fricatives, describing the differences between these sounds and those with which speakers of Bengali replace them. She gives brief hints on remedial work.

70–80 Sethi, J. The patterning of certain verbs. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 3 (1969), 240–6.

The author examines mistakes in the patterning of (*a*) *want* and *wish*, (*b*) *explain*, *describe*, and *suggest*, (*c*) *emphasize*, *stress*, and *discuss*, and (*d*) *apologize*, *depend*, *insist*, *listen*, *succeed*, and *sympathize*. He deals also with use of the patterns $V+$ to-infinitive and $V+$ gerund.

70–81 Smackey, Thelma R. and Richard Beym. Tag questions —dangerous psycholinguistic territory for TESOL. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **7**, 2 (1969), 107–15.

A questionnaire given to fifty-three American students was used to evaluate native-speaker interpretations of the emotions and attitudes

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conveyed by tag questions (. . ., don't you ? etc.) according to the quality of voice and intonation used. The results show such a large spectrum of feelings and attitudes conveyed by tag questions that it seems that this kind of question should be omitted entirely from beginners' textbooks in English. When it is taught, it must be taught within a socio-linguistic context and not through mechanical exercises.

FRENCH *See also abstracts* 70–42, –45, –58

70–82 Bourgeacq, Jacques A. L'emploi de quelques temps du passé: une méthode. [The use of certain past tenses: a method.] *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 6 (1969), 874–81.

Acknowledging the difficulty of teaching the use of past tenses in French as demonstrated recently in an article by Grobe (abstract 68–183), the author shows how rules currently in use are only partially correct. [Examples.] What is needed is to give the pupil a setting within which he can apply certain abstract principles. He needs to consider the perspective from which an action is seen and the 'aspect' of the event. The choice is always complicated for the student if he is writing narrative where his thought may embrace several stages. [A specimen passage in both English and French is examined in detail, and a chart given using vertical and horizontal lines to show continuity or immediacy and the return of thought to the present.]

70–83 Calbris, Geneviève, Jeannine Caillaud, Françoise de Charnacé, Daniel Coste, Robert Damoiseau, Francis Debyser, Victor Ferenzi, Denis Girard, Marie-Anne Hameau, Jean Llasera, Colette Rojas, Colette Stourdzé. Guide pédagogique pour le professeur de français. [A pedagogical guide for the teacher of French.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 65 (1969), 4–96.

This issue (edited by André Reboullet) is devoted to a study of different facets of the teaching of French as a foreign language. It deals with such questions as what is to be taught (written or spoken language and

registers), presentation and drilling of structures, the teaching of pronunciation, the teaching of vocabulary, of grammar, of conversation. Audio-visual aids are examined, particularly the means by which they are used as an integral part of a course rather than as optional extras. The teaching of literature and the presentation of cultural background are considered. In conclusion, resource material for the teacher is listed including the addresses of useful professional organizations in France, sources of posters, maps and records, and a selected bibliography for the teaching of French as a foreign language.

70–84   †**Delattre, Pierre.** L'intonation par les oppositions. [Intonation by contrasts.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 64 (1969), 6–13.

Rise and fall in intonation can best be illustrated by contrasting the meaning of the resulting sentences. The intonation curve will be seen to function in a similar way to the single phoneme, which can alter the meaning of a word. Acoustic variations of such curves may sometimes be affected by what precedes a particular sentence. Intonemes differ from phonemes in that they can carry some meaning—a question may be indicated merely by the rise in voice. Both phonemes and intonation curves have distinguishing traits, but those of the intonation curve are not so clear as those of the phoneme. The diagrammatic four levels of intonation used in examples are only a teaching guide and cannot represent all the possible curves in a given language. [Examples in pairs show by contrast of meaning how different intonation is used in French. A record is available giving aural evidence for the examples given by diagrams in the text.]

70–85   **Gelman, Manuel.** Accent on accents. *Babel* (Melbourne), 5, 1 (1969), 20.

Practical suggestions are made for the teaching of correct usage of accents to beginners in French. A few rules are provided, a little etymology and some amusing mnemonics. For older students a few difficult and rare uses of accents are listed.

GERMAN

70–86   Clyne, Michael. Teaching German to German migrants' children. *Babel* (Melbourne), **5**, 1 (1969), 5–8.

Many children of German parents attending Australian schools are 'insecure bilinguals'. Some hear German from their parents but answer in English. Many have never been to school in Germany and have worked out their own spelling system. Most have only used the 'du' form of verbs. Some concentrated work with tapes will help these pupils to master the 'Sie' form, use gender correctly, punctuate accurately, spell, and replace dialect forms with standard German forms of speech.

RUSSIAN

70–87   Mitrofanova, O. D. О психологических основах органи- зации учебного материала по русскому языку с учетом специальности. [The psychological principles for organizing Russian teaching material with reference to professional speciality.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1969), 52–4.

Selecting material, sequencing it for delivery and showing appropriate use of selected words are the three main considerations in teaching a foreign language. The student must then be taught in communicative conditions suitable for the development of these skills. The kinds of speech situation encountered in any one scientific discipline are broadly similar to those of other such disciplines. Analysis of text-books, particularly in the natural sciences, reveals that between 90 and 110 situations cover 80 to 90 per cent of the content of the books.

Scientific linguistic material should be selected for its thematic productiveness, semantic value, syntactic combinations and word frequency. The material selected should be grouped around a definite speech situation on the basis of its semantic rather than its grammatical suitability, so that a variety of lexis and grammar features in any one situation. Logical, thematic ordering of the material will assist its

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retention in the memory (e.g. properties, origin, classification, structure, etc., of the object under study). The deductive characteristics of scientific disciplines help the ordering of students' thoughts in this respect.

The act of speaking will involve the correct semantic and grammatical use of words and their combinations in sentences, the correct selection of linguistic material to express intention adequately, and, most important, the practice in the delivery of a chosen sequence of linguistic material to the extent where it becomes automatic. In addition, the development of monologue in a foreign language must proceed by stages, in harmony with the above conditions, and this is best achieved by carefully graded exercises.

70–88   **Vasil'eva, A. N.** Глагол в разговорной речи: (2) императив. [The verb in conversational speech: (2) the imperative.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 1 (1969), 39–42.

Nine forms of the imperative are discernible in conversational speech, where this mood of the verb is more prevalent than in other linguistic styles. The basic meaning of the imperative in these forms is masked by other intended shades of meaning.

These forms of the imperative express the following: condition, concession, consequence, the opposite meaning to the literal one, difficulty in fulfilment of a task, ironic exhortation by quoting the interlocutor's words in the imperative form, an unkind wish (in set phrases only), suddenness of an action in the past and other modal nuances.

Special intonation features, often in combination with certain particles, help to convey the meaning in each of these forms. [Under the majority of these categories subdivisions are discussed, all of which are fully documented with examples. There is an appendix of exercises.]

SPANISH

70–89   Contreras, H. Vowel fusion in Spanish. *Hispania* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **52**, 1 (1969), 60–3.

This study attempts to map out in detail the phonological rules that account for such cases of 'sinalefa' as *casa humilde, café helado*, and *casa alta*. Relevant factors are stress, word boundaries, whether a vowel is a front or a back vowel, tongue-height, and so on. Combinatory rules are based on these criteria, and pedagogical rules are suggested for the teaching of pronunciation.

70–90   Wilson, Robert E. Veintiuna vs. veintiún pesetas. *Hispania* (Appleton, Wisconsin), **52**, 1 (1969), 74–6.

Many pedagogical courses and grammars state that the numeral adjective *uno* is replaced by *una* when it precedes a feminine noun: *cuarenta y una amigas, veintiuna muchachas*. A number of texts, however, state that although the *una* form is common the form *veintiún* before a feminine noun is acceptable: Ramsey and Spaulding's *A textbook of modern Spanish*, for example, gives the examples *veintiún casas y un sillas* but does not show preference for this form over that with -*a*. One well-known teaching text even gives *veintiún mujeres* and *treinta y un mujeres* as acceptable forms. Many authoritative grammars do not discuss the problem in detail. One or two authorities give preference to the -*a* form but stress that *veintiún pesetas* is commonly found. When the latter is found it should be regarded as a case of apocope rather than any disagreement between gender of noun and adjective.

ARABIC

70–91   Mitchell, T. F. The teaching of Arabic in Great Britain. *Linguistic Reporter* (Washington DC), **11**, 2 (1969), Supplement.

[The study was based on replies to a questionnaire sent to British universities where it was believed that Arabic was studied, and the

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resulting paper prepared for the Ninth International Conference on Second Language Problems, Tunis, 1968.] Arabic is the fourth or fifth most important language in the United Kingdom, in advance of Italian and ranking alongside Russian. The language poses problems for the foreign learner as the written, classical form is held in much higher esteem than the spoken language in its many regional variations. Suitably trained and aware native users of Arabic are needed to help provide teaching materials and other aids. This will involve Arabs in undertaking serious linguistic research on their native language. We need to know more about educated pan-Arab norms of spoken as of written usage. There is no dictionary of idioms, which only occur in colloquial Arabic. Only a small amount of Arabic is taught to adults outside the universities in Britain and this is mainly vocational teaching. There is also important work undertaken outside the country in the training of a variety of non-university students. [Some detail of the aims and courses of various universities is given.] There is a need to develop a national awareness of the languages and cultures of Asia and Africa and to represent this interest in the schools. There is a need for a really good language course and for a taped course for use in the language laboratory. The British need for specialists in Arabic to help make and develop contacts with the Arabic-speaking countries is an urgent one.