

# Language learning and teaching

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## THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

75–172 **Komorowska, Hanna.** Dydaktyka języków obcych a rozwój psychologii, pedagogiki i socjologii. [Didactics of foreign languages and development of psychology, pedagogy and sociology.] *Języki obce w szkole* (Warsaw), 18, 4 (1974), 194–9.

The didactics of foreign languages should pursue the methods used in such sciences as sociology, psychology and pedagogy. Methods of language teaching may be related to such sociologically described phenomena as: degree of formality, the number of people speaking the language, the purpose of their learning and the nature of their relationships. The empirical methods of sociology aid better communication and the gathering of relevant linguistic material. Sociology helps in deciding general educational policy and leads to more effective research in the teaching of foreign languages. Psychology, especially of the processes of perception and memory, is important, as is information gathered in connection with the process of language acquisition in its cognitive, motor-perceptual and psycholinguistic aspects.

75–173 **Salter, M. V.** The place of foreign languages in the whole curriculum of the school: *what* we should teach. *Modern Languages* (London), 56, 1 (1975), 21–31.

Goals need to be both challenging and attainable for pupils with different capacities for language learning. The needs of abler pupils are outlined: in listening comprehension, they should be able to understand a native speaker using familiar material and get the gist of spoken language with some unfamiliar elements. Rapid silent reading, which has so far been neglected, would be the most useful of the reading skills to master. For oral skills, pupils should learn to ask as well as to answer questions. For written work, a knowledge of grammar will be productive.

Slow learners [definition] on the other hand need a different approach. Their productive use of language is likely to be limited; the gap between the receptive and productive skills is much greater for them. Listening should be the main skill for slow learners: a kind of 'bilingual' oral communication, where each speaker uses his native language, is a more realistic goal. Oral objectives should include language for everyday situations. Reading can be undertaken as an individual activity, if appropriate, but 'survival' reading (of signs, etc.) is necessary. Writing as an objective is irrelevant for them. [The place of

civilisation or background studies is briefly mentioned.] Realistic goals will reduce the drop-out rate. [Work at different age-levels, and for those who fall between the two categories discussed, is summarised.] [References.]

- 75-174 Whitfield, R. C.** Modern languages – their distinctive contribution in the context of the whole curriculum. *Modern Languages in Scotland* (Aberdeen), **6** (1975), 22-30.

The concept of a general secondary education is analysed according to different modes of human consciousness (e.g. symbolic, aesthetic) which should be used as an axis for curriculum planning. The match between languages and general education is discussed, and it is questioned whether modern-language teaching is the most effective way of achieving the desired goals: competence in one verbal symbolic system, the mother tongue, is vital but the learning of a second language is thought more appropriate to a specialised (i.e. post age 16) rather than a general education. For less able pupils to whom a second language is a burden, non-linguistic cultural objectives may be more suitable.

[A structure for staffing, etc., based on faculty groups, is given for a practical framework.] Practical implications include courses in general linguistics, a questioning of the preponderance of French, more flexible use of secondary-school time (intensive courses and block exchanges) and interdisciplinary links – a general re-thinking of school language policies. [References.]

## PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING *See also abstract 75-190*

- 75-175 Raugh, Michael R. and Atkinson, Richard C.** A mnemonic method for learning a second-language vocabulary. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **67**, 1 (1975), 1-16.

Four experiments evaluated the effectiveness of a two-stage mnemonic procedure, the keyword method, for learning foreign-language vocabulary. Stage 1, the acoustic link stage, involved associating the spoken foreign word with an English 'keyword' that sounded like some part of the foreign word. Stage 2, the imagery link stage, required the formation of a mental image of the keyword 'interacting' with the English translation. The experiments compared the keyword method with various control procedures for learning a Spanish vocabulary. In all cases, the keyword method proved to be highly effective, yielding in one experiment a final test score of 88 per cent correct for the keyword group compared to 28 percent for the control group.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

### ERROR ANALYSIS *See also abstract 75-182*

**75-176 Schachter, Jacquelyn.** An error in error analysis. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), 24, 2 (1974), 205-14.

Many proponents of an error analysis approach to the investigation of second-language learning argue that contrastive analysis (CA) *a priori* is inadequate as an account of target-language learning problems. They claim that the only tenable version of CA is an *a posteriori* approach, i.e. CA in just those areas that have been proved by error analysis to be difficulties in production. This claim is disputed in a study involving the acquisition of English relative clauses by speakers of Persian, Arabic, Chinese and Japanese. The *a posteriori* approach obscured the fact that the Chinese and Japanese learners have more difficulty with relative clauses and therefore avoid them, a fact predicted by the *a priori* approach. [Examples; references.]

### TESTING

**75-177 Beardsmore, H. Baetens.** Testing oral fluency. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 12, 4 (1974), 317-26.

Discrete-point tests do not measure performance in real situations, and the scoring of interviews is subjective and variable. It should be possible to combine the two types of test: both linguistic and communicative ability should be tested. A test of oral fluency adopted after various experiments is described. Students record briefly on tape, in the language laboratory, what they have to say about a course-orientated topic, chosen from three [examples]. Throughout the year they are given trial tests of this kind. Fluency, accuracy, relevance, intelligibility, pronunciation, variety of structure and of lexis are the scoring criteria, and there is remarkable consistency among the various markers. Although there are various unsolved problems and further research needs to be undertaken, the experiment has called attention to some of the elements involved in interview testing and has increased the element of objectivity in such tests. [Bibliography.]

**75-178 Breitung, H. A. and others.** Zum Problem des Tests, insbesondere des Einstufungstests, im Deutschunterricht für Ausländer. [The problem of testing, especially for grading students into courses of teaching German to foreigners.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 11, 6 (1974), 342-53.

Hitherto most so-called objective tests have contained some subjective factors; objectivity is harder to secure when, as with language acquisition, the matter

to be tested is complex. Until the grading tests were devised students had been assessed solely on an oral interview; this practice had been unreliable. Now the oral interview is followed by a test appropriate to the four stages: beginners, basic, upper, advanced.

The aim is to grade more objectively and accurately and the tests have proved reliable in assessing knowledge and receptive skills; their least exact part is the testing of oral skill. There are three written tests, each including 15–20 items of grammar, vocabulary and word formation, five items of comprehension through hearing, together with some spelling and punctuation. The pass mark is 35 out of 50. The 1971/2 tests showed a pass rate of 51 per cent [analyses of performances in various items of the tests]. [References.]

**75–179 Politzer, Robert L.** Developmental sentence scoring as a method of measuring second-language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal* (St. Louis, Mo), **58**, 5/6 (1974), 245–50.

Developmental sentence scoring (DSS) is a procedure for estimating a child's language development (mother tongue). Points are given for correct usage and range over eight different categories (e.g. pronouns, verbs) [scoring described]. The DSS technique was applied to research data on the second-language acquisition of Mexican-American children in traditional and bilingual schools, to see whether DSS would confirm the result of error analysis and whether it would reveal similarities and differences between first- and second-language acquisition. [Results.] It was concluded that many mistakes made in both processes are similar, but documentary similarity between the processes depends on the conceptual framework used to describe the first-language process. DSS is at least partially applicable to second-language learning processes because it measures increased syntactic complexity and greater correctness.

**75–180 Politzer, R. L., Hoover, M. R. and Brown, D.** A test of proficiency in black standard and nonstandard speech. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 1 (1974), 27–35.

As part of the development of a test battery to determine proficiency in black standard and non-standard speech, a test was devised consisting of a repetition task in which 15 sentences in black standard and 15 in black non-standard English were to be repeated. The sentences were contained within two similar stories recorded on tape by a bidialectal speaker. A black experimenter administered the test individually to 35 black kindergarten children in 1972. The experimenter stopped the tape after each sentence containing a test item and asked the child to repeat the sentence. The response was scored as correct if the child repeated the test item exactly as modelled on the tape. Scores

indicated a general balance between standard and non-standard. Subjects were also assigned a balance score, which measured the dominance of non-standard over standard. Scores of the same students on the Stanford Achievement Test and its subsection on letters and sounds correlated positively and significantly with the standard section of the test. Where there was an imbalance in favour of non-standard, there was a significant negative correlation with the Stanford Achievement Test.

**75-181 Zirkel, Perry A.** A method for determining and depicting language dominance. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 1 (1974), 7-16.

A practical model for determining and depicting language dominance, given the general nature and needs of bilingual education programmes in the United States, is presented. The use of parallel tests of aural ability can give an initial indication of the language dominance of children who might otherwise be classified by surname as 'Spanish-speaking' or 'bilingual'. The results can be organised for placement or programmatic purposes into a continuum, from Spanish- to English-dominance. However, this one-dimensional representation does not permit differentiation of ability level within each language. For example, a 'balanced bilingual' child, who is equally deficient in each language, is represented at the same point on the continuum as a 'balanced bilingual' child, who is natively proficient in each language. A two-dimensional representation is therefore proposed, elevating the left side of the continuum into a vertical plane so as to form a two-dimensional matrix. This model aids the effective planning of programmes according to bilingual dominance and proficiency. Several such linguistic and programmatic patterns are discussed. [References.]

**75-182 Zydariß, Wolfgang.** Some test formats for elicitation procedures. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **12**, 4 (1974), 281-7.

It is suggested that not only the 'intermediate language' of individuals but also of particular groups of learners should be studied, since the findings could be more readily exploited in second-language teaching. Elicitation procedures are necessary to make learners generate certain structures or shades of meaning which conventional error analysis fails to elicit. Three types of test are compared: (1) translation of non-contextualised German sentences (mother tongue) into English, (2) translation of non-contextualised German sentences into English under specific surface constraints, and (3) a multiple choice test which could have more than one correct answer (thus indicating what the

learner considers 'acceptable'). Heuristic methods such as error analysis and contrastive analysis should be complementary; the development of elicitation procedures becomes a cyclic process.

**COURSE DESIGN** *See also abstracts 75–173/4*

**75–183 Candelier, Michel.** Les critères de détermination de la progression grammaticale dans diverses méthodes d'allemand, essai de classification. [The criteria for determining the order of introducing grammatical structures in various German courses: an attempt at classification.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **16** (1974), 14–32.

An analysis of the criteria by which the authors of certain German courses determine the order of introduction of new structures. Many authors rely on their own teaching experience, but six main criteria are found: (1) difficulty of acquisition – structures are broken up into their minimal elements and easier elements are introduced first (the assessment of what is difficult is often subjective). (2) Relevance for communication – either equated with statistical frequency, or treated as a function of the communicative productiveness of a given structure for a foreign learner. (3) Methodological advantage – rules are given as and when they are considered helpful to the learner. (4) Psychological need – some structures are thought to be necessary for self-expression, particularly with younger learners. (5) Comparison with L1 – either early learning is thought to be made easier if familiar structures are introduced first, or interference is avoided by early introduction of structures which are not present in L1, e.g. the directive and locative usages after prepositions like *an*, *auf*, *in*. (6) Linguistic description – the order of introduction is determined by the author's analysis of the linguistic substructure of the target language – central structures are taken before those dependent on them. Whether consciously or not, this last criterion underlies very many of the others. [Many examples. Bibliography.]

**75–184 White, Ronald V.** The concept of register and TESL. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 4 (1974), 401–16.

The concept of register refers to particular variations in language determined by function, medium and formality or style. The English-language teacher is less concerned with particular variations than with general characteristics of language as found in authentic contexts. Unfortunately, the grammarians' descriptions of language provide little information on frequency and range of occurrence, so that there is no way of distinguishing the common and useful from the rare and esoteric.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

A corpus of language was studied to discover the frequencies of occurrence of verb forms and types of noun phrase. It was found that in the verb usage, simple forms predominated. Furthermore, the distribution of forms was seen to be related to language function. Similar results were achieved in the analysis of the noun phrase, where again simplicity rather than complexity was a salient characteristic. The course writer needs to take such findings into account, although much published material appears to be uninformed by corpus based research. In particular, the teaching of English for Special Purposes should be informed by frequency studies of authentic textual material from the appropriate subject areas. Finally, the contextualisation of items to be taught should be guided by a study of their authentic occurrence rather than by notions of what fits into contrived classroom situations. [Tables of results; references.]

### TEACHER TRAINING

**75-185 Phillips, E. T. J.** Micro-teaching: a tool of in-service training. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 2 (1975), 120-9.

The use of micro-teaching techniques in a one-week in-service training programme for Greek and Turkish Cypriot teachers of English is described. [Brief history of the use of micro-teaching in long-term training programmes.] The aim was to offer participation in experience directly relevant to classroom situations; lectures modelling specific ELT skills were followed by demonstration lessons and teaching exercises. [Detailed description of organisation of course programme, including subject-specific skills for micro-teaching practice and pronunciation work.] The course was seen as the first phase of a training programme of a modular kind – on later courses different skills could be emphasised.

**TEACHING METHODS** *See also abstracts 75-207, -221, -225*

**75-186 Keuleers, A.** The use of mediators in cognitive 'drills'. *ITL* (Louvain), **23** (1974), 59-81.

An appropriate metalanguage is needed to enable foreign-language students to construct their own communicative sentences during practice. Rules should be consciously applied and then internalised gradually by means of systematic 'drill'. Two kinds of mediator are helpful, 'enclosed' and 'constructed'. Enclosed mediators (e.g. *yesterday* or *since yesterday*) are already contained in the sentences, whereas constructed mediators (e.g. *I oblige you* or *task*) are introduced as additional information [many examples]; the latter should focus

attention on the crucial element in the situational meaning, and are particularly necessary where internal states of affectivity rather than objective facts are concerned, as they give additional information. Structural mediators do not train the learner to choose the right structure for a given situation, and are more suitable for an elementary stage of learning; drawings concentrate on the situational-thematic content. Mediators should also be 'explicit-discriminative' and refer directly to a rule, and should unambiguously evoke the meaning-structure. The rule should not be explained or represented too abstractly: the learner should be able, through the models, to grasp it at once [examples].

The expectation is that native-like competence is better achieved through cognitive mediation than through immediate automatic responses. Mediators provide the adult learner with cognitive schemes enabling him quickly to identify the situational context and to link it to a structure. The main value of mediators is that, by varying practice, they develop creativity.

**75-187 Leader, Nicholas.** Teaching modern languages in the USSR. *Britain-USSR* (London), 45 (1974), 1-3.

Soviet and British aims in the teaching of modern languages are similar, particularly the emphasis on oral work rather than grammatical analysis, but class methods are different. [Brief outline of organisation of language teaching in the Soviet Union.] Methodology and a uniform curriculum are laid down by the central authorities. The teaching of English is based on two sets of textbooks (no audio-visual course is available though language laboratories are quite common). [Description of a typical lesson: the pupil's role is more passive than in Britain; each lesson is rigidly divided into distinct stages of instruction.]

**75-188 Seliger, Herbert W.** Inductive method and deductive method in language teaching: a re-examination. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 13, 1 (1975), 1-18.

The inductive and deductive methods in the teaching and learning of the rules of a foreign language are examined. The inductive method is generally preferred [critical survey of research supporting this method]. An experiment was carried out to verify the method in the teaching of adults [details of method, development of material and tests]. It was found that the group taught by the deductive method performed significantly better on the long-term retention test than the group taught by the inductive method. The study dealt with a specific aspect of syntax and method, but it provides an indication that the deductive method may be more effective in teaching English to adults. [References.]

- 75-189 **Sprissler, Manfred.** Fremdsprachenunterricht in Intensivkursen – Probleme und Perspektiven. [Teaching foreign languages in intensive courses – problems and perspectives.] *Moderna Språk* (Saltsjö Durnäs, Sweden), **68**, 4 (1974), 348–63.

'Intensive' language courses seem to promise fast, effortless success. In reality, however, a participant will have to invest a considerable amount of time and determination. Concentration, rather than any special teaching materials or methods, characterises these courses.

Five factors of particular importance in language learning and teaching in general are analysed: target group, learning goal, teaching materials, teaching method, and, particularly, time. How far can they be adapted to intensive courses? Target group and learning goal, though diverse in themselves, cannot be influenced or changed at will, but the other three factors can be adapted to the special needs of intensive courses [details]. Possible future developments are the elaboration of special didactics for intensive language courses, increased use of technical aids, and the establishment of a centralised system of teaching and learning units.

- 75-190 **Tang, Benita T.** A psycholinguistic study of the relationships between children's ethnic-linguistic attitudes and the effectiveness of methods used in second-language reading instruction. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 3 (1974), 233–51.

The relationships between Chinese children's attitudes towards their native dialect (Cantonese) as well as the second language (English) and the effectiveness of certain methods used in the teaching of second-language reading were investigated. The translation method and the non-translation method were compared in the experiment. The main hypothesis was that the translation method is more suitable for children who have a very positive attitude toward their native language and culture, while the non-translation method ('English only') is more suitable for those who do not hold their native language in very high esteem.

Eight special ESL classes at three elementary schools in Chinatown, San Francisco, were randomly assigned to the two treatment groups. Attitudes toward the two languages (inclusive of the cultures and speakers) were measured with a matched-guise test. On the basis of the lessons taught in the 20 40-minute sessions, a science reading comprehension test was constructed. The same test was used for both pre-testing and post-testing purposes, and the gain-scores served as the dependent variable. The findings justified acceptance of the hypothesis.

**BILINGUAL TEACHING** *See abstracts 75–156, –181***CLASS METHODS: PRONUNCIATION** *See also abstract 75–163*

- 75–191 Coates, Thomas J. and Regdon, Patricia M.** Thrice: a technique for improving the American English language delivery of non-native speakers. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 4 (1974), 363–73.

The THRICE technique (the acronym summarises self-conditioning rules for speech delivery) was developed in response to the need for a method of improving the comprehension and comprehensibility of the non-native speaker whose English is relatively fluent, but still heavily accented. The technique isolates the message-carrying sounds and structures of English, identifies them for the student, and gives him sufficient practice in recognising and reproducing them for him to be able to identify his own errors and correct them independently. The activities suggested replace the usual attempts to reshape the student's utterances automatically through pattern and substitution drills. The student is taught the essentials of speech delivery and application of general principles by means of remedial techniques, and how to use these techniques to produce and correct spontaneous utterances. [References.]

- 75–192 Geiger, A. and Winter-Dankmer, G.** Zur Wahrnehmung und Artikulation in der Ausspracheschulung des Englischunterrichts. [Perception and articulation in the teaching of English pronunciation.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich), **5**, 20 (1974), 286–93.

If communication is seen as the overall aim of English teaching in Germany, the perception of sounds is as important as their articulation. Oral fluency in a foreign language presupposes the ability to distinguish foreign sounds. The pupil can frequently only perceive those sounds in the foreign tongue which occur in his own; other sounds, especially vowels, he rejects as redundant. The same is true of English phonemes which do not occur at all in German, e.g. diphthongs and voiced final consonants. A pupil who can monitor the accuracy of his own utterance will find accurate pronunciation much easier. Habits acquired in the mother tongue will nevertheless make it difficult for a German to articulate certain English sounds, e.g. unfamiliar sequences of consonants and the English *r*. [Bibliography.]

- 75-193** **Lebel, Jean-Guy.** La correction du 'R' français enseigné à des anglophones. [The correction of the French 'R' as taught to English speakers.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **32** (1974), 33-48.

A study of the different techniques used to correct the French [R] and of the methodologies upon which these techniques are based, in the perspective of the teaching of French to English speakers who are not beginners. Methodological considerations, the proposed standard of speech, the gradation of difficulties, and oral discrimination are discussed together with the techniques of correction themselves. No specific technique of phonetic correction is unconditionally supported, although the verbo-tonal and articulatory methods are discussed more particularly.

- 75-194** **Schnitzer, Marc L.** Applied generative phonology: a methodology for teaching pronunciation. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **12**, 4 (1974), 289-305.

Using Chomsky's and Halle's generative phonology as a theoretical basis, treatment of a case of minimal aphasia involving inability to pronounce polysyllabic English words is described. The means of teaching English pronunciation thus developed was then applied to the teaching of English to French speakers, attention being again concentrated on polysyllabic words. Details of the procedures, which led to a marked improvement in pronunciation, are given, as well as tables listing the real and nonsense words used and statistics showing progress.

**VOCABULARY** *See also abstract 75-175*

- 75-195** **Dupuy-Engelhardt, Hiltraud and Philipp, Marthe.** Strukturelle Semantik und Sprachunterricht. [Structural semantics and language teaching.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Munich), **4** (1974), 305-21.

To meet the need for vocabulary exercises at university level, a team at Nancy and Strasbourg has been working in applied semantics. The aim is to enable students to use *le mot juste* by assembling semantic fields, set out schematically. A list, not of synonyms, but of words with a range of meanings around a central concept, is built into a paradigm, using sometimes opposing pairs with appropriate semes, e.g. (concept) *Kostüm/Kleidungsstück*: (example of seme) *für die frau*; and *Anzug/Kleidungsstück*: *für den mann*. A combination of semes, called a semem, defines a word within a paradigm. As well as opposing pairs, chains of semems can be built up. In this way, students learn structural methods,

appreciate scientific description of words and use matrices and graphs to replace dictionaries of synonyms. [Examples are given of matrices for the concepts *Schall* and *Licht*, verbs from the semes *sichtbar* and *hörbar*, also graphs with *Tonstärke* as horizontal and *Tonhöhe* as vertical axis, and exercises developed from them.] In obviating reliance on *Sprachgefühl*, such exercises cannot cater for all speech situations but they take little time for maximal efficiency, and, linked with exercises in conversation, translation and on tape, they promise well enough to justify further experimental work.

### LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

**75–196 Bartolić, Ljerka.** Technical English: a method of teaching the cause–effect relation as applied to a diagram. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 2 (1975), 156–63.

The teaching of English through technical subjects should focus on the information to be conveyed. Ways of teaching one aspect of technical reasoning, the cause–effect relation, are illustrated, including the use of diagrams [student handouts, multiple choice tests].

**75–197 Mead, Richard and Lilley, A. D.** The use of visual materials in teaching English to economics students. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **29**, 2 (1975), 151–6.

The preparation and presentation of English teaching materials for economics students at the University of Libya is described. The aim is to use English to examine problems in economics, but the student's English is initially not adequate to express his relatively complex ideas. The conditional, comparatives and superlatives are forms frequently needed, also connectives. In addition, students need to learn to interpret visual data, such as graphs, statistical tables and maps; these can be used by the teacher as aids as they have obvious relevance and, as summaries of economic arguments, can be expanded into language at a level which suits L2 ability. [Examples of teaching methods using graphs and maps.] This strategy helps to overcome the problem of reconciling linguistic, situational and communicative demands on grading and presentation, and should be applicable to other disciplines.

**READING** See also abstract 75-190

**75-198** A language for life: the Bullock Report. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3117** (21 February 1975), i-xii.

This special inset provides a summary of the report of the committee of inquiry into the teaching of English as a mother tongue and reading, including principal recommendations, attitudes to English teaching, maintaining standards, early language development, reading methods through various stages, school organisation, remedial work, resources and teacher-training.

**75-199** **Aupècle, Maurice.** Des fondements linguistiques d'une technique d'apprentissage de la compréhension d'une langue écrite seconde. [Linguistic bases for a training technique in written second-language comprehension.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **109** (1974), 49-59.

[Review of theories of communication with special reference to the underlying nature of comprehending written texts on familiar subjects.] Ninety-nine per cent of a sample population of Brazilian specialists wanted primarily to be able to read about their subject in French and hence to by-pass the 300-hour audio-visual standard introductory course which aims at oral production. *Le Français fondamental, premier et deuxième degrés*, together with *Vocabulaire général d'orientation scientifique*, shows 55 per cent of French words with recognisable equivalents in Portuguese. Syntax and morphology also have much in common, which aids spontaneous decoding of the sense of a printed text. Self-instructional and self-correcting training material has been systematically compiled to answer the specialists' needs. Pronunciation training is given from the outset; copious exercises in various subject areas provide practice. Success in this course has motivated students to learn more, subsequently, about oral expression in French. [Appendix shows sample learning cards.]

**75-200** **Gains, Charles W.** A seven-stage approach to remedial reading. *Remedial Education* (London), **10**, 1 (1975), 21-4.

A framework is offered for the inexperienced teacher taking a remedial class (primary level, mother tongue). The initial approach concentrates on easier non-reading tasks which boost confidence, followed by work on vocabulary building, visual discrimination and handwriting, a phonic approach to beginning reading, a look and say approach, supplementary activities and games, and finally a graded reading scheme. [Teaching materials are recommended; diagram of process.]

- 75-201 **Prussakov, N. N.** К вопросу о физических свойствах письменной речи и их роль в чтении. [The question of the physical characteristics of written speech and their role in reading.] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 1 (1975), 27-34.

Variable typographical factors in setting up a written text can affect ease of reading it or readability. Readability of the text is particularly important in teaching the reading of a foreign language, as the student's insufficient knowledge of the language hinders the development of reading mechanisms. In learning to read its native language, a child progresses from reading individual letters through syllables, words, and finally to phrases. In learning to read a foreign language, the process usually stops after word-by-word reading. Normal written texts do not represent all the information conveyed in speech – division into syntagmas, speech-periods, sentence stress and intonation. Repeated reading of the same text does not lead to the development of reading comprehension. Material must not be too difficult: texts should be linguistically easy and convenient to read, reflecting division into speech units. [Examination of some English texts from point of view of arrangement of material on page, use of pictures, etc.] For indicating division into syntagmas, wider spaces have advantages over vertical lines – no new graphic sign need be introduced, and the size of the space may be gradually reduced as technique improves. Division of the text into syntagmas caused more dramatic improvement in experiment than marking logical stress by italics. Other exercises based on syntagmatic division can also be employed to develop aural memory.

**COMMUNICATION** See also abstracts 75-177, -186, -213, -219

- 75-202 **Bauer, Rudolf.** Kommunikationsfähigkeit. Zur Bedeutung der Sprechhandlungsweisen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht. [The ability to communicate. The importance of vocal communicative behaviour in the teaching of foreign languages.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 9, 4 (1974), 129-33.

The ability to communicate in speech situations is generally recognised as a main aim in the elementary stages of language learning, although opinions vary about what exactly constitutes a speech situation and how it should be set up and used. Recent developments in linguistics have drawn attention to speech as a useful element in language teaching [definition and examples]. A newly introduced curriculum for Bavarian schools stresses communicative ability [details]. The teaching of speech should be integrated with the teaching of grammar and the introduction of basic vocabulary.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Part of a flow diagram is given to illustrate one complex example of linguistic behaviour, which is influenced by social and affective factors. With communicative ability assuming primary importance, the successful speech act becomes the main criterion for judging a student's performance, although in real life successful communication depends on many factors and is difficult to gauge. [References.]

**75-203 Paulston, Christina Bratt.** Linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 4 (1974), 347-62.

Communicative competence, in the sense of the social rules of language use, implies more than simply linguistic interaction in the target language. Communicative performance, by contrast, is communication without distinctive social significance, such as some artificial classroom language. In teaching, after the initial stage of acquiring basic skills, students need practice in using language for normal social purposes (establishing relationships, seeking and giving information, etc.). The teacher should make sure that such activities develop communicative competence rather than mere performance. [Problem of register interference.] Dialogues for teaching are given, including register variations, disguising feelings (social tact), and the use of role-playing. [References.]

**75-204 Piepho, Hans-Eberhard.** Kommunikative Kompetenz durch Englischunterricht. [Communicative competence through the teaching of English.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart), **8**, 4 (1974), 7-24.

This is not a new method but a teaching principle affecting aims and priorities. The value of the direct method, audio-visual methods, and of the primacy of oral work and structural pattern drills with non-functional material is questioned because they often confront teacher and pupil with the unattainable. Social and communicative needs within the pupil's range, not categories of the speech code, should determine aims and these should be followed by understanding of the reasons and conditions for achieving them, before any planning is done, especially for comprehensive schools.

All pupils can learn language at their appropriate level, but only in relation to actual communicative needs and not to imagined situations. Classroom discourse should depend on transferable patterns of expression, determined after pupil consultation. Likewise, hearing and reading skills should be tested by carrying out actions in situations assessed as real by the pupils. Skill in communicating notions and logical expression has priority over grammatical

progression. Textbooks should be compiled with more attention to pupils' learning processes; dialogue texts are not the right way to promote oracy. Graded qualification tests must relate to the functional use of the language for practical ends.

**WRITING** *See also abstracts 75–217/18, –220*

**75–205 Catani, Maurice.** L'enseignement de l'écriture à des travailleurs étrangers en France. [Teaching immigrant workers in France how to write.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **109** (1974), 68–79.

For adult immigrants trying to adapt to French industrialised society, written French is introduced from the outset of an oral improvement course. At first, three five-minute sessions punctuate the discussion-type lesson, starting from drawing attention to the shape of the student's written name. [Analysis of tasks in forming letters.] The all-round skill of tracing cursive forms is developed with a series of model diagrams but not in a linear progression [illustrated]. [Procedures for dispelling students' tensions.] [Details of methodology, including use of visual aids.]

**75–206 Sharwood-Smith, Michael.** Experimental formats for exercises in written English. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **8**, 1 (1974), 43–52.

Students at the Institute of English Studies in Poznan display a well-known side effect of audio-lingual habit teaching, i.e. an ability to speak English fluently and colloquially coupled with a poor record in writing. A series of exercises are being developed to remedy this, based on the following principles: (a) that writing is communication, not just expression, and this aspect should always be stressed; (b) that all writing tasks should be undertaken at the level of the text (connected sentences) not the single sentence; and (c) that the learner should be presented with at least two tasks at once so that he can always practice integrating different aspects of language (the principle of 'dynamic polarity', each subtask being a pole for the learner's attention). [Five exercises described in detail.]

**75–207 Vigner, Gérard.** Techniques d'apprentissage de l'argumentation écrite. [Techniques for learning written argument.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **109** (1974), 60–7.

There is a wide difference between the teaching of a simple written narrative and that of a well constructed essay. The latter is related first to rhetoric, by

being addressed to a certain reader, and then to logic, by the nature of its argument. There are two stages in the acquisition of essay-writing techniques: (1) the teaching of lexico-syntactical structures, so that the pupil has the techniques which are necessary at each stage of his argument [examples], and (2) methods of argument (the ability to justify or object, defend, criticise, hypothesise, etc.). The pupil will derive greater benefit if these techniques are applied to issues of particular interest to him. Model exercises show (a) the logical construction of a discourse, (b) the speaker's or writer's viewpoint, and (c) the listener's or reader's viewpoint. It is important that written exercises, like oral ones, should first be discussed in class. The absence of clearly defined objectives for the essay means that we are a long way from being able to test this skill objectively, but the methods described at least enable it to be taught systematically. [Bibliography.]

### COMPREHENSION *See also abstract 75-219*

**75-208 Schumann, Adelheid.** Zur landeskundlichen Ausrichtung von Hörverständnisübungen im Sprachlabor. [Acquiring knowledge of a country through aural comprehension exercises in the language laboratory.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), 21, 4 (1974), 408-18.

Aural comprehension has been neglected at university level in Germany, perhaps because the oral side of language teaching is still unsystematic and incompatible with philological studies. An experiment at the Free University, Berlin, with first semester students of French used contemporary French material to improve the skill of aural comprehension, acquire an understanding of the specific characteristics of the spoken language and introduce the student to contemporary French problems. Specially prepared material from official French agencies, radio broadcasts from ORTF and news bulletins offered two main types of audio texts: genuine spoken French (*langue parlée*), as in interviews, and a spoken version of the written language (*langue oralisée*), as in commentaries and reports. The latter formed a useful bridge to the former for students more competent in the written form. [A 90-minute lesson is described.] The experiment was too short for a valid evaluation but initial reactions were favourable and extensions to other semesters are planned. [A complete lesson with text and detailed exercises is given as an appendix.]

**TEXTBOOKS** *See also abstract 75–183*

- 75–209 Speight, Stephen.** Home thoughts from abroad: 'Landeskunde' in textbooks for the 'Gymnasium'. *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), 27, 4 (1974), 204–10.

The assumptions and generalisations about the target country made by children in foreign-language lessons are scarcely put into perspective by the stereotyped view given by English course books used in German *Gymnasien*. *Landeskunde* is examined in three course books for the third- and fourth-year pupil. [Tables analyse topics covered and their relevance as speech material.] Less emphasis should be given to historical topics; the criterion for their inclusion should be the general historical knowledge of comparable English pupils. Speech situations should be more related to everyday happenings in England and America, but not a superficial tourist approach. More information about people from all social backgrounds and walks of life is needed, as well as a more serious approach to problems in the target country. Most texts are superficial and biased in their view point. [Bibliography.]

- 75–210 Vjatjutnev, M. N.** Некоторые аспекты теории учебника русского языка как иностранного: статья первая, часть 1. [Some aspects of the theory of the textbook of Russian as a foreign language: article one, part 1.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1974), 41–5.

Opinions differ as to whether a textbook should be a mere aid to the teacher (or even be dispensed with), to accommodate pupils' varying abilities and provide feed-back, or whether it should be the core of the language course. Textbook sets (with basic textbook, taped exercises, reader, material for oral practice, material for private study, etc.) satisfy the former, and can satisfy the latter if accompanied by a methodologically sound teacher's guide.

From the viewpoint of the teacher and methodologist, a textbook should ideally: cover all types of speech activity; correspond to the pupils' intellectual level; present varied material (narrative, dialogue, songs, etc.); take account of pupils' varying abilities; facilitate communication in the classroom; introduce material according to linguistic and communicative importance; formulate simple, non-contradictory rules; recognise the various functions, including the aesthetic role, of illustrations; gradually direct attention away from expression to content; allow room for pupils' own initiative.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS *See also abstracts 75-147, -217*

- 75-211 Besse, Henri.** Signes iconiques, signes linguistiques. [Iconic signs, linguistic signs.] *Langue Française* (Paris), **24** (1974), 27-54.

The role of each picture in *Méthodes audio-visuelles* (MAV) is that of an icon as defined by Peirce. [Detailed categorisation of the types of picture used in *Voix et images de France*, *La France en direct* and *Le français vivant* as icons, tokens, symbols.] Most MAV courses tend to transcode French linguistic signs one by one, in the order in which they occur in the taped sentence. This illustrative convention is weak in syntax and presents an analytical paradigmatic code, rooted in the French language and not in the general semiotics of human discourse. The student's ignorance of the referents prevents him from understanding the recorded sentences; his upbringing can distort his interpretation of the pictures. By contrast, there is a semiology of the sentence in its situation (Benveniste's 'semantic') which includes the use of everyday icons in a way that is familiar to most races. It forms part of a code of gestures and actions of communication (of which the French language forms a subsystem) and permits a visual interpretation of speech intentions. [Experiments using *De vive voix*.] Students construe the frames of this kind of MAV in a dialogue-in-situation sequence, several frames at a time. The transcoding style can then play a supplementary role.

- 75-212 Keller, Gottfried.** Der didaktische Ort des Arbeitsprojektors im Sprachlabor. [The role of the overhead projector in the language laboratory.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin), **27**, 4 (1974), 221-30.

The present crisis in language-laboratory work arises from restricted forms of drills based on one learning theory, the boredom of purely audio-lingual work, the assumption that all children progress equally and from the students' lack of confirmation of progress. The overhead projector, on the other hand, can provide variety [28 possible combinations of picture, word and sound in four-phase drills] and objective confirmation of progress. The behavioural theory of learning gave rise to pattern drills which are most suitable for beginners if visual and written elements are included [examples]. Pictures help to provide context for the spoken word and to fix the pattern, but for transfer to different situations another approach is needed: transformation drills, arising from the cognitive theory, can, with a constant vocabulary factor, also include visual and written stimuli through the projector [examples]. In later stages pattern and transformation drills can be combined. Situational drills, originating in the operational theory of learning, promote the correct response to a given

situation and often require the transfer of structures. Film is better than static pictures but the projector is useful in the early stage [examples].

An experiment with a class six in grammar school [illustrated in diagrammatic form] showed that different drills need to be formulated according to the differing needs of the pupils, taking account of aural comprehension, memory and ability to transfer. All groups found visual stimuli important, but for different exercises at different levels, so groups need to be homogenous in ability. Since students rarely hear their mistakes, objective testing is necessary in the laboratory, with visual stimuli for minimal-pair distinction, comprehension, situational relationships, vocabulary and grammar [examples].

**75-213 Moirand, Sophie.** 'Audio-visuel intégré' et communication(s). ['Integrated audio-visual' and communication(s).] *Langue Française* (Paris), 24 (1974), 5-24.

In theory, MAV (*méthodes audio-visuelles*) should lead students, through scenes of everyday French life, to communicate orally in French. Existing MAV courses do not present credible characters engaged in authentic communication, and students fail to identify with them. The authors of such courses are preoccupied with linguistic form presented in a rigid methodological progression and set in situations of non-communication [examples]. In current experiments, students react to a pictorial sequence before learning the language content of the tape. Boredom disappears; the *je, tu, ils* relationships are more effectively explored. But because *De vive voix* is based on the original and inadequate linguistic base of *Le français fondamental, premier degré* instead of on a theory of discourse, transposition of the language learned to other situations remains difficult. A revised audio-visual programme [Moscovici, Plon, 1966; Wilkins, 1972] would stress *parole* before *langue* and could revitalise MAV. [Suggested formats.]

#### LANGUAGE LABORATORIES *See also abstracts 75-208, -212*

**75-214 So, Wu Yi.** A new language laboratory program for advanced students. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 8, 3 (1974), 293-304.

The development of a new language-laboratory programme for advanced students at the English Language Centre at Michigan State University is described. It is designed to bridge the gap between manipulative classroom drills and the demands of the lecture halls. The new set of tapes is divided into three categories: lectures, speeches and dialogues, covering a wide range of topics of current and cultural interest to foreign students, and recorded at normal native

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speed. They provide an opportunity for the student to hear a variety of native speakers' voices. Many varied exercises are written to accompany these tapes, designed to help the student develop certain basic skills in mastering the language: guessing meaning from context; listening for comprehension; discriminating sounds and sound segments; recognising and producing certain grammatical patterns; decoding utterances into written symbols; summary writing, notetaking, outlining, and oral communication. The role of the lab instructor in the total lab programme is important; better correlation between classroom activity and lab activity is recommended. The lab is suggested as a possible testing ground for a synthesised approach to language teaching.

### IMMIGRANTS *See abstract 75-205*

**ENGLISH** *See also abstracts 75-176/7, -180/2, -184/92, -194, -196/8, -200/4, -206, -209, -212, -214*

**75-215 Arnold, Arthur and Webb, Bob.** The development of remedial English classes – an exercise in professional co-operation. *Adult Education* (London), **47**, 5 (1975), 289–94.

The setting up in 1972/3 of a volunteer adult literacy scheme in the Bradford area by the Local Education Authority is described. It aimed to provide individual home tuition for illiterates who preferred not to attend a class. [Publicity, training of tutors, types of students, organisation.] The provision of at least one full-time lecturer in adult education is felt to be essential for good results.

**75-216 Khampang, Phon.** Thai difficulties in using English prepositions. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **24**, 2 (1974), 215–22.

Three questions were investigated: (1) do Thai students have greater difficulty than other students in learning English prepositions of place and time? (2) Are certain prepositions more difficult than others depending on the students' first language? (3) Do contrastive analysis and error analysis predict the subjects' performance on a test of English prepositions in the same manner? The prepositions investigated were *at, by, for, from, in, on, to* and the empty form  $\emptyset$ .

A diagnostic test with three parts was administered to 169 Ss: 40 Thai, 48 Japanese, 38 Spanish, and 43 other. The analysis showed no significant difference in the groups on total scores; all four groups had difficulty with English prepositions. There were no items that were specifically Thai problems.

A contrastive analysis via a translation task provided information on how English and Thai prepositions differ. The results showed that while English and Thai preposition systems contrast in many ways and predictions can be made based on these contrasts, error analysis was just as effective in showing problems Thai students have with English prepositions.

**75-217 Farnsworth, Maryruth Bracy.** The cassette tape recorder: a bonus or a bother in ESL composition correction. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 8, 3 (1974), 285-91.

The teaching of correct principles of writing and their creative implementation in assignments ranging from controlled paragraphs to free compositions are demanding tasks, but the greatest difficulty in teaching composition is perhaps the effective use of the 'corrected' paper as a tool for further student improvement in writing [research in this area is reviewed]. Reel-to-reel tape-recordings were found to be effective but cumbersome, but recently, with the advent of the cassette tape recorder, this technique has become extremely valuable and even time-saving. It is being used currently in many of the freshman English composition courses and technical writing courses at Brigham Young University. The advantages of the use of this method at intermediate to advanced levels are discussed and illustrated, and the results of a preliminary experiment are given with accompanying student evaluation as to the effectiveness of such a technique compared with the use of a regular composition check-list or marginal notations. [Appendix gives suggestions for tape grading procedures.]

**75-218 Sternglass, Marilyn S.** Close similarities in dialect features of black and white college students in remedial composition classes. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 8, 3 (1974), 271-83.

Should black and white students be taught composition skills in separate classes or can they be taught together? New evidence that there are close similarities in the dialect features produced by black and white students in formal compositions suggests that there may not be reasons based on language (dialect) differences to justify separate classroom teaching situations. With the exception of one linguistic feature, invariant *be*, there was no qualitative difference in the non-standard features produced by black and white students, but there was a quantitative difference. For all features for which means were available in this study, the mean usage for the black students was higher than for the white students except for one feature, non-standard use of *to do*. The major pedagogical implication is that separate language materials for white and black students are not needed in remedial college-level writing classes.

**FRENCH** See also abstracts 75-173, -193, -199, -205, -207/8, -211, -213

**75-219 Blanc, Michel and Le Cunff, Madeleine.** 'L'expérience des citrons'. [The lemon experiment.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **108** (1974), 17-22.

The experiment described was designed to break away from the inhibiting effects of traditional teaching and to get the students to speak freely in French about their reactions to a concrete object (in this case a lemon) and to communicate these reactions to each other. This also has the effect of forcing students to view external reality through the second-language system of thought and classification. The teacher's role is that of observer and stimulator, inducing the students to see without telling them what to see. [Details of experiment in which students describe lemons.] This procedure expands command of the language at the lexico-semantic and syntactic levels, and focuses attention on aural comprehension. The group as a whole tabulates the vocabulary and syntax elicited by the needs of description [table]. Besides purely linguistic benefits, students gain in observation and recognition of individual differences of perception and their origins, and greater group cohesion develops.

Further extensions of the method could be the description of sounds, of objects perceived by touch alone, personal interviews, elaboration of dictionary definitions [examples] and strategies for the game of 'Twenty Questions'. [Diagram and bibliographical note.]

**75-220 Catach, Nina.** Écrit et graphie dans l'enseignement du français. [The teaching of written work in French.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **109** (1974), 32-9.

After a period of over-emphasis of oral skills there is now a renewed interest in the written language, and especially the problems of French spelling. But despite the experience in linguistics gained from study of the oral language, the first attempts at a systematic approach have been very close to the traditional grammar. A more global conception of the whole language is required in order to discover to what extent French spelling is functional.

Where French is taught as a foreign language by audio-visual methods, a distinct slowing-down in progress is noticed as soon as the written language is introduced. A workable system is therefore necessary to facilitate the ability to write French, so that the pupil may concentrate on the more useful skill of reading. French sounds may easily be reduced to a table of some 45 significant graphemes, which can be further reduced into 'archgraphemes'. By referring to this table and learning the main relationships between the graphemes, the pupil will be unlikely to make many orthographical errors, since these archgraphemes

form 80–90 per cent of all graphemes. The table gives the pupil a solid basis for French spelling rules, which is less confusing than learning by means of an initial teaching alphabet. Since most elements of French spelling may be logically explained, the subject readily lends itself to systematic teaching. The problem for the future is to make the spelling as functional as possible without destroying its essential character. [Table. Bibliography.]

**75–221 White, Norman.** Too fast, too soon. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), **3114** (31 January 1975), 24.

The aims and methods of the Nuffield primary French course are criticised in the light of the NFER report on primary French, particularly too much drilling of sentence patterns with tape recorders, a forced pace for an overlong programme, and neglect of group work. Language performance was insisted on but children's natural interest and curiosity about France was not catered for, although all teachers could help with such studies. If primary French can contribute to a child's growth and development, and to his attitude if not his mastery of language, it is worthwhile.

**GERMAN** See also abstracts 75–178, –183, –195

**75–222 Latzel, Sigbert.** Die Vergangenheitstempora als Lehr- und Lerngegenstand im Fach 'Deutsch als Fremdsprache'. [The past tense forms in teaching and studying German as a foreign language.] *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich), **4** (1974), 151–66.

Tenses are part of the basic morphological substance of German. The three past tenses – the perfect, imperfect and pluperfect – are discussed as they affect the teaching of German to foreigners. Past meaning is often clear from the context or can be expressed other than by tense [examples, mainly taken from newspapers]. In general, however, it is hardly possible to write a succession of correct German sentences without using a past tense. The frequency of use of the three tenses is discussed [figures given]; the perfect tense is of greater communicative importance than the imperfect and the pluperfect because its use is less specialised. These three tenses are generally regarded as being difficult to teach, study and use. Interference is a problem in the case of foreign students. The pluperfect in particular is often misused. [A diagram deals with intervals relating to the time in which an action takes place.]

For each of the three tenses there are three uses: obligatory, semi-obligatory and voluntary. This classification is useful for the selection of teaching materials. Suggestions are made as to how to present the past tenses in the classroom. There are difficulties in using drills with these tenses, because the meaning often

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depends on the context. Setting up a parallel system of tenses based on semantics is recommended.

**SPANISH** See abstract 75-175

**RUSSIAN** See also abstract 75-210

**75-223 Blake, J. Joseph.** Predicate-subject order in Russian: what to tell the student. *Russian Language Journal* (Ottawa), **28**, 100 (1974), 44-50.

The problem of appropriate subject-predicate order is fundamental in Russian [example] and merits attention from the elementary to the advanced level. The general rule is that the given in a sentence precedes the new: if a subject is thematic it must normally precede the predicate, otherwise the reverse order pertains. For teaching purposes, three approaches are mentioned: (1) the Russian sentences and their English counterparts are contrasted, the prominent words in the English version being marked; (2) the students compose questions corresponding to given answers, in order to focus attention on the new sentence, and (3) an English-Russian translation drill is suggested. [Examples.]

**75-224 Safir, M. and Vaimberg, S.** Поверхностная структура и глубинная структура применительно к восприятию русской видовой корреляции. [Surface structure and deep structure applied to perception of the Russian aspect correlation.] *Russian Language Journal* (Ottawa), **28**, 100 (1974), 1-7.

[Brief summary of theory of deep and surface structure.] The theory may be used to cast light on difficulties in choice of aspect in prefixed verbs of motion. In the past tense where action in two directions (there and back) should be expressed in Russian by the imperfective aspect, students often use the perfective because of the completed nature of the action, following the normal definition of the aspect functions. The student should, however, be shown the bases in the deep structure for the choice of aspect in the surface structure. Thus in Russian the ability in the deep structure to break down complex actions (e.g. arriving and departing) into their constituent semantic components conditions the use in the surface structure of the imperfective, while a simple one-way motion (not implying return) is expressed by the perfective. The category of aspect is present in all the Slavonic languages, but the deep-structure bases of aspectual differentiation are not identical. In Polish and Czech, for example,

one-way and return motion in such verbs are not differentiated, the perfective being preferred for both, while in Bulgarian the system seems less regular, the forms used being dependent on lexical content of the verbs themselves. [Examples.]

**75–225 Tsibakhashvili, G. I.** Некоторые вопросы использования родного языка при обучению русскому. [Some questions on the use of the native language in the teaching of Russian.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), **6** (1974), 21–5.

In assessing the role of the students' native language in foreign-language learning the chief criterion should be effectiveness of mastering the new language. It is not a question of whether one should use the native language, but how. It may be used where it provides the best method of explaining or facilitating understanding or assimilation of the facts of the foreign language, but all that distracts students from language learning should be avoided. Comparison between the two languages, where the features of the native language become a base for comparison with the features of the new language, is useful only if the facts to be compared are well selected, with parallel forms in both languages. In veiled comparison, the native language does not figure, as the presentation of the material is organised with consideration of the differences and similarities of the two languages, and the difficulties the student might meet. Comparison with the native sounds can be of assistance in phonetics, though where totally alien sounds or stress patterns are involved, comparison may have to be between different forms in the foreign language. Native forms may also be used to explain new vocabulary, through translation and reference to words of common origin in the two languages. The disadvantage of translating to explain new vocabulary is that the student's attention is turned to the meaning of the word to the exclusion of its other (e.g. grammatical) properties, and where possible explanation should be through the foreign language.