

Language learning and teaching

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

69-307 Black, Harvey B. Effects of overtness of practice on learning. *Bulletin of the School of Education Indiana University* (Bloomington, Indiana), **44**, 6 (1968), 31-125.

'Learning by doing' methods have challenged the effectiveness of passive observation. If active responding contributes to the efficacy of learning, teaching procedures which have previously only required observation might be considerably improved by requiring overt responses. A series of twenty paired-associate experiments was designed to investigate the effects upon acquisition of varying the overtness of practice and the duration of the practice intervals. While the study was inconclusive, it was found that extension of the inter-stimulus intervals had a marked positive effect upon acquisition. This effect was diminished under variable interval conditions imposed by making the interval duration contingent upon correctness of practice response. Under constant interval conditions the effect was most evident when the inter-trial interval was extended and least evident when the anticipation interval was extended.

69-308 Doyle, Terry. Soviet approach to languages. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 2810 (March 28, 1969), 1038.

Soviet psychologists now recognize the complexity of the psychic processes involved in speech activities, and correspondingly base much of their thinking on a socio-psychological theory of speech. Language is seen as representing a highly bound system of patterns bearing a cognitive emotional character which can be revealed by comparative analysis. The concept of verbal behaviour has evolved as a result of the attempt to discover the psychological mechanisms involved in speech. Grammar-translation methods of teaching are now considered

too intellectual and developments in learning concepts and programmed instruction are seen with favour. Recently linguists and psychologists have considered language learning not only as a function of situation and stimulus response but also as the active communication of thought, insisting on provision for the comprehensive development of the individual and the principle of consciousness. Stress is laid on the formation of skills and habits and the capacity to make analogies.

Some audio-visual and other technical media have been introduced to provide creative generalizing activity, but more theoretical than practical progress has been made. In 1967 a special government-sponsored methodological centre was established for the teaching of Russian as a foreign language which could have much to contribute in the future.

69-309 Hellmich, Harald. Bewußtheit und Automatisierung im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Conscious and conditioned learning of foreign languages.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 6, 1 (1969), 4-15.

Drilling has become an accepted method for foreign language teaching to the exclusion of conscious language acquisition. It is advisable to use both methods concurrently. In order to prove how closely conscious and conditioned learning should be interwoven, the content of foreign language teaching is briefly analysed. It entails (1) the acquisition of speech symbols in a suitable selection and order for practice, (2) the acquisition of grammatical rules, (3) the hearing and reproduction of foreign symbols and the understanding and reproducing of structurally determined information, (4) the production of speech, together with the development of receptivity to new speech. The four areas clarify the relationship of conscious and conditioned learning and also determine the content of teaching materials. The two first categories will be drawn up according to linguistic laws, and the third and fourth will be subject to methodological and psychological considerations. The first two categories demand conscious learning, the second two will be imparted by conditioning. [Detailed proposals are expanded with illustrations.]

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- 69–310 Lademann, Norbert.** Zur Bedeutung von Erfahrungen, Begriffen, Situationen und Kontexten beim Erlernen einer Fremdsprache. [The importance of experience, concepts, situation and context in the learning of a foreign language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 5, 6 (1968), 343–50.

The relationship of experience, concepts, situation and context are discussed and it is asserted that foreign language teaching can become effective only through a clear understanding of the learning processes, especially those involved in the development of sound-symbol association. Experience is firstly a process, and secondly a result of a process. Direct and indirect experience are vital to successful learning of a foreign language; the latter is important in the learning of the meaning of the elements of the foreign language. Concepts are subjective generalizations. Carroll states that the word must evoke the concept, and the concept must evoke the word. 'Situation' is composed of five factors: (1) the persons principally involved in the situation, (2) linguistic and extra-linguistic activities of these persons, (3) events prior to the present situation, (4) events outside the control of the persons involved in the situation, (5) physical surroundings. Corder's ideas on the use of context in foreign language teaching are summarized. [Bibliography.]

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

- 69–311 Bennett, W. A.** The development of psychological theory and second language learning. *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons), 9 (1968), 3–9.

Physiological investigation may prove to be an ineffective way of showing how sentences are produced and perceived. If a machine can be built or described for changing inputs into outputs in a way parallel to the human being's responses to the same inputs, this will help to account for human behaviour.

The 'grammar' method of language teaching assumed that it was sufficient to name categories and fit language items to them. Practi-

tioners of the direct method placed emphasis on the material to be learned, and also on the ordering of it.

Psychological investigation this century has dealt with the nature of the input and whether it was important to know how the human organism dealt with it. Followers of Pavlov rejected introspection, the Gestalt psychologists retained it but concentrated on visual perception. Skinner extended stimulus/response association to 'verbal behaviour'.

Stimulus/response exercises were suitable for teaching sentences related in surface structure. The audio-lingual course does not deal with meaning except through translation, but this was a weakness in the descriptive power of structural linguistics. Behaviourist theory notes only overt behaviour.

Anthropological language study stresses larger units. The audio-visual course is derived more from the view of the larger unit than from a psychological view of the part played by the organism. The difference between the audio-visual and the audio-lingual approach lies in the former's use of larger units of language and of non-linguistic stimulus. Both kinds of course may combine.

Both habit and understanding are needed for language acquisition and use. Learners abstract their own rules. They can pass from a controlled stimulus-response learning situation to conversation if there is graduated removal of control.

Rules and the operations or structures are best displayed visually. [Examples given.]

The speaker produces sentences in which he balances originality against the need to be readily understood and accepted. Extension of the role of the visual as an informative adjunct presupposes an end to the opposition between the audio-visual and the audio-lingual approaches.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

- 69-312 **Traill, A.** Concerning the diagnosis and remedying of lack of competence in a second language. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 18, 3/4 (1968), 253-8.

A native speaker's linguistic competence cannot be equated with a sample of his performance, since non-linguistic information is contained in the latter and since any sample of performance is fortuitous and finite. The bilingual's lack of competence in the second language may be partial or, in parts of the language, complete. Lack of competence may not be reflected in performance. [The author describes a test to discover what a young African child knows about 'nested structures' in English.] Command of various other types of structure can be tested in this way. The test diagnoses an unrecognized or unrecognizable lack of competence in the second language and suggests the type of remedial material needed. Reading materials might have to be replaced by graded passages and comprehension tests.

The appreciation of literature depends, in part, on grasp of the linguistic system in which it is expressed.

TEACHING METHODS

CLASS METHODS

- 69-313 **Telling, Rudolf.** Über das Singen englischer und französischer Lieder. [Singing English and French songs.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), 13, 2 (1969), 84-7.

As a song is both poetry and music it appeals to children in both ways and can add greatly to their enjoyment and interest in learning a foreign language. Whether the teacher sings the song to the children himself or uses a musical instrument or a recording, he must be careful to see that the tune is pitched for his pupils to imitate comfortably. Different age-groups will need a different pitch. Girls will usually sing more willingly than boys. It is as well if the teacher knows which are the latest 'pop hits' lest he present a song which is sufficiently like a current hit for the pupils to be tempted into producing the modern

version. Songs should not be chosen which contain many dialect or regional words. Once words and tune have been learnt the song should be sung at frequent intervals and the pupils reminded of the meaning, which they can otherwise quickly forget. It can be sung at school festivals or at parents' meetings with a short explanation preceding it given by one of the children.

69-314 Broughton, Geoffrey. Practise in pairs. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), May (1969), 13-17.

The teacher of English is often faced with the conflicting problems of teaching large classes and the need to give them massive oral practice in the structures of the language. One method for achieving this is to teach the children to work in pairs, using patterns which are well known, with a list of familiar nouns on the board for prompting. After a suitable time, the teacher will stop the activity and prepare the class for its development, returning to paired practice after further collective preparation. Some traditional exercises can be easily converted for oral practice in pairs. [Examples throughout.] It is helpful if the children always work in the same pairs, as this establishes a routine. The teacher will move around to control the noise level, help where necessary and judge when to stop the activity. The use of the black-board gives each pair an external object to focus on and helps to prevent a drift into private conversation.

69-315 Byrne, Donn. Teaching a comprehension lesson to large classes. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), May (1969), 6-8.

Questions set to test understanding of a passage can be given to groups if the class is large. Groups should be first asked to identify the information area in the passage from which the answer will be drawn. This prevents not only tendencies to quote verbatim sentences which may be longer than necessary for the answer but also failure to adapt the structures to the needs of the question. While the groups work out the answers to questions allocated to them the teacher can help the weaker pupils. Answers will be provided by one or two pupils in each

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group followed by choral repetition of the correct answer. When all the questions have been answered the class can be asked to write down the agreed answers. The learning situation will not have been ideal but it will have increased considerably the amount of learner participation.

69-316 Concari, Leonor. Teaching English to a large class of children. *English Teaching* (Rio de Janeiro), May (1969), 3-5.

Teaching a large group of beginners can be exciting but the children's enthusiasm will rapidly wane if their energy is not properly channelled. With individual questioning not more than two or three sentences are uttered by each student in a teaching period. Chorus work in small groups will enable more participation. Sentences must be modelled clearly, without distorting the natural rhythm of the language. Nine-to-ten-syllable sentences are long enough to remember. Chorus work cannot be used throughout a teaching period, however much a pattern needs to be drilled, because a child's concentration span is short. Group competitions are more stimulating than individual competitions. Chorus work can also be used for teaching poems and dialogues. Children are anxious to communicate but while their structures are limited they can easily feel frustrated. If they are given stimuli they are well acquainted with and allowed to answer in chorus, they will become confident. This kind of activity must be carefully controlled, otherwise there will be chaos in the classroom. Discipline and a friendly atmosphere must prevail.

69-317 Cook, V. J. Some types of oral structure drills. *Language Learning* (Michigan), 18, 3/4 (1968), 155-64.

Oral structure drills aim at getting the learner to produce a number of utterances having the same grammatical structure. A drill has two parts: what the student hears (the input) and what he has to say (the output). Drills can be described in terms either of the relationship between the pairs of input and output or of the relationship between successive outputs. The extent to which context or situation plays a part in the drill has bearing on the teaching method. Four divisions

may be recognized: non-contextualized, semi-contextualized, contextualized, and situational. If a drill is contextualized, the learner should be aware of this. Drills can have settings not directly connected with the structure being taught. The basic operations in a structure drill are substitution, mutation, repetition, and addition. In substitution all the outputs are variations of the original master output: plain, sequence, lexical, pronoun and 'knowledge' types may be distinguished. In mutation drills the learner changes the structure of the input to produce the output. In addition, successive outputs are put together. The learner performs a very limited number of operations and it appears that what is happening in a drill is much more limited than had been previously thought. All the operations deal with sentence structure. Whether this is due to the inadequacy of the present treatment or to the inadequacy of structure drills for teaching deep structure is not yet clear.

69-318 Fearing, Percy. Nongraded foreign language classes. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), 2, 3 (1969), 343-7.

Modern foreign-language teaching methods are for mass instruction. New sophisticated language laboratories are multi-channelled but lack of supervisory staff and scarcity of programmed, taped materials prevent their being used by pupils outside lesson time. Teachers have felt it necessary for everyone to cover the same kind and amount of material. Nevertheless, for two years a Minnesota high school has had a non-graded class of pupils. Regrouping was possible at any time if achievement indicated it was necessary.

Summer school foreign language programmes have been growing and have provided opportunities for teachers to gain initial experience in working with non-graded groups. The basic difference is that the lessons are now planned with an eye on performance rather than on time. One proposal is that students should be kept together in a large group for instruction through the initial phase. Later they would be allowed to proceed at individual rates of progress.

- 69-319 Lee, W. R.** Collective speaking: an essential technique.
English Teaching (Rio de Janeiro), May (1969), 17-21.

Although eliciting an answer to a question from only one child may in some circumstances be a satisfactory technique, collective speaking has an equally important place. There are some obvious disadvantages but collective speaking can help shy children, keep everyone active, bring variety of procedure into lessons, and save a great deal of time by providing maximum oral practice. It is not suggested that other forms of practice should be excluded, but that collective speaking should be included. It is less appropriate at relatively advanced stages of language learning, but elementary pupils need much guidance and support. It is appropriate whenever there is only one answer and need never be mechanical. Shouting should not be allowed. Besides disturbing others it encourages an unnatural chanting type of speech. It is doubtful whether a lazy pupil will find more opportunity for idleness in a class which has regular collective speaking than in one which has not. Group work gives an additional rather than an alternative method.

- 69-320 Rees, Alun L. W.** This dictation business—a closer look.
Lenguaje y Ciencias (Trujillo), 30 (1968), 1-32.

There has been a tendency in the last twenty-five years to neglect dictation but recently there has been a reaction in its favour. If properly handled it should offer much to both teacher and student and should be adaptable to a range of activities such as aural composition, writing, correlation of spoken and written language, practising structural and lexical items, testing knowledge. Whatever the purpose is in giving a dictation, the student must have a reasonably high chance of producing a perfect piece of work. Except for advanced learners, the material should have been heard and practised orally beforehand and in the early stages this will mean using the current textbook, questions to be answered, sentences to be transformed, extraneous material such as anecdotes, magazine articles, or a passage specially composed by the teacher, referring to local events or some-

thing which is being studied in another subject. At elementary levels dictation should be prepared beforehand in class and at home. [Details of how to present the dictation and correct it in class with suggestions on a marking notation to indicate different types of error.] Mistakes incurred through mother-tongue interference where scripts, paragraphing and punctuation are dissimilar will need special attention. Follow-up work may take the form of memorization, oral drills, questions and answers on the passage. [Bibliography.]

69-321 Strain, Jeris E. Drilling and methodology. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **18**, 3/4 (1968), 177-82.

Drilling functions differently in the pattern-practice and mimicry-memorization methods. A drill exercise is one in which the learner's attention is shifted from a learning point to something which occurs with it but is not part of it. The pattern-practice method emphasizes grammatical structure, while the mimicry-memorization method emphasizes situational utterances and learning in terms of socio-cultural meaning. Lexical meaning plays a secondary role in both. In pattern practice, the learner's attention is shifted from conscious production of a structural point towards interest in the total meaning of the sentences. In mimicry-memorization the learner's attention is shifted from the mechanics of production towards interest in the information communicated. A third method should also exist giving chief emphasis to lexical meaning. The two methods discussed have changed, and each has adopted aspects of the other.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

69-322 Matters, C. Virginia. Full-colour sound filmstrips as enrichment materials for young children. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 118-24.

Filmstrips and tapes can be stored more easily than films and are easier to use; filmstrip projectors are cheaper and easier to handle. Small children can handle both tapes and filmstrips.

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Filmstrips with sound offer illustrated story-telling. [The author describes filmstrips made for young Spanish-speaking children in Puerto Rico. The purpose was to reinforce the aural-oral learning of English and to encourage oral communication, to make the learning more enjoyable, and later to reinforce the association of sounds and printed symbols.] If pupils enjoy the English class, this will make the teacher's task easier. The materials are supplementary. The pupils use the language of the story in retelling and dramatizing it, but not in other situations. Structures and vocabulary are controlled. Repetition is an integral part of the stories. The first set of filmstrip frames, which are uncaptioned, are for the basic aural-oral learning. The captioned ones are for later reading practice. The tapes are divided into 'slow' and 'normal', the latter to be used after the single speech-units have been learned. The stories are very simple.

The teacher must hear the speech sounds or words without reference to the printed symbols. The pupils must repeat direct from the tape. Reading practice with the filmstrips begins after oral mastery of the taped stories and is supplementary to regular reading instruction. [A recommended procedure for using the filmstrips is described.]

These materials make pupils eager to talk English, and enable them to understand English spoken by unfamiliar voices. The general response has been enthusiastic.

LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

69-323 Bung, Klaus. Towards truly programmed language laboratory courses. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), **7**, 1 (1969), 5-17.

Most of the conventional language laboratory materials are not self-instructional and a myth has survived that languages cannot be programmed. A truly self-instructional programme will contain *all* the information needed for a language laboratory or other programme exercise and it reduces monitoring to a minimum. In a conventional course the classroom is used for presentation and the laboratory for

acquisition. A well programmed course will do both—the teacher's task is changed to one of personal contact and maintenance of motivation. [A diagram represents the scheme for a true programme beginning with ear-training and articulation exercises and proceeding through elementary speech to reading and then writing, each student following alternative methodological branches according to his 'learner-type'.] [Comprehensive bibliography.]

69–324 Farrington, Brian. The place of the language laboratory in a university French department. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 7, 1 (1969), 19–24.

A language laboratory can offer, at all levels, models of the spoken language so that they can be freely studied. Exercises calling for prolonged thought, the use of rare tense sequences, or the raising of artificial problems which could prove difficult for the native speaker, are not helpful. A learner whose knowledge of the grammar of a language is incomplete will be restricted in his production of sentences by his limited vocabulary. An advanced student should exercise his choice in terms of subject matter or relationship with the person addressed. He is able to function at sentence level. The average first-year student often has a large amount of passive knowledge of the language but little active oral ability. The language laboratory can be used to achieve this facility, but at an advanced level the laboratory is best used, not as an aid to performance, but to knowledge about the features of the living language. Samples of speech can be selected to illustrate the difference between phonological systems of English and French, to show the variety of style and dialect within the bounds of normal everyday French. The most realistic way to learn about French versification is by listening to speech and verse in both languages. In order to discover the reason for two interpretations of a play the student must study the aspects of character or situation which are most easily brought out or played down in each version. Material for textual study need not be exclusively literary. The detailed study of varieties of speech can be undertaken from radio programmes and recordings. There is now increased emphasis on the spoken forms of

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the language and a language laboratory library is essential to their study at all levels.

69-325 Hedger, Brian. Some questions about language laboratories. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 132-8.

There has been a sharp increase in the number of language laboratories installed in recent years; yet little experimental work of a comparative kind has been done to estimate their effectiveness. The new language laboratory does not encourage people to consider its limitations. Experiment is mostly directed towards answering the question of what *can* rather than of what *must* be done. [The author quotes from Keating's report on the effectiveness of language laboratories.] The laboratory is most effective in work at the phonological level and in the early stages. The meanings of words which involve intellectual or emotional subtlety, or presuppose a cultural background, cannot well be taught in the laboratory. Repetition and mimicry-memorization are not the best methods in all cases. Various factors must be weighed before the value of a laboratory in a given situation can be gauged.

69-326 Rees, Alun L. W. Running a language laboratory. *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 27 (1968), 1-11.

A five-year scheme for prospective English teachers entails five hours of classwork a week, supplemented by five hours in the language laboratory, for the first two years. Classes are expected to work as a group, arriving punctually and maintaining their attendance, even if individual members work at different speeds. After twenty-five minutes there is a five-minute break for a language game. An extra copy of master tapes is kept to prevent loss from inevitable wear and tear. The four-phase drill is favoured. Laboratory and class work are closely co-ordinated. Monitoring of progress is strict and if a student needs help he raises a hand for attention. If a monitor detects a persistent pronunciation error he completes a form and hands it to the student after the lesson. An appointment is then made for remedial attention. A progress report is also made out for each student for the

year's work [specimen]. [Details of the labelling and storage of the tapes are given.] The language laboratory has also been stocked with a sound library of lectures, professional poetry readings, dialogues, British and American songs, Churchill's speeches, and talks on teaching English in difficult circumstances. The teacher officially appointed head of the language laboratory is responsible for administration, conducting classes and running repairs.

69-327 Ridler, P. J. Language laboratories—a compromise solution. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (London), 7, 1 (1969), 27-8.

The audio-active-comparative laboratory was found unsuitable for an independent school cramped for installation and storage space. Even on educational grounds the advantages of movable installations, with headsets but no booths, in the language classrooms seemed much greater. Integration with classroom teaching was easier. No time was lost in getting equipment ready and putting it away. Visual aids could be constantly used. Teacher-pupil contact was easy. Laboratory work could take place in the middle of a lesson enabling immediate follow-up in the form of written work, conversation, acting, etc. The lack of playback facility was not found important. Pupils could be recorded one at a time through the console, which would be sufficient to satisfy curiosity, and the sixth form had access to the eight tape recorders out of teaching hours. The lack of privacy and silence probably increased concentration, the weaker pupils picking up signals from quicker neighbours, and there was a general increase in confidence.

69-328 Schneider, Alfred. Übungen im Sprachlabor und ihre Zweckdienlichkeit im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Language laboratory exercises and their usefulness in foreign language teaching.] *Revue de phonétique appliquée* (Mons), 9, (1968), 35-40.

For five years the School for Interpreters at Mons has been using the audio-visual, structuro-global method of Guberina which was designed originally for adults. Generalizing from this particular course

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to the advantages and limitations of audio-visual methods, the author considers whether they in fact prevent the student from acquiring a knowledge of the culture and literature of the language under study, as well as an adequate grasp of grammatical structure. At Mons it was found that after three years spent in acquiring a basic vocabulary and the structure of a foreign language, vocabulary could be greatly widened through language laboratory exercises carried out independently. Specialization was then introduced on subjects such as international monetary exchange, space research, aid to developing countries, agriculture and the common market. Some time was devoted to the study of modern literature. Laboratory work was used as a preparation and basis for written essays which were then corrected. Recorded plays and broadcasts were also available for use.

Experience has shown that it is possible to preserve the unity of the spoken and written language and help the students to active independent learning of the foreign language.

PRIMARY PUPILS

69–329 Pillet, Roger A. The impact of FLES: an appraisal. *Modern Language Journal* (Wisconsin), 52, 8 (1968), 486–90.

The Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools programme has offered French for the last decade to pupils in non-streamed classes. The problems are not yet solved but they are at least identified. There are organizational complications, problems of communication, lack of agreement on objectives and methodology, and some of the original impetus has been lost. Nevertheless a body of teachers has acquired competence in this field and evaluation shows some qualified success, and some reservations. Not all third grade pupils had a talent for mimicry. Low achievers and non-achievers were serious problems. Some teachers felt that many of the children had a greater capacity for a straight academic approach. Professional observers were quick to notice shortcomings, slow to appraise the fruitful experience for a large number of children. [The University of Chicago follow-up report was not published but some of the results are summarized in the article.]

TERTIARY STUDENTS

- 69-330 Arnavon, Cyrille.** La part de la 'civilisation' dans les enseignements universitaires de culture étrangère. [The role of 'civilization' in university teaching on foreign cultures.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **63**, 2 (1969), 36-40.

A purely literary and linguistic training is today seen as incomplete without a wider study of 'civilization'. However, legal, artistic, demographic and technological problems need to be handled by specialists, though some language teachers will be well versed in fine arts, music or the cinema. Such subjects can be treated either in the mother tongue or in the foreign language. A combination of subjects at university level is fairly common in England and the United States. At present in France, the Sorbonne and a few other universities are beginning to offer a multidiscipline course during the first year of studies. An amateur approach is to be avoided. Students must be encouraged to reach a high standard in any discipline undertaken parallel to their first choice. In spite of the reformation of courses there is still a risk of isolating literature teaching from the main lines of contemporary thought.

- 69-331 Stern, Guy and Victor Anthony Rudowski.** Ph.D.s, Nobel prize winners, and the foreign language requirement. *Modern Language Journal* (Wisconsin), **52**, 7 (1968), 431-5.

Abstracts in English of scientific papers are valuable, but researchers need a reading knowledge of foreign languages too, since much material is not available in the form of abstracts and an abstract is not a substitute for the full work. An increasing ratio of scientific publications originate in non-English-speaking countries. Three German Nobel prize winners in physics, chemistry and medicine confirmed that, although lengthy sojourns in the United States had ensured translation of their own major findings, the majority of important German scientific works were not translated into English. Almost a third of doctoral candidates checked on had consulted no foreign-language sources. The frequency with which foreign-language references are cited depends on the candidate's fluency, and those who

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can use foreign languages do so. Elimination of the Ph.D. foreign-language requirement would deprive graduates of a useful tool. But although foreign-language study has utilitarian value, it also has intrinsic merit as a means to a liberal education.

IMMIGRANTS

- 69-332 Candlin, Christopher.** Pronunciation problems of Asian immigrants. *English for Immigrants* (London), 2, 2 (1969), 23-9.

[The article deals with the learning of English pronunciation by immigrants from India and Pakistan. Comparisons are made between Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, Gujerati and British RP norms.] Most immigrants are learning English in a non-RP environment and the teacher may well find that the children he is teaching can more easily adapt to the educated regional standard than to RP, as vowels in particular may more closely resemble the child's mother-tongue vowels. Vowel, consonant, diphthong, and word-stress problems are treated separately with a key to indicate in which immigrant language difficulties will arise. [Bibliography.]

- 69-333 Dutton, W. M.** The education of immigrants. *Trends in Education* (London), 14 (1969), 24-8.

Birmingham education authority set up in 1960 a department for the teaching of English as a second language, consisting of two peripatetic teachers soon supplemented by a team which now consists of sixty-five full-time and three part-time teachers who visit seventy-nine schools and teach groups involving a total of 2,300 children. The children are withdrawn from their normal classes for periods of concentrated direct-method language teaching. The department is based near the city centre and has an eight-booth language laboratory, a room for the display and testing of audio-visual language-teaching materials and books, a room for meetings and classes, a secretariat and a workshop. Not only is teaching carried out but a service of inter-

preters is provided to help schools communicate with parents. In-service courses for non-specialist teachers are held at the centre. It is not much used for the teaching of the children themselves. Other centres are used for language teaching for children of secondary school age giving two terms of concentrated English teaching before a normal secondary school is asked to accept the pupils.

Many basic questions remain once the pupil is in his secondary school. Further help will be needed to enable the immigrant to realize his full potential. Diagnostic tests are far from perfect. In any case complete success cannot be hoped for within the first generation.

69-334 Hanson, Caroline. Language teaching techniques in a secondary school remedial situation. *Remedial Education* (Oxford), 4, 1 (1969), 40-2.

A group of West Indian children in Penge needed remedial help although they had come at age eleven from a country in which they had been reasonably successful in school. They did not feel that they needed to be taught English but their vocabulary and experience were inadequate for them to work beside English children. The children were not removed from regular classes where they could profit. To avoid a feeling of racial segregation, English-born pupils in need of help were removed as necessary along with West Indian classmates.

Language patterns such as question and answer can at the same time be used to teach vocabulary. Flashcards and tapes were used for team games to reinforce both patterns and vocabulary.

Patterned language was used successfully to help with maths problems. The children learnt to make up problems for each other, following an established pattern and using different vocabulary and figures. The history lesson was a natural exercise for drilling the past tense. Open-ended sentences given as a quick round to the class provided an opportunity for teaching proper use of conjunctions such as *because*, *although*, and a variety of words to express different moods, incorporating miming and blackboard drawings and leading to written work, with the addition of punctuation. Drills and patterns formed a basis for group work supporting the weak without limiting the strong.

- 69-335 Watson, Guy A.** Training for cross-cultural teaching. *Audiovisual Instruction* (Washington, DC), **14**, 1 (1969), 51-4.

Experience gained in teaching Navajo children in New Mexico showed that language was not the only problem in the classroom. Cultural differences, such as ways of showing respect or disrespect, needed to be understood before communication could take place. The Southwestern Co-operative Educational Laboratory Inc. produced materials and techniques designed for infant and early primary teaching, using Navajo and Spanish as well as English on recorded material. Cultural relevance was considered important and alternative lessons were provided for groups of varied ethnic constitution. Intensive training was given to twenty teachers for two weeks in July 1968 and it was expected that these twenty would then run local courses in August, preparing 120 teachers for 3,000 children in September. Children were provided by a holiday play centre and teachers taking part in the course were videotaped. Arrangements were made for teachers to live in minority group homes for a weekend. Local courses run by this first group lacked televising facilities but otherwise followed the same pattern.

BILINGUAL STUDENTS

- 69-336 Brooks, Nelson.** The meaning of bilingualism today. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **2**, 3 (1969), 304-9.

Bilingualism is the habitual use of two languages. Its attainment is marked not by the crossing of a boundary but by a gradual transition. Inwardly bilingualism relates to preverbal thought which makes available to the speaker two separate systems of expression. To be bilingual is to be bicultural, for the locus of individual culture is in the values and prejudices, positive and negative, of preverbal and post-verbal thought. Ideal bilingualism is a possibility for the very young and the best place to develop it is in the home. The next best place is in the classroom, but only if it provides ample oral practice. Test-centred learning does not encourage the separation of the two lan-

guage codes. If the colleges and universities co-operate and the schools are assured that those in higher education will build on what has been accomplished in the schools, the student will receive all that would have accrued to him through a philological approach, and in addition will have the basis of bilingualism.

SPEECH

69-337 Soboleva, N. I. О количественных характеристиках темпа речи [Qualitative characteristics of speech tempo.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1968), 65-70.

Speech tempo is a significant psychological factor for students in understanding a lecture in a foreign language, particularly when new material is being presented.

The speech speeds of several lecturers were measured in syllables per second and found to vary proportionately with the pace of their normal speech when not lecturing. Recordings of lecturers explaining new material with and without visual support were made. [Tables and graphs illustrate comparisons between the tempo of lecturers' speech when delivering these two types of explanation.] To determine the average information value in the speech tempos and the difference in the tempo at various stages of a lecture, mathematical statistics and the theory of probability were employed.

The tempo of a lecturer's speech is not always constant, but varies with the content of the material, the use of visual illustration and the activity of the lecturer himself. The mean tempo of such speech in explaining new material is 3.281 syllables per second, speeding up to 3.84 syllables per second if, in explaining new material, he resorts to visual means of presentation.

In order that foreign students may understand lecturers, systems of exercises need to be organized according to the characteristics of lecturers' speech with careful attention being paid to the mean tempo and variations of such speech.

69-338 Ure, Jean. Practical registers (A). *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 107-14.

Register (situationally differentiated language variety) is the newest branch of the study of language variety. No one register can serve an all-purpose model. A range of varieties must be taught. The circumstances affecting our choice of register can be of several kinds. One of the most general distinctions is that between spoken and written language. There is considerable difference between the spoken language used in monologue and conversation, though no clear-cut division is traceable. A further distinction noticeable is that between prepared and spontaneous speech. We may classify texts situationally according to medium and according to social function, and sub-classifications may be made.

Conversational and action-situation language come first in the experience of the native speaker but are rarely part of the second language learner's experience, since teachers often fail to recognize the importance of the active method and drop it early. [The author gives two examples of errors arising from ignorance of the register to use.] Genuine language-in-action has hardly been studied.

INTONATION AND STRESS

69-339 Graham, Robert Somerville. The music of language and the foreign accent. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 3 (1969), 445-51.

The lay term 'accent' cannot be used independently of the intellectual content of a phrase. 'Music' is here used to imply the combination of sounds in varying patterns of melody, rhythm and timbre. It is the element that survives even after an individual or an entire people has abandoned the ancestral form of speech for a new one. It is the most significant part of the linguistic substratum, which explains such phenomena as the diversity of neo-Latin languages and the German consonantal shifts. Acquiring the music of a language depends on perceptiveness and ability to imitate. Mastery of the music of a lan-

guage is the factor which above all will enable the speaker to be accepted in a foreign community. Pronunciation can be taught but the music of a language cannot be adequately explained. Incentive, ability and will are all contributory to learning and too great a concern with the intellectual content of a phrase can be an inhibiting factor. The uninhibited mimicry of children does much to make them adept learners of foreign sounds. It would be advantageous to regard the music of a foreign language as a separate entity to be taught as such for a while, letting the learner mimic the sounds without regard to the meaning. When he has acquired some knowledge of the system in the form of words and phrases a certain thought content can be introduced.

VOCABULARY

69–340 **Werlich, Egon.** Die Technik systematischer Wortschatzarbeit im Fremdsprachenunterricht: (1) Aspekte und Bedeutung feldbezogener Worterlernung. [The technique of systematic vocabulary work in foreign language teaching: (1) aspects and significance of field-related learning of vocabulary.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 16, 1 (1969), 23–38.

Systematically widening and consolidating the pupil's vocabulary in a foreign language is often neglected in favour of grammar. Moreover, the methods of teaching vocabulary are usually unsatisfactory. Too much emphasis is laid on memorizing collections of isolated words listed in the order in which they occur in a text, and even when these words are defined in the foreign language this is of little real assistance to the pupil who must grasp and memorize them. Most methods are based on the alphabetical bilingual dictionary.

Dictionaries of synonyms, idiomatic dictionaries, and systematic dictionaries of the thesaurus type are considered more useful tools for vocabulary-learning purposes, but they are still far from ideal. The author advocates a new kind of systematic dictionary which would be restricted to a specific subject, e.g. literature, and would present words in semantic fields grouping terms of similar meaning under a

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key concept, in collocation fields listing words in their most common contexts of speech, and in morphological fields. The ideal 'field system' dictionary would incorporate all three kinds of field.

The new type of dictionary would also take into consideration fields of subject matter which would make possible the choice of the correct words on the right linguistic level from a semantic or collocation field; also these subject fields would have to be used as a guide for limiting collocation fields to fit specific subjects.

Linguistic fields or words, fields of subject matter, and situational context are necessary to understand fully the meaning of a word, and they would be taken into account in a field system dictionary. They have also been proved to be the best help a pupil can be given in acquiring and retaining vocabulary.

READING

69-341 Gudschinsky, Sarah C. The relationship of language and linguistics to reading. *Kivung* (Boroko, New Guinea), 1, 3 (1969), 146-52.

The languages with which we deal most frequently are written with alphabets, and individual phonemes are represented by letters or groups of letters. Although it would seem that the relationship of language to reading might be limited to the equation of phoneme and letter the complex structure of language proves this to be an oversimplification. Control of individual phonemes is not sufficient for smooth speech. Syllables are the most relevant units of recognition. It is also necessary to practise reading the larger units which carry the intonation and are basic to intelligible speech.

The role of the linguist in the choice of a medium of instruction is to determine which language the pupils speak well enough to use for this purpose. Not only major languages but variety, dialect and social register must be considered. The linguist can also help in the preparation of materials written and oral since pedagogical considerations may easily obscure linguistic realities.

The minimum linguistic information needed to produce beginners'

reading material consists of: (1) a comparison of the orthographies, (2) an analysis of the larger phonological units including syllables, rhythm groups, intonation patterns, (3) a study of discourse types and their internal structure which permits an approximation to the pupils' everyday speech, (4) a study of the vocabulary used by the pupils.

If it is decided to teach the pupils a second language as a medium for instruction in reading the linguist might be expected to provide: (1) a contrastive analysis of the phonology and grammar of the pupils' mother tongue and the second language, indicating probable points of difficulty, (2) a vocabulary study of the pupils' speech in their own language to indicate the range of their experience and information.

COMPREHENSION

69-342 Hamilton, Stanley. Using the 'dictée' for aural comprehension. *French Review* (Baltimore), **42**, 2 (1968), 279-85.

Traditional teachers sometimes assigned a passage to be dictated for prior study or even for memorizing by the students. It became a test of spelling with little reliance on aural comprehension. When the student has not seen the passage dictated total dependence on accurate hearing is ensured. A taped dictation for use in the language laboratory can be prepared by the student at his own pace by repeated hearings. The final script may show that the student has heard accurately but has not transcribed with grammatical accuracy, or semantic variants may be possible and context must decide the choice.

It is helpful to record the text consecutively several times on different occasions. This provides the student with variations which may help him to disentangle a difficult passage and challenge him to discover why a passage can sound different at different times. Aural discrimination drills intensify perception of phonemic differences which are corner-stones to aural comprehension.

The effectiveness of dictation in providing training in aural comprehension may be questioned, but it does reinforce attention and can contribute to total aural comprehension.

TEACHING OF LITERATURE

- 69-343 Arthur, Bradford.** Reading literature and learning a second language. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **18**, 3/4 (1968), 199-210.

Through the use of literature, language learning might become a source of pleasure and satisfaction to the student; but those who have tried to use literature have not always been successful. Literary experience cannot be consciously induced. It requires a story suited to the reader, who must become intellectually and emotionally involved in it.

Literature may serve learning by helping students to master vocabulary and grammar, and to understand the societies in which the target language is spoken.

If literature is to provide a useful vehicle for the teaching of second-language skills, it must first succeed as a literary experience. An understanding of the story as a whole may precede an understanding of some of the words and structures. Non-verbal clues to the meaning can be provided. A literary experience can also precede total verbal understanding if familiar stories are used. The story should be read aloud and there should be plenty of illustrations. If literature is presented orally, it can be introduced early. The reading environment should be relaxed. Explanations should be few. A test should not follow immediately.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE AS A MEDIUM FOR TEACHING

- 69-344 Lambert, W. E. and J. Macnamara.** Some cognitive consequences of following a first-grade curriculum in a second language. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **60**, 2 (1969), 86-96.

A group of Canadian parents, concerned about the ineffectiveness of current methods of teaching second languages, initiated a project to develop skill in a second language (French) by using it as the medium

of instruction with first grade pupils whose mother tongue was English. The experimental class was compared with both English and French control classes from comparable middle-class neighbourhoods. Not only was progress noted in French but in mathematics, and in general intelligence. No additional ability was noticed in discriminating between the sounds of an unknown language (Russian). Results showed striking progress in French and considerable transfer to English skills, but the full value of the study cannot be judged until further experimental classes have been conducted and there has been a follow-up with the same students who are continuing their bilingual lessons for another two years.

TEACHING SPEAKERS OF PARTICULAR LANGUAGES

69-345 Dušková, Libuše. On sources of errors in foreign language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 7, 1 (1969), 11-31.

Fifty essays by fifty adult Czech students of English were analysed to discover the sources of the errors made. Mother-tongue influence was noticeable in errors involving order of words, phrase and sentence structure. Morphological errors could mostly be traced to other English forms. Lexical errors came from two sources: minor differences between apparently similar English words, and the fact that one Czech word may have several equivalents in English. Interference from another foreign language (usually German) learnt before English also accounted for some errors.

A similar investigation had been made earlier into errors in reading comprehension. Some of the problems revealed by errors in translation were identical in the two investigations.

The findings do not justify abandoning contrastive analysis of source and target languages and adopting error-based analyses. Rather, the one can supplement the other. The greatest difficulties for those aiming at mastery of a foreign language are with the grammatical categories which do not exist in the mother tongue.

ENGLISH See also abstracts 69-316, -322, -326, -332 4, -345

69-346 Capell, A. The limits of second language learning. *Monda Linguo-problemo* (The Hague), **1**, 1 (1969), 19-26.

How close to perfection can a non-European come in learning a European language? The different timbre of non-European voices gives the impression that there are differences from normal English that are not really there. Learning difficulties arise at each level of language: pronunciation, grammar, syntax, but conceptualization is the greatest obstacle to learning a language belonging to a different culture. The basis of ability in the foreign language is the power to produce the sounds. Differences of grammatical structure (as between English and French and aboriginal Australian languages) give rather less difficulty. Colour terminology is an area of difference in conceptualization. [Table 1 shows correspondences between colour terms used in the Pacific area.] Systems of numeration and of time and tense are very different for the Australian aboriginal and Pacific languages and for English, as are also word-order and subordination.

69-347 Davidson, T. T. L. Indian bilingualism and the evidence of the census of 1961. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **22**, 2/3 (1969), 176-96.

The Indian language situation has long been marked by indecision at the top and by prejudice and ignorance at the roots. There is no doubt that Hindi is the dominant mother tongue and is, in some form, Sanskritized or not, the only candidate for a national *Indian* language. What is needed is a study of those languages which are already being used as 'other tongues' for communication between speakers of different mother tongues. It is in this area that the spread of Hindi can most significantly be studied and compared with other Indian languages and English. The existing literature on the subject is based mainly on the census of 1951. The article attempts to display facts from the census of 1961. [Tables are given for the various states with explanatory comments.] The questions raised show that the

opportunity for sociolinguistic investigation is as large and the problem more important than ever.

69-348 Hawkes, C. N. English in Sudanese education. *Teacher Education in New Countries* (London), 9, 3 (1969), 240-59.

Since the Sudan became independent, English has been replaced by Arabic as the medium of instruction in secondary schools. It has ceased to be the expression of a direct link with an English-speaking country, and is now valued as a means of international communication and as a key to scientific knowledge.

English is the medium of higher education. The decline of standards in English is primarily due to failure to reassess traditional teaching methods during the process of expansion. Until recently English was taught as if it were the mother tongue and was tested by a conventional examination. The older schools had prestige. Formal grammar was stressed, and literature was the ultimate justification for language study. Practice came from the use of English as a medium and from the presence of many Englishmen. The School Certificate pass-rate in English has declined, but in 'content' subjects standards have been better maintained.

There was some delay in switching over to Arabic. Secondary education was arabicized in 1965. Arabic is not the mother tongue in the south, though it is a medium of trade and personal communication. Much better opportunities for southerners to learn Arabic should be created. Nor is the switch to Arabic in the north immediately advantageous without preparation and research.

The English-teaching position has improved with the coming of trained and partly trained teachers into the secondary school. Since the early fifties, teaching of English in the intermediate schools has been better than in the secondary schools. The system is now being revised. Expatriates are less needed than in other African countries, though some hold key posts. English teaching is supported by television and by tape recordings. A newsletter is distributed to teachers of English. A materials production unit has been established and examinations are being reformed.

- 69-349 Jarvis, R.** Developments in English language teaching in Ethiopia. *English Language Teaching* (London), **23**, 2 (1969), 151-6.

Amharic is the mother tongue of about a quarter of the population. All pupils learn it from the time they enter school. Instruction in English begins in the third year of the elementary school, and English is used as a medium from the first year of the junior secondary school.

[The author outlines recent developments, e.g. the appointment of a full-time adviser, the adoption of a new type of school certificate examination, the establishment of an association of English teachers, the creation of new teaching materials, the use of television and radio.]

More than half the secondary school teachers are expatriates. Specialist teachers of English are most needed in the elementary schools. Classes are too large and there is an inadequate supply of teaching materials.

- 69-350 Matthes, Heinz.** Gruppenarbeit im Englischunterricht der Unterstufe. [Group work in English for the lower forms.] *Neuere Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **68**, 1 (1969), 29-39.

Group-work has been recommended for the middle and younger forms in North Rhine-Westphalia, but experience has shown that without a considerable reduction in the teaching load, and team-work by the subject staff, this is not feasible. Given this assistance, group work becomes a possibility and work on these lines with a first year grammar school class is described. The children are divided between tables seating four, so arranged that there is a mixture of ability at each table, each having a natural leader. A prepared dialogue is read, each child taking a part, and questions (prepared beforehand) are asked and answered round the table. The teacher can circulate between the tables, join in and help. Answers to questions are written on the blackboard by members of each group and the group corrects its own members' work. The younger children enjoy the feeling of working together and having more opportunities to take an active part. Inhibitions are reduced and correction is often more readily received

from classmates than from the teacher. It may be objected that pronunciation goes uncorrected in group work and if necessary this can be remedied by short intervals of choral speech. The increased noise in the classroom is rarely found to be a distraction. The teacher is free to work with the slower group of pupils. Many textbooks now contain exercises suitable for language laboratories and these are usually adaptable for group work.

69-351 Michaels, David. Determining with the definite article. *Language Learning* (Michigan), **18**, 3/4 (1968), 211-25.

Providing the student with grammatical explanations for the use of the definite article in English is said to give no better results than simple repetition of patterned sentences. Nevertheless the student may find it difficult to generalize from patterns and it now seems that if we can make new discoveries, in the light of present research, about English grammar structure we shall be in a better position to help students than by searching for fresh methodological techniques. [The article explains the variety of circumstances in which the definite article occurs and sample exercises show how the student can be led to use the facts of sentence grammar in actual discourse.] It is because the information relevant to the use and interpretation of the definite article is largely discourse-related that it is not easily accessible in the typical sentence-patterns approach to teaching English.

69-352 Nakao, Kiyooki. A report on English teaching in Japan. *Bulletin of the Institute for Research in Language Teaching* (Tokyo), 285 (1968), 20-48 and 54.

[The paper makes a general survey of English teaching in Japan from the beginning of the new educational system in 1872 to the present day with emphasis on post-war developments. It looks for reasons for the criticism that English teaching has been ineffective, and suggests some possible areas in which a remedying of the situation may be expected.]

69-353 Nielsen, Oscar. The teaching of English in Denmark. *English Language Teaching* (London), 23, 2 (1969), 156-66.

All Danish children have to learn a foreign language for at least two years, and most choose English. [The author describes in some detail the system of options in various types of school, the numbers who avail themselves of these options, and the timetable allocations. He outlines the historical development of English teaching in Denmark, discusses aims and the nature of the work at various stages, and deals with syllabuses and examinations. He gives examples of prescribed texts. There is a substantial section on the supply and training of teachers.]

FRENCH *See also abstracts* 69-324, -329 and -344

69-354 Tucker, G. Richard, Wallace E. Lambert and André Rigault. Students' acquisition of French gender distinctions. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 7, 1 (1969), 51-5.

English students of French have difficulty in learning genders. Previous research has shown that the ending of a noun is usually a reliable guide to gender. French native speakers are usually accurate in determining the gender not only of rare but also of invented French nouns. A programme of vocabulary presentation was drawn up with the intention of underlining the regularities of the French language and was presented and tested with university students. The words selected were grouped so that those with similar endings and the same gender were presented together. A test of the students' capacity to distinguish between genders was organized after four weeks of practice, and the results examined taking into account the teaching method used. The implication for teachers of French as a second language is that the basic gender rules which account for a large proportion of French nouns should be thoroughly taught, and, later, attention can be drawn to exceptions. In the meantime, vocabulary can be taught with leniency and students permitted to make errors.

GERMAN

69-355 Pickering, F. P. University German and the syllabus of studies. *Forum for Modern Language Studies* (University of St Andrews), 5, 2 (1969), 118-25.

Linguistic ability and aptitude for literary studies have been assumed to go together. This is not always the case. Nevertheless the university does not in the first place teach languages. They must be associated with the study of *works* of some kind. The student's ability to develop his basic knowledge of a language is determined by the interest aroused in him by literary or other works, and it is difficult for a boy or girl who is good at languages to know what kinds of works will interest him. He must be trained to observe and imitate good German and in addition to read literature as literature, or economics as economics.

As an alternative to 'prose composition', 'text stripping' is suggested, involving translation and attached exercises, which present some intellectual challenge, and possibly require further reading. There is little likelihood that the kind of abstruse German which one frequently finds used in any current debate will become less involved in the near future and the university-trained specialist must be prepared to make the extra effort, which German writers expect, to understand what a writer has to say on a problem which exercises him particularly.

ITALIAN

69-356 Bressan, D. For the introduction of the standard northern phonemic system in the teaching of Italian as a foreign language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 7, 1 (1969), 1-10.

It may make the learning of Italian easier if, instead of using Tuscan as the pronunciation norm, the northern phonemic system is used. The northern phonological system is less complex and there are fewer irregularities. Moreover a large number of Italians use this pronunciation and it covers an area which is well provided with cultural

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attractions and institutes of higher education. In any case the Tuscan pronunciation as presented in the textbooks tends to be an artificial creation.

RUSSIAN *See also abstract 69-308*

69-357 Berman, I. M., V. A. Bukhbinder and M. L. Bezdenezhnykh формирование потенциального словарного запаса при обучении русскому языку как иностранному [The formation of potential word-stock in teaching Russian as a foreign language.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1968), 57-60.

In distinguishing between actual and potential word-stock, the latter is deemed to include words not in the student's active or passive repertoire, but understandable on being read. Such words are basically of four kinds: complex and derivative words, with familiar components, whose meanings are inferable by analysis; polysemantic words, whose semantic structures in the base and target languages coincide partially or fully; international words; and words understandable in a context on the basis of a well-founded guess.

The first category only is discussed (since the others will form the material of subsequent articles), from the point of view of the English learner.

Working from a basic minimum of 2,200 to 2,500 words, a student may expand his potential word-stock almost tenfold. In building a word-formation minimum the following criteria will help to select models: inferability—where the semantic relations between the elements of model words are sufficiently clear to serve as a basis for the understanding of unknown words—and frequency, including common derivative words in everyday written style.

To develop skill at guessing the meaning of new words, exercises should be constructed where word-building structures—including the relationship of elements and the basic meaning of a word—are clear. [Such exercises featuring these points should form a progression, treating (1) instances where a direct equivalent exists in the native

language, (2) instances where no equivalent exists, (3) instances where the sense has to be conveyed by a reinterpretation of the basic meaning of the word. Finally, exercises should be set comprising the combination of derivative and complex words with other words, in preparation for an understanding of their meaning in a wider context.

69–358 Stupples, Peter. Reading Russian at school. *Journal of Russian Studies* (Bradford), 18 (1969), 40–47.

Most school pupils receive inadequate preparation for the amount and difficulty of the reading expected in a sixth-form course. During the first two years of a five-year course to 'O' level, the pupil's vocabulary may be expected to rise to between 800 and 1,000 items. For the following three years, the development stage, four aims may be set: (1) to increase the pupil's reading vocabulary to 5,000 words, a point at which, in West's estimation, almost any non-technical literature can be read with ease, (2) to enable him to read flexibly, i.e. to develop a slow study speed of up to 340 words per minute and an 'average' reading speed of between 340 and 500 words per minute, (3) to enable him to read a variety of material, and (4) through his reading to familiarize the pupil with the background information necessary for a real understanding of the Russian way of life.

If these aims are to be realized, a completely new approach is required to the presentation of reading material, its supply to schools and its teaching in the classroom. Material for this development stage needs to be based on oral proficiency, to be carefully structured, to be flexible and cater for different speeds and levels of reading, to be interesting, to include as much background information as possible and to be presented on a sound methodological basis.

SPANISH

69–359 **Bente, Thomas O.** Observations on ‘igual’ and the ‘igual que’, ‘igual a’ construction. *Hispania* (Appleton, Wisconsin), 52, 1 (1969), 77–9.

The word *igual* has a variety of meanings; *equal*, *even-tempered*, *unchanging*, *indifferent*, and many idiomatic phrases are required for its translation in different contexts. Although many basic texts make the distinction between *mismo* to express absolute identity and *igual* to express close similarity, they tend to offer only *igual que* as a combination for expressing comparison when *igual a* is quite common in Spanish. Sentences containing these alternatives were submitted to a group of native speakers and their choice of expression was in the majority of cases not unanimous. Where *igual* was followed by the definite article, *a* was generally preferred. This was also the case with the feminine indefinite article. *Igual que* was generally acceptable before a comparison of verbal action, even though the verb was understood rather than expressed. The *a* form never precedes *en*. Because of the predominance of the *a* form, it should at least be remarked upon, if not practised in response drills.