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Last Issue

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English–Teaching

abstracts

A quarterly review of articles on
linguistic studies and the teaching
of English as a second language

From January, 1968, the abstracts
will be enlarged and published as
Language — Teaching Abstracts

CONTENTS

CORRIGENDUM

Abstract 1234. Paragraph 4 should read : " Two-pulse rhythm does not appear in current surveys of English usage because these are based mainly on conversation."

OFFPRINTS : We regret that the English-Teaching Information Centre cannot undertake to obtain offprints, or to make photocopies of articles mentioned in these Abstracts. Neither can we distribute free copies of the relevant periodicals. Readers who require offprints are advised to write to the author, care of the periodical concerned, or to the Editor of that periodical. Addresses of periodicals can be obtained in any good reference library. Complete issues of periodicals should be ordered through a local bookseller in the usual way. In countries where there is a British Council library, the Librarian will be available to advise readers in these matters.

History of Linguistics

1276 RENSCH, K. H. *Organismus—System—Struktur in der Sprachwissenschaft.* Phonetica (Basle), 16, 2, 1967, 70-83.

Author's summary. The linguists of the nineteenth century considered language as a living organism. The only method of research that they and even the adversaries of this conception admitted as scientific, was the historical-genealogical one. Only later on when, under the influence of von der Gabelentz and Saussure, language was conceived as a system, the value of the synchronic-descriptive method was acknowledged and became the base of structural linguistics. The author describes the introduction of the terms "organism, system, structure" into linguistics and the effect they had upon the history of linguistics in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Linguistic Description and Analysis

1277 HALLIDAY, M. A. K. *Some notes on "deep" grammar.* Journal of Linguistics (London), 2, 1, 1966, 57-67.

Representations involving the concepts of "class" and "sequence" may be said to be representations of surface structure. It has always been recognised that the concepts of class and sequence alone are inadequate for the representation of syntagmatic relations, although some form of linear notation has usually been involved. The ordering ascribed to structure may be thought of in dependency terms, or in constituency terms as an underlying sequence which does not necessarily correspond to syntagmatic sequence, or as a mere co-occurrence or absence of ordering. The components are functions, not sets of items. Two distinct types of representation must be recognised as relevant to the understanding of syntagmatic patterns. The structural representation specifies the environment both for sets of paradigmatic relations and for further networks of syntagmatic relations. The paradigmatic contrasts associated with a given, defined environment may be thought of as accounted for either in a single representation of "deep" grammar, in which are incorporated both syntagmatic and paradigmatic function, or in a separate form of statement, distinct from, but related via the specification of the environment to, the statement of syntagmatic relations. If paradigmatic relations are represented separately, this implies that the full grammatical description of a linguistic item should contain both a structural and a systemic component. Partial ordering is introduced if the grammar specifies not only relevant systems but also their interrelations with one another. A system network can be constructed in which each system, other than those simultaneous at a point of origin specified syntagmatically, is hierarchically ordered with respect to at least one other system. Presenting the systemic description of a linguistic item as the underlying grammatical representation of that item would seem to imply that its paradigmatic relation to other items of the language was in some way its more fundamental property. If the structural representation is not required to account for paradigmatic relations, the question of how "deep" it needs to be is determinable by reference to other considerations: it should give an adequate account of syntagmatic relations, and permit the explicit realisation of the systemic description in terms, ultimately, of a sequence of classes. [Examples.] Another relevant factor is the desire to incorporate into the grammar phonological realisations of grammatical features. If a representation in terms other than of constituent structure is adopted for the statement of paradigmatic relations, and is then made to

determine the constituent structure, then provided the structural description adequately handles the syntagmatic relations there is no need for everything to be accounted for at a constituent stage of representation. The crucial factor in the designation of any feature as present in the grammar would be its assignment to a place in the systemic network. To define the point of origin of a system network, it is also necessary to specify, in terms of the notion of rank, the syntagmatic environment. Rank defines an inner series of strata, or sub-strata, within the outer grammatical stratum, with each rank characterised by a different network of systems. Rank is neutral between system and structure. A pre-grammatical statement in which order is divorced from sequence could be thought of as a representation of the "deep" grammar. [Bibliography.]

1278 ZIERER, Ernesto. *On the depth hypothesis.* Lenguaje y Ciencias (Trujillo), 23, 1967, 1-10.

Yngve has proposed a model for language structure that takes into account psycholinguistic limitations in language use.

A model based on re-write rules is insufficient. It does not consider the complex system of interweaving relations between the levels involved in linguistic formulation since it is based on a mere substitution procedure within the formal level.

The functional patterns leading to linguistic utterance are greatly dependent on the gross organisation of the concept and the semantic directions present in the act preceding linguistic formulation. [The author discusses the model extensively.]

Yngve's depth hypothesis, however, provides a criterion by which we can describe the structure of a language and compare the structures of different languages. This allows for inquiry into psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects involved in the syntactic behaviour of languages and asserts Yngve's hypothesis as an important contribution to the scientific study of language.

Phonetics and Phonology

1279 MALECOT, A. *The effectiveness of intra-oral air-pressure-pulse parameters in distinguishing between stop cognates.* Phonetica (Basle), 14, 2, 1966, 64-81.

The author describes an investigation of the various air-pressure-pulse parameters involved in feedback, as far as pretonic intervocalic single American stops in nonsense syllables are concerned. He first gives details of an experiment to measure several parameters of the air-pressure-pulses, and then of an experiment to determine the subjects' sensitivity to externally generated air-pressure-pulses introduced into their mouths devoid of speech context. [Photographs, diagrams and tables are given.] Results showed that duration, and (still more) peak pressure and pressure impulse were all distinctive in characterizing the phonetic classes known as voiced-voiceless or lenis-fortis, and that the subjects were sensitive to differences in peak pressures and pressure impulses as small as those observed in real speech.

The author discusses the results and suggests future lines of investigation. [Short bibliography.]

Acoustic Phonetics

1280 REDDY, D. R. *Phoneme grouping for speech recognition.* Journal of the Acoustical Society of America (Lancaster, Pennsylvania), 41, 5, 1967, 1295-1300.

Author's summary. A program for associating a given segment of speech with a phoneme group, such as a vowel-like segment, fricative-like segment, etc. is described. Some disadvantages of the presently accepted grouping of phonemes into stops, fricatives, vowels, etc. are discussed. Grouping of phonemes used by Sanskrit grammarians seems to be more appropriate for computer speech recognition. A grouping of phonemes into several nonmutually-exclusive sets that combine the concepts of the presently acceptable grouping and those of the Sanskrit grammarians is proposed. This grouping is more suitable in that it permits algorithmic definitions of vowel-like sounds, etc., in terms of easily obtainable acoustic parameters—namely, intensity and zero crossings. Some results obtained using the suggested algorithm are presented.

Grammar

1281 JOHNSON, Falk S. *Grammars: a working classification.* Elementary English (Milwaukee), 44, 4, 1967, 349-52.

This classification of grammar recognises three kinds:—intuitive, analytical and pedagogic. Before a child goes to school he has an intuitive knowledge of the grammar of his language. It is a set of reflexes enabling him to communicate with his associates and functions without the individual's awareness of technical nomenclature.

Analytical grammar, which includes traditional, structural and transformational, is the discovery and description of the nature of the language itself. It is not a "natural" grammar, but a constructed one.

Pedagogic grammar cushions the impact of analytic upon intuitive grammar. It is designed for maximum teachability with a nomenclature simplified for easy learning. It seeks to utilise every intuition and gadget that will aid the student in learning analytical grammar and in overcoming ingrained reflexes of wrong speech.

Translation and Interpreting

1282 GRAVIER, Maurice. *Peut-on former des traducteurs techniques?* Babel (Avignon), 13, 2, 1967, 73-6.

Ideally a technical translator should be a specialist in the required field, either completely bilingual or having had his secondary education in one country and read for his degree or diploma in another country. The training of a technical translator poses severe problems but with patience and goodwill, the collaboration of universities, international organisations, and public and private industry, a reasonable solution could be found. Arts students entering the technical field can be taught to use their initiative, read widely in their new field, and time and experience will do the rest. Employers need to be educated to understand that translators are not robots.

Machine Translation

1283 SZANSER, A. J. *Machine translation. Research at the National Physical Laboratory, Teddington.* Incorporated Linguist (London). 5, 4, 1966, 102-9.

The aim of the research is to provide *usable* translations in a limited technical field for experts in that field.

The first stage is to obtain the equivalents in the target language of the source-language word units and attach to them all necessary grammatical information in a coded form. This stage may be divided into the text preparation processes and the dictionary look-up.

The two basic syntactic operations consist each in the integrating of one of the two most common word complexes, viz. the nominal group and the predicative group. These two procedures complete what has so far been implemented in the set of programmes ready to operate in conjunction with the magnetic-tape dictionary.

Once the nominal and predicative blocks have been determined, main syntactic procedures, operating on the whole sentence, are started. Subject-predicate pairs are chosen and division points between clauses sought. The next procedure is the co-ordinate group blocking programme, which must be carried out before the third main syntactic programme, that of verb government. This programme finds out the relationship between verbs and their noun complements. This helps to resolve grammatical ambiguities left over from previous procedures, prevents the irregular insertion of English prepositions, and helps to analyse the complete sentence in order to provide the basis for possible re-arrangement.

The choice of syntactic problems and the order in which they are tackled is approached pragmatically. The texts are translated, read, and commented on, and thus fresh problems are brought to light, e.g. the adverbial and the third-person-pronoun ambiguities. Complete resolution of ambiguity is not always possible.

Other syntactic procedures are in preparation [Examples].

Direct rendering from the source into the target language is possible and practical only at an elementary stage. Beyond that, it is more practical to separate the analysis and the synthesis stages in the respective languages. The analysis concerns only those features which show either morphological or transformational differences between the two languages.

Semantics is used to resolve both syntactic and semantic ambiguities.

The quality of machine translation is unlikely ever to equal that of human translation. It has a restricted use.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Phonetics and Phonology

1284 GERMER, Rudolf. *Wesen und Wandlung der Received Pronunciation seit Jones.* [What is Received Pronunciation and how has it changed since Jones?] Neusprachliche Mitteilungen (Berlin). 20, 1, 1967, 10-17.

Every teacher of English takes an interest in the phenomenon known as Received Pronunciation. The position of dialect in England is somewhat more precarious than in Austria and Germany where it is accepted as an independent form of speech not as a corrupt form of standard speech. It is difficult to define exactly what is meant by Received Pronunciation. It appears to be the speech inculcated by the

public schools and has great prestige in England, though it has been condemned by some as a slovenly and inharmonious form of speech. The phenomenon is linked with statistics from 1961 showing that seventy-six per cent of those occupying leading government positions in the country came from public schools. So long as this tradition continues, RP would continue to be a status symbol. As class distinctions fall RP might lose its value as a status symbol but it would most probably hold its own in a competitive society and be copied in various approximations by speakers of other forms of English. The author does not see any possibility of another form of English gaining ground. Modern communications and mass entertainment have already levelled our speech and diminished the influence of dialects. Present-day RP cannot be regarded as one entity, as it admits of a variety of types and styles of pronunciation from different speakers and in different situations. [Examples of the effects of particular styles of pronunciation are given with some examples of the changes underway in RP speech.]

If German schools are to continue to teach British pronunciation they must use RP. In the upper classes, students can be helped to discover for themselves the varying types and styles of speech and pronunciation and this exercise will help to sharpen the students' hearing which will in turn assist their own pronunciation.

Intonation and Stress

1285 RIVARA, R. *Intonation et aspect emphatique en anglais.* Langues Modernes (Paris), 61, 1, 1967, 35-7.

The "emphatic form" is an accepted term in the teaching of English, but one should speak of emphatic "accent" rather than "form". There are two types of tonic accent in English. One is truly "tonic" on a horizontal syllable, the other is combined with a rise or fall of the voice. There may be several simple tonic accents in a group but usually only one rise or fall of the voice which affects the whole group and may be called "nuclear stress". The meaning of a sentence depends on the position and nature of this nucleus. The "emphatic" or "nuclear" accent affects the meaning of the whole tonal group of which it is part, and takes the form of a melodic fall. It belongs with the auxiliary and, in the case of an affirmative sentence, a nuclear accent on the auxiliary gives the effect of a more categoric affirmation.

Because of its morphological poverty, the English verb is often represented by an auxiliary plus the verb itself—infinitive or participle. In modern English, the auxiliary "do" does not express insistence any more than it expresses interrogation. Its function is to serve as an indication of emphasis, that is the melodic fall. Any auxiliary bearing an emphatic accent might be called an emphatic auxiliary, whether it has another function or not.

One can also speak of the emphatic aspect in imperatives.

The mechanism of the emphatic aspect in questions is more difficult to describe. The auxiliary can take the nuclear accent and become the central word in the sentence, but may be accompanied by a rising and not a falling intonation.

English Grammar

1286 CRYSTAL, D. *Specification and English tenses.* Journal of Linguistics (London), 2, 1, 1966, 1-34.

There has been no general empirical study of the relationship between adverbials and verbs in English, though there have been sporadic theoretical statements. Any

discussion of the "meanings" of English verb-forms must also envisage the temporal adverbial as falling within the category of non-omissible determiner. Many of the descriptive labels traditionally used are misleading. It is not a question of tense-form alone giving the relevant distinguishing indication of time, but of tense-form with or without adverbial specification, which gives unambiguous specification. Labels such as "future" or "habitual" should not be given to the verb form alone, but to the combination of the two forms, verb and adverbial. Confusing cross-relations between tenses and time can be handled more simply by incorporating the adverbial specification in the description of the verbal system from the beginning.

Three main types of position can be distinguished for temporal adverbials in relation to tenses, but this does not affect their basic classification. Many clauses in English are overtly connected with temporal adverbials. It is normal to have an adverbial specifier as an explicit indicator of time in most situations.

[The author makes a notional classification of adverbials, plots the formal restrictions on co-occurrence with certain tense-forms, and then correlates adverbial classes with each of six tense-forms in turn, determines the range of verbal temporal reference, and distinguishes the different "meanings" of tense-forms.]

Semantic classification with little or no reference to formal criteria leads to hyperdelicate debate about the limits of experience and related issues. The ability to account for the intuitively supported central difference between statements seen as facts regardless of time and those which specify a particular time ought to be built into one's description. Habituality is best regarded as the frequency with which an action is repeated, the emphasis being on specific instances; an adverbial specifier is needed. Combinations of tense-form plus adverbial specifier should be the basis of a temporal descriptive label, not just the former. Such combinations make one think more precisely about the distinctions within the usage of a tense.

The replacement of intuitive and sporadic incorporation of specification by a more systematic approach should result in greater realism and better grading in teaching the English verb. The frequency of obligatory co-occurrence suggests that the verb-adverbial relationship should be introduced early in a course. The great complexity of the present simple is an argument against introducing it first. An appreciation of the function of adverbial specification can help to foster greater awareness of sequences of tenseness. It is fairly normal to introduce a temporal adverbial in speech when switching to a new time-relationship. [Examples of the use of adverbial specification in composing graded exercises for foreigners.]

Attention can be more systematically focused on significant differences between texts. There is also a use for the approach in translation.

1287 LONG, Ralph B. *Imperative and subjunctive in contemporary English.* American Speech (New York), 41, 3, 1966, 199-210.

Anyone interested in the grammatical structure of modern English can profitably examine what is currently being said about "mode". The best representatives of structural analysis of modern English have little to say. [Quotations are given from Fries, Hill, Joos and others.] Transformational treatments of what is traditionally called "mode" lack the quality of transformational expositions of general linguistic theory. Structuralists have been reluctant to recognise imperative and subjunctive modes in modern English, because there are no satisfactory distinct imperative and subjunctive forms. Neither structuralists nor transformationalists have described the uses to which particular verb forms are put. When an attempt is made, such terms as imperative and subjunctive become useful. It is possible to introduce new terms in place of the old ones, but the old ones are well established, not only in grammars of modern English but also in grammars of other languages.

[The author gives his own detailed analysis of the use of imperative and subjunctive. The account of the subjunctive is a summary of the author's argument in "The Sentence and Its Parts", Chicago, 1961.] He sees no distinct imperative "mode" in modern English, but uses the term for one of the main-clause patterns and the corresponding subordinate-clause pattern. The present subjunctives normally mark predications as objects of desire or urging, whereas past forms indicate unreality and improbability. The subjunctive is far from dead in contemporary English if syntax, rather than the internal forms of the verbs involved determines it. Not even the "skeleton" of a satisfactory grammar is present when what traditionalists continue to call the subjunctive is largely ignored.

1288 SALDANHA V. HORTA. Maria Leonor and Lisette Beatriz Graziani. *Some problems of the "countables" and "uncountables" in English usage.* Estudos Lingüísticos (São Paulo), 1, 2, 1966, 51-6.

English has number inflection for its nouns. The category of number is a two-term system in English. The signals it uses to distinguish its terms are both morphological and syntactical. There are exceptional words which make no morphological distinction and others which look plural but are put with a singuar verb. A syntactic distinction also occurs and this is sometimes the only indication of singularity or plurality of a particular noun. [Examples.] There are classes and sub-classes of nouns that pattern differently as regards number :—
1. Singular nouns without a plural form.
2. Plural nouns without a singular form.
3. Collective nouns.
Lexemes with only one form, for instance *bread*, may be said to be the uncountables of the English language.

English has words which belong to both "countables" and "uncountables" and in some cases a countable may be made an uncountable and vice-versa.

1289 SUZUKI. Tadao. *Notes on the viewpoints of grammar.* English Teachers' Magazine (Tokyo). 16, 3, 1967, 30-31.

The "conventional" assumption of the existence of absolute standards of grammatical accuracy is contrasted with the scientific point of view which affirms that usage is the basis of all *correctness* that there can be in a language, although *correctness* alone is not the ultimate ideal of a language. The scientific point of view does not conflict with the artistic view of *good* English. The scientific attitude faces a complex range of divergent practices. An accurate survey and description of the language practices of the various social or class dialects is needed to show what social connotations are likely to attach to particular usages. The obligation of the schools is to teach the "standard" language of the country—the set of language habits in which the most important affairs are carried on, the dialect of the socially acceptable in most of the communities.

1290 THORNE. J. P. *English imperative sentences.* Journal of Linguistics (London). 2, 1, 1966, 69-78.

Katz and Postal postulate the occurrence of an imperative morpheme in the underlying phrase-markers of imperative sentences. The idea that the second person pronoun enters into the structure of all imperative sentences in English has been

accepted by most grammarians since Bullokar. The notion "vocative" is essential to a correct understanding of the structure of imperative sentences. A distinction must be made between vocative elements which can be appended to complete sentences, and those which are associated with a major element in the sentence. In phrases like *you John* or *you boys* there are good reasons for taking *John* and *boys* as the head of the phrase. Vocative forms are obligatory in the subject of all imperative sentences, but are optional in other types of sentences. Both the full and the reduced forms of the vocative of the noun phrase can occur peripherally in a sentence, but not the vocative form of the definite or indefinite pronoun. Vocative forms occurring as a major element in the sentence are always full except that in imperatives the subject can be either the full or the reduced form. [The author gives a binary analysis of English personal pronouns.]

Only animate nouns have a vocative form. In phrases like *you boy, you boys,* etc. *you* is the vocative form of the definite article. Postal suggests that personal pronouns are subtypes of the definite article occurring before the proform *one*.

Scientific English

1291 EWER, J. R. and G. Latorre. *Preparing an English course for students of science.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 221-9.

English is now the main international language of science. English-speaking experts are increasingly visiting the developing countries and more scholarships are available to English-speaking countries. This creates a need for instruction in the kind of English required by students of science.

At the University of Chile, a frequency analysis was made of a comprehensive sample, amounting to over three million words, of the English used by scientific writers.

Frequency and range were the main criteria for the inclusion of items in teaching materials, though other considerations were also taken into account, e.g. the usefulness of words as describers and definers or as substitutes to avoid over-repetition. Some items were accepted because, though not frequent, they were essential.

The analysis revealed an unexpectedly great variety of style, the relatively high frequency of the past simple tense, a fairly high proportion of passives, the large number of structural words used, and the extent to which the basic language of science differed from that taught in the secondary school.

The material chosen was incorporated into twelve units, each consisting of a reading passage, a word-study section, a structure-study section, a discussion and criticism section, and teachers' notes.

It seems desirable to defer this English course to the second year. Pre-university and teacher training courses should be less "literary" in content. More use should be made of readings from unmodified originals in all registers. Insufficient provision is made for pupils in the senior years of the school to speak freely in English. The considerable differences which exist between one register of English and another show that even more specialised types of course are necessary.

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Research

1292 KAVETSKY, Joseph. *Tentative guidelines for research in language learning by Puerto Ricans in the Puerto Rican situation.* Inter-Pret (Rio Pedras), 2, 2, 1967, 3-5.

Some of the lines for possible research at the English Learning Resources Institute, Puerto Rico during the coming year are :—

1. A "mental block" toward the learning of English present in Puerto Rico.
2. Methods of team teaching, enabling teachers to specialise in the field they know best, grammar, pronunciation, etc.
3. Research into the roles of the Puerto Rican teacher and the native English-speaking teacher for the improvement of English-teaching in Spanish-speaking areas.
4. The exploration of *speaking readiness* as opposed to insistence on imitation of the teacher which can produce resistance to learning the foreign language.
5. The transfer of the language of stereotyped situations in most learning material to true communication between the teacher and the world of these pupils.
6. The method by which the learner wishes to learn must be explored.
7. The giving of grades (concerning oneself with the individual's own progress rather than comparing him with the rest of the group).

1293 ORNSTEIN, Jacob and Robert Lado. *Research in Foreign Language Teaching Methodology.* IRAL (Heidelberg), 5, 1, 1967, 11-25.

The article reviews a selection of contemporary research particularly in the United States on foreign language teaching methodology. It indicates several noteworthy sources for research and documentation on current research. Several projects are outlined. The authors distinguish between two types of study—those which make a global comparison of two methods of teaching and those which concentrate on a clearly defined pedagogical question. These two types also apply to studies carried out to determine the proper role of language laboratories in teaching. The results of the comparative global studies are disappointing because of the large number of imponderables encountered. Strictly delineated research is more likely to produce definite results. Some methodological experiments in Russia, France and Germany are quoted to underline the real value of close co-operation between research workers on both sides of the Atlantic. In conclusion, the authors mention more than a dozen promising themes of research, waiting for concerted, inter-disciplinary attack, aided by the rich technological resources now available.

Theories and Principles of Language Study and Teaching

1294 BICKLEY, V. C. *Theories of language and new approaches to language teaching in Britain.* ELEC Bulletin (Kanda), 21, 1967, 6-13.

The main emphasis in twentieth century linguistic studies has been on speech. Dr. M. A. K. Halliday defined language as "conventionally patterned noise contextualised". Language therefore has a formal and a functional aspect. J. C. Catford treats language as a type of patterned human behaviour. There is social variation of language and the study of language as social behaviour is central to the work of British scholars. [Professor Randolph Quirk's present survey of English usage illustrates the point.] In Britain advances are also taking place in socio- or institutional linguistics, focussing on the relations between languages and the people

who use them. Investigations are proceeding into the effect of national language policies on English.

A variety of "registers" of language has been classified showing how different types of language are selected for specific purposes or according to the audience being spoken to. The choice of register is wide in the mother tongue; it is even wider for someone using English as a second language. This has shaken earlier belief in advocating standard English grammar and lexis spoken with Received Pronunciation, and lead to the question of choice among varieties of English for language teaching purposes. Better descriptions of the different systems of English are now appearing and these are being used to improve teaching materials.

Caution has been shown towards selection and grading procedures based on "contrastive" studies, which imply the teacher's familiarity with the systems of his native language and are restricted to situations in which only the systems of one variety of each language can be compared.

The most useful material will make situational teaching possible—in early stages this will be the classroom, later extended by aural and visual techniques. The modern approach to the teaching of English is illustrated in an appended bibliography of text-books and courses.

1295   COR, Laurence W. *Humanizing language study.* French Review (Baltimore), 40, 6, 1967, 817-22.

The wealth of new teaching materials and techniques may obscure students' needs. Speed can bring depersonalisation. Reliance on aural memory is no longer characteristic of our civilisation. Motivation is essential to language study as well as an understanding of the need for drills, mimicry and memorisation. The teacher must not only be an instructor but there must be true communication between student and teacher. Literature should play some role in language study, as the study of a language should educate in the larger sense, and not be regarded only as a practical means of communication.

1296   LEAROYD, F. G. *The teaching of English as a second national language* (2). Ghana Teachers' Journal (Accra), 53, 1, 1967, 17-28.

Attempts to improve the standard of English in schools and colleges involve:—
1. Teachers and teaching methods.
2. Textbooks, courses and audio-visual aids.
In Africa as elsewhere theoretical knowledge about languages has been better taught than practical skill in using them. Efforts to change this will have to be concentrated on the teacher training colleges particularly to improve the standard of spoken English.

In acquiring a command of English as a medium of instruction for other subjects, the university departments of linguistics could help by making available a detailed survey of the characteristics of English as contrasted with those of at least the more widely used African languages.

The teacher is the focal point of any system of teaching and must be able to look critically at the textbooks he uses and be ready to correct blunders and supplement the books when they fail. Few textbook writers from a cultural background other than African, will know what will be immediately comprehensible to an African child.

Adequate drills and test exercises suitable for his own class will have to be produced by the teacher as space would not permit sufficient to be included in a text-book. Such exercises might be collected and reproduced by government assistance when they had been tested over a few years.

Audio-visual aids need to be cheap, simple and easily replaceable. Mechanical aids need to be "tropicalized" models, and trained technicians must be available to maintain them. Spare parts and electricity must be readily available.

1297 VALETTE, Rebecca M. *Evaluating the objectives in foreign language teaching.* IRAL (Heidelberg). 4, 2, 1966, 131-9.

Modern foreign language teaching lays stress on comprehension and the power to speak the foreign language as well as to write it. This change of aim has brought about a change in tests and examinations aiming at objective evaluation. It is not, however, sufficient to test a student's knowledge of vocabulary, morphology and syntax; it is also necessary to test his skill in understanding, speaking, reading and writing the foreign language. The author examines various methods of evaluation specific to each of these fields and finally indicates some lines of research and future development.

Tests and Examinations

1298 KJELLMER, Göran. *Measuring language proficiency is easy/difficult/impossible.* Moderna Språk (Sweden), 61, 1, 1967, 10-19.

We want to teach and measure both factual knowledge and language proficiency. Tests of factual knowledge are relatively easy to devise but in trying to measure proficiency we have to do with imponderables.

Ideally a language test should be objective, comprehensive and flexible, and easy to handle. Most tests fall short of one of these. The author advocates the multiple-choice test as fulfilling these conditions, though he recognises that it cannot evaluate pronunciation nor fluency of delivery.

Results of multiple-choice tests in Gothenburg University were compared with the results of a traditional translation, vocabulary and essay test and very little variation in results was noticed.

The number of questions set should be fairly large to allow for the effects of guessing. At university level, 150 questions per test seems adequate.

1299 PERREN, George. *Testing ability in English as a second language:* 2. *Techniques.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 197-202.

Tests of reading comprehension measure ability to understand both language and content. Variations in performance may be caused by different grammatical and reading habits in various mother tongues. Several short passages, each with its own questions test more reliably and discriminate better than one long passage. Comprehension can be tested by completion techniques.

There is not necessarily a high correlation between speed of reading and comprehension. Special tests can test reading speed. [Example.] Multiple-choice questions can be used to test recognition of grammatical forms and vocabulary [Examples.]

Tests requiring free responses may be no more valid than multiple choice tests, which are more economical and can sample skills more widely in a limited time.

Visual material can be used as a basis for questions, but reliable scoring may be difficult. As a test, dictation is time-consuming and non-specific. Précis is potentially a valid test of general proficiency at a high level but objective scoring is difficult. Tests of translation presuppose advanced proficiency in two languages.

1300 ROEMING, Robert F. *The predictability of language-learning results.* Contact (Salzburg), 9, 1966, 2-10.

Facility of transfer of meaning should be the aim in learning and teaching language. This divides instruction into two facets:— 1. its relevance to the frame of reference of the student, 2. abstract rather than environmental orientation of the content of instruction, as most students are taught in groups, not as individuals.

Emphasis on meaning implies concentration on the learner, rather than on the teacher and his method. This emphasis is lacking in attempts to measure aptitude for foreign language learning. The Modern Language Aptitude Test is based upon linguistics which are descriptive of language but not language itself. There is also an implication in such tests, not entirely justified, that meaning, in certain areas of human experience is universally established. The author contends that aptitude to learn a second language cannot be defined and hence cannot be measured even in general categories. Yet it is evident that, except in extreme cases of physical or mental handicap, all human beings can receive and express some meaning through the spoken language and there are factors which determine the rate at which learning can progress. Transfer of meaning is best developed by motivation, and the potential skills of acquisition which aptitude tests attempt to evaluate, can only develop where there is motivation for language learning.

Teaching Methods

1301 GLADSTONE, J. R. *An experiential approach to the teaching of English as a second language.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 229-34.

The English spoken in Canada is only part of Canadian culture. The non-English-speaking child has to be induced to identify himself with the new value system. At a school in Toronto the students are placed in situations which reflect the culture and their interests and are provided with the language with which to talk. Small communication groups develop communication systems that are functional in the new culture. All the subject-matter emanates from some community excursion. Staff and children eat together at round tables. The sequence is commitment, recognition of need, and then language learning. [Examples of this.] Six interest areas have been established. Teaching aids include polaroid cameras, a small tape-recorder, and a movie camera. The pictures are used to stimulate conversation and writing, and to illustrate readers. When the pupils are ready, they are given high-interest, low-vocabulary paperbacks. An intensified and standardised reading programme follows. Reading and writing are the least important aspects of the programme. Staff consultations are held twice weekly. Children are interviewed at intervals and tape-recorded. An objective audio-file is built up on every pupil.

Activity Methods

1302 PARRY, John. *Making it real*: 3. *Lost and found.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 240-3.

We are so tied to the written forms of English that conversation is seldom taught. Written English itself becomes insensitive and inelegant without a basis in conversation. Spoken English takes place within a social situation. Acting a situation in the classroom is closer to reality than structure drills or reading aloud. It

involves organisation. Every child must be able to join in. [Examples of situation plays.] Situational exercises of this kind are not only for young children, and they can be adapted to drill many structures. To be realistic, they must use all the devices of conversational English. From the beginning short answers must be taught as well as long ones. The children must be given English which they can *use* in their daily lives in the classroom and outside.

1303 SAMARAJIWA, Carlton. *Teaching English as a second language through a children's theatre group.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 244-6.

The experiment is concerned with enabling pupils to understand the emotional and connotational meanings of structures learnt in the classroom.

The playlet is circulated among the schools in the neighbourhood in story form. It is performed first as dumb show and then with dialogue. The audience is induced to participate in the dialogue. [The author explains in some detail how the "Dog in the Manger" was presented to a second-year English class. A chorus of teacher-trainees assisted the pupils.] Careful preparation is necessary, and the stories must be graded to suit the age and level of the class.

Class Methods

1304 BROUGHTON, Geoffrey. *For the young teacher—2. The teacher and his textbook.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 262-4.

Only the teacher of a particular class can know its needs. The textbook writer has no feedback from the learners. He is the expert on the English language and on course design. Usually he divides the course book into units, which have to be converted by the teacher into lessons. Often the teacher must supply extra exercise and drill material and visual aids. The textbook can rarely be as exciting and interesting as the real-life teaching situation. Teachers' handbooks should be studied. The textbook author's techniques can be built into situations and the design of exercises.

1305 FERNANDO, Chitra. *The composition of exercises.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 246-50.

The teacher may have to compose his own exercises if those in the class text are insufficient or do not meet specific needs.

Exercises are not tests, and unless they are revision exercises they are either "preventive" or remedial. They should contain plenty of repetition.

Substitution tables help with the mastery of form and order but do not help the learner to select a form or pattern to fit a relevant context. The exercise must present a range of contexts from which the learner selects those that demand certain forms. [Examples for *by* and *with*, *a lot of*, and *many*, and the present perfect.] The exercise-maker must keep the principle of contextualization in mind [Examples]. He must also remember to use vocabulary and content with which the student is familiar. An exercise is more effective if the items in it are presented as a related sequence. There must be only one possible answer for each item. An exercise should stimulate the student in the same way as a puzzle does.

1306 HORNBY, A. S. *The incidental presentation of teaching items* (2). English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 260-2.

Some items cannot easily be fitted into drills, but are more suitable for incidental presentation to the pupils. [The author gives examples of the use of *would like*, *wish*, and *wish for* to illustrate this point.]

1307 SCHMIDT-MACKEY, Ilonka. *Repetition within context*. English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 235-40.

Repetition and contextualization are often contradictory. Dialogues rarely succeed in driving the point home. One solution to the problem of combining context with repetition is the "stretch" dialogue. This is an expansion of the core dialogue at a point where it is possible to get maximum repetition of the teaching point. Both the form and the context of this point may be varied. [The author describes the teaching procedure in detail.] Learners can construct their own dialogues at home; they can then be dramatised by the best learners.
    This technique is most appropriate at the intermediate level.

1308 WEINTRAUB, Efraim. *Teaching the slow-learning pupil in the vocational school*. English Teaching Guidance (Tel Aviv), 9, 1967, 22-25.

Descriptions of individual pupils in a so-called slow-learners' class show a variety of problems behind the pupils' lack of achievement. English has been particularly difficult to teach to such a group. Conventional methods proved useless. The Direct Method was found inadequate and it was difficult to stimulate the pupils to read. The more graphic the approach the more easily could the pupil grasp an explanation and audio-visual methods were therefore the most effective. Interests were different from those of the more academic pupils and many stories and legends held no interest for the slow-learners.
    As agro-mechanics was the vocational subject studied, it was decided to introduce the subject in English in a very simplified form with the present simple tense and a basic vocabulary of 150-200 words. The final aim of such a course is that the pupil will be able to utilise technical catalogues and instructions in English.

Conversation

1309 HARRINGTON, Clifford V. *Preparing controlled conversations*. ELEC Bulletin (Kanda), 20, 1967, 53-7.

Attempts at free conversation in the classroom often end in failure. The English Language Education Council has published in Tokyo a series of books on "Controlled Conversation" to overcome this difficulty. Students listen to a few paragraphs of spoken English and, after a brief explanation of difficult words and phrases, they hear the material again. Under the teacher's guidance the students ask each other questions and give answers on what they heard, or they can answer the teacher's questions. The teacher's control of the situation comes from the fact that all the students are working with the subject and the basic patterns he prescribes. The teacher should select topics which follow closely the interests of his students, drawing his material from a wide range of sources. [Detailed examples are given for the preparation of such a lesson.]

Intonation and Stress

1310 HALVERSON, John. *Stress, pitch and juncture*. English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 210-17.

The teaching of "sentence intonation" is full of pitfalls. Teachers are apt to drill one pattern for a sentence excessively, and tend to discover fanciful connotations for variant patterns.

The aim of the oral method is not the teaching of correct oral utterances, but the instilling of linguistic habits. It is the method that is oral, not necessarily the goal.

[Using material from Ceylon, the author re-examines the prosodic features of English in relation to the problems of teaching. He defines juncture, intonation and stress.] Whether junctures distinguish one utterance from another is not clear. There are at least four distinct pitches in English. No adequate notational system has come into general use. Pitch is phonemic. Many intonation contours are exchangeable in situations without misunderstanding. Expressive nuances of pitch are a luxury in the classroom. It is easy to invent differing nuances for the variants, but each variant, depending on the personality of the speaker, facial expressions, etc., can mean the same thing.

Juncture is of little significance for communication, and pitch is flexible, but violations of normal stress are distracting. A wrong stress phoneme does not necessarily imply misunderstanding, but if deviations are many there is delay.

Stress must be learnt word by word, but the two basic pitch patterns obey simple rules that depend on emphasis. In statements, commands, and questions with interrogatives, the rhetorically important words have a higher pitch, the rest of the words lower pitch. In yes-no questions without interrogatives, the first important word has a higher pitch, which is maintained to the end of the question.

Two misconceptions influence speakers of Ceylon English: the over-learned habit of concluding every sentence with a 231 contour, and ignorance of the fact that in native English many words and phrases are expletives.

The rhetorical principle in speech practice is readily grasped, means something, and can be carried over to other contexts. The student is obliged to decide what the sentence and the whole passage mean.

Remedial Teaching

1311 TYRRELL, Leslie. *Bridging the gap*. Notes and Papers (Tel Aviv), 6, 1966, 13-22.

There is a big gap between the English mastered in the elementary school and what is necessary for life or for university study. At the bottom of the secondary school most pupils have an insufficient grasp of basic structures, classes are not homogeneous, pupils have lost interest in English, opportunities to use English are lacking, and too little time is available for English lessons.

Basic structures need to be revised, but without going over the same books and exercises again. [The author recommends several books, and defends the use of a 'key'.] "Spot checks" should be made of self-corrected work.

Programmed learning is most successful in remedial work, but as yet there are very few programmes for English as a foreign language. Teachers should form groups to study programme-writing techniques.

In non-homogeneous classes, learners may work through a programme at their

own speed. Programmes help to set the teacher free to deal with advanced or backward pupils.

Group-work can be used to promote democratic attitudes as well as language-learning. Advanced and backward pupils should be spread among the groups. [Suggestions for group activities.]

Homework needs to be differentiated to suit different learners.

Objectives and methods should be discussed with the pupils and explained.

Reading material must be interesting to the learner. There should be a good collection of supplementary readers [Recommendations.]

An "English Club" helps to create opportunities for using English enjoyably. The programme should interest pupils at all levels. [Detailed suggestions.]

The introduction of English into other lessons should be considered.

1312 WARD, Molly. *The teaching of language to Islands' children in New Zealand schools.* Pacific Islands Education (Wellington), 46, 1967, 25-39.

The large numbers of Polynesian children in Wellington schools have forced careful consideration of remedial English language teaching. Apparent backwardness leads to low placing and segregation follows by circumstances rather than desire. Some additional Assistants have been appointed specially to help Polynesian and also Maori schoolchildren. A total lack of European cultural background prevents even apparently good readers from understanding and assimilating what they read. [A bibliography of useful background readers on New Zealand life and that of the rest of the world is given.]

Pronunciation practice and structure drills are also illustrated. Poetry (that is robust, repetitive verse) is a new experience for most of the children and they gain pleasure and satisfy their natural love of rhythm through it. [Illustrations of the type of poem used.] The poems provide a valuable means of introducing a tape-recorder as an accepted tool in the classroom.

Audio-Visual Aids

1313 RICHARDSON, G. *The visual element in audio-visual aids.* Modern Languages (London), 47, 2, 1966, 76-9.

There are conflicting views about the role and importance of the visual in the teaching of languages.

Pioneers of the direct method tended to exploit not the picture but the *realia* and used oral explanation in the target language to convey meaning. By 1950 (in Great Britain), pictures were much more commonly used in textbooks and readers to illustrate the meaning of concrete vocabulary and as a stimulus for free composition.

In assessing the importance of the visual element in the modern audio-visual course, Richardson questions the validity of Guberina's assertion that *all* meaning can be made clear by pictures. He sees inconsistencies in Kamenew's statements (preface to the teacher's book to TAVOR aids, French audio-visual course, first series), pointing out that though pictures can convey ideas, they cannot always convey the meaning of the accompanying text.

Once explanations of meaning in the pupil's mother tongue are admitted, the picture is no longer a direct illustration of the structure to be learned. What makes

modern audio-visual courses successful is that they are based on thoroughly prepared and graded linguistic material. Though the use of modern audio-visual equipment undoubtedly fascinates pupils, only a well-trained teacher can use these courses successfully.

Programmed Instruction

1314 LANDA, L. N. *Psychological diagnostics as a pre-requisite for improving the adaptivity of teaching programmes.* Programmed Learning News (London), 1, 1, 1967, 16-19.

In teaching complex skills where a direct connection between problems and solutions does not exist, it is necessary to know how a learner has produced the correct answer to a question and how he reasoned. Not all methods are equally efficient. It is necessary to lay down by what internal psychological processes the student should reach his solutions. This requires the advance building up of models which may be of algorithmic or non-algorithmic character. The main point in the programme's responses to answers and especially to errors is elimination of the psychological reason for error. This has, of course, already been considered in programming literature, but generally in connection with gaps in the learner's knowledge, which is important but insufficient. It is necessary to eliminate the shortcomings in the mechanisms of mental activity. A learner often fails to solve a problem not because he lacks the knowledge but because he does not know the methods of applying this knowledge. It is imperative that a teaching programme should be based on the diagnostics of psychological shortcomings. The algorithmisation of a psychological diagnostic process will make possible the solution of these individual problems. Teaching machines will be able to work in accordance with diagnostic programmes, taking into account not only gaps in a learner's knowledge, but also the faults in the mechanisms of his mental activity. This will make possible a considerable increase in the adaptivity and effectiveness of programmed learning.

1315 SPOLKSY, B. *A psycholinguistic critique of programmed foreign language instruction.* IRAL (Heidelberg), 4, 2, 1966, 119-27.

The best theoretical basis for programmed learning of foreign languages is the "behaviourist" theory of Skinner. It offers a simple, coherent and apparently convincing explanation of the facts of language. Nevertheless "operant behaviour" is not capable of explaining the most characteristic aspects of language manipulation as Chomsky has shown. With a teaching method based on operant behaviour, an imitation of speech behaviour can be created, but in order to understand what is meant by "knowing a language" one must also turn to transformational theory, the only one which is capable of taking into account the semantic, syntactic and creative aspects of language.

Grammar

1316 COORAY, Mahinda. *The English passive voice.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 203-10.

Teachers in Ceylon still teach the passive by means of conversion exercises. This method gives practice only in transposing words or word groups. It is based on the view that the passive is a mere transposition of the active, and that active and

passive sentences are interchangeable: a misconception resulting from a too conceptual or mentalistic approach. The notion that the passive gives greater prominence to the object is acceptable only in certain instances. The passive construction stands in its own right, independently of the active, and depending for its use on the context.

Among active voice sentences which do not lend themselves to conversion into the passive are those which have relative clauses as the object of the verb and those which have an infinitive plus an adjunct as object. Among passive sentences which do not lend themselves to conversion into the active are those in which the passive agent is not mentioned and those introduced by the generic pronoun *it*.

Context often decides the use of the passive, though some verbs are generally found in the passive. It conveys impersonality and is much used in newspaper reports, scientific writings, and descriptions of accepted practices. [All points are illustrated.]

1317 GIRARD, Denis. *Les exercises structuraux; doctrine et practique.* Langues Modernes (Paris), 61, 3, 1967, 312-25.

The term "theory" is preferred to "doctrine" of structural exercises. It is based upon:

1. The scientific notion of "structure".
2. The purely linguistic applications of this notion.
3. The psychological principles (need to reduce the difficulties to small units, the formation of habits and reflexes, immediate reinforcement, etc.)
4. Pedagogical principles (moving from the simple to the complex, avoiding saturation, quantity and variety of the exercises, avoiding fatigue, etc.)

The use of structural exercises demands of the teacher an understanding of their theoretical bases and a long and patient training. It would be useless to look to what is only pedagogical technique for the solution of all problems.

These exercises can make a very positive contribution to language classes at all levels, as experiments in language laboratories in the French universities have shown. They are only one of the elements of teaching but they are one of the most effective in the fixing of good linguistic habits. [Examples are given of different types of exercises, their place in the language class, and methods by which the teacher can build up his own exercises to suit his own classes.]

1318 GOMES DE MATOS, Francisco. *Free sentence derivation drill.* English Language Teacher (New York), 1, 1, 1967, 11-13.

The "creative aspect of language use" (Chomsky) is the most challenging task facing teachers. The Yazigi Institute of Languages in São Paulo has developed two types of drill for its own teaching purposes, *sentence derivation drill* and *free sentence derivation drill*. The first type involves derivation of two sentences from a single more complex one. The more logical method has proved to be the second where two sentences are combined into a larger one.

The development of the student's ability to select from among a number of structural possibilities seems realistic. Teachers cannot minimise the importance of the complex process of language habit formation in second language teaching but Chomsky's statement that ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and new patterns, should not be ignored. An example of free sentence derivation drill is given and the author hopes that his description will lead colleagues in other countries to try it.

1319 JACOBSON, Rudolfo. *The role of deep structures in language teaching.* Language Learning (Michigan), 16, 3 and 4, 1966, 153-60.

The learning of a number of apparently identical constructions in modern English can be simplified if the teaching is based upon a deep analysis of the grammatical principle involved. A number of transitive verb constructions may have identical surface structures but different deep structures. The learner cannot master the difficulties unless he is aware of the underlying differences. By limiting analysis to surface structures, one misses most of the underlying grammatical differences. Kernel sentences must be recognised and the actual teaching start from there. [The author gives various strings and transformations as examples. He claims to have tested his procedure with a group of foreign students at elementary level and to have obtained good results.] Fast and adequate learning can be achieved only if deep structures are properly recognised and pedagogical procedures are such that the learner can derive from them the rules which he must internalise. These rules will lead him from the kernel sentence to the acceptable occurrences of surface structure which he is expected to generate.

Idiom and Usage

1320 PARKINSON, Frank C. *English idiom: the second language.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 217-21.

Idioms give considerable difficulty once an elementary stage has been passed. The teacher must realise fully the essential nature of this "new language". The meaning of an idiom differs from the normal meaning of its individual words. Idiom is not a colourful substitute for a more formal phrase but the normal way of expressing a wide range of feeling and judgment. There should be a regular fifteen-minute session devoted to learning idioms and using them in made-up sentences. Exercises involving the insertion of a pre-learned idiom in a suitable context are also useful. A first introduction to idioms is reinforced by later reading. A numerical grading can be given to indicate the level of formality at which an idiom can be used. Once a student has come to grips with idioms he feels a secret pride in being able to use them.

Writing

1321 BACHRACH, Shlomo. *The early stages of writing.* Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa), 1, 1967, 12-14.

The teacher must first provide practice in straightforward copying. Sentences can also be copied, after oral work, from a substitution table, parts of which can be erased step by step. Blanks can be filled in sentences and then in paragraphs. Practice in organisation is obtained by sequencing sentences which are in the wrong order. Written practice in the agreement between subject and verb should be based on both sentences and paragraphs.

For more continuous writing, the teacher should present the content and ask comprehension questions orally. The class then suggests sentences, which the teacher writes on the board and the pupils copy. A more difficult exercise is to expand notes.

Composition

1322 JARVIS, Richard. *Elementary and intermediate English composition.* Journal of the Teachers of English in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa), 2, 1967, 11-20.

"Composition" at elementary and intermediate level cannot mean a formal connected piece of prose on a set subject. The aim at a junior level is to reinforce oral work and practice structures already acquired. Written work is not a good way of teaching new structures and vocabulary, but it can *fix* structure and vocabulary. The approach to free composition must be a carefully graded and lengthy process.

1. Simple transcription should be continued till it is error free. [Variations on straightforward copying are suggested.]
2. Action chains—a series of actions is performed and after question and answer work a written account of the actions is made.
3. Combination of a series of short sentences into more complex sentences.
4. Written answers to questions on a picture producing a description of the picture. If a picture is not available the method may be used with a story.
5. Reproducing stories with oral preparation progressively reduced.

The intention throughout is to minimise the possibility of error. Intensive oral preparation will continue to be necessary and writing should be done in class so that the teacher's help is available.

At the advanced stage a variety of subjects can be set and pupils can work in groups to prepare lists of sentences on the subject set which will be worked into a composition individually.

When work is returned the difficult structures should be drilled, individual help given with corrections, and passages with interesting details read out.

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

1323 SORENSEN, Knud. *Understanding English: difficulties confronting Danes.* Moderna Språk (Sweden), 60, 4, 1966, 388-93.

There is a tendency for the teacher of beginners to exaggerate the similarities between the two languages, and for the teacher of advanced students to overemphasize the dissimilarities.

Difficulties of understanding are concerned with sounds, grammar, and idiom, and vocabulary.

Certain phonemic distinctions in English [examples given] are not obvious to Danes.

There is a psychological resistance to / / and / /. Stress and weak forms give difficulty, especially in loan-words. Pitch intervals are greater in English.

The grammar offers no particular difficulties to Danes; but phrasal verbs and many idiomatic expressions offer difficulty.

In vocabulary, there is formal and semantic resemblance, but often not semantic identity, especially in "international" words. Some words can only be understood if the English cultural background is known.

Teaching English in Specific Regions

1324   KHARMA, Nayef. *The teaching of English in Kuwait.* English Language
Teaching (London), 21, 3, 1967, 253-60.

English has always been important to the inhabitants of Kuwait. [The author
gives an historical sketch of the development of English teaching.] Until recently
the books used over-emphasized the accumulation of vocabulary, introduced silent
reading too soon and disregarded conversational fluency, now proving to be a strong
stimulus to the mastery of the other language skills. In the absence of this stimulus
students lost interest and tended to become bookish. Secondary school leavers
had to waste time learning English abroad before taking their foreign university
courses. A new course, based on the aural-oral approach, with emphasis on structure
rather than vocabulary was recently adopted. Teacher-training courses in its use
were held. The major problem concerns the quality and training of the teachers.
Most of the teachers of English are non-Kuwaiti Arabs recruited from abroad. The
majority are untrained in foreign-language teaching. Their standard of oral fluency
is not high. There is an acute shortage of teachers of English. In-service training
courses have proved to be insufficient, and training abroad is essential. A special
section should be created at the teacher training Institute. English should be started
earlier. The language laboratory is an aid to the mastery of certain language skills,
and experiments in its use are being made. Intensive summer courses are necessary
at present. Various other measures and aids have been adopted.

1325   NASR, Raja T. *English teaching in the Middle East. A case of diversity:
a need for co-ordination.* English Language Teaching (London), 21, 3,
1967, 250-3.

[The author summarises the aims of the Centre for English Language Research and
Testing at the American University of Beirut.]

The standard of English in any one Middle Eastern country is determined by
four factors: the administrative set-up, the teachers' qualifications in English and
in teaching, the curriculum, and the extent to which foreign agencies contribute to
teacher training and the teaching of English. Unnecessary duplication of effort
should be avoided by co-operation. The Centre is working on a survey of needs,
developing an M.A. programme, and preparing teaching materials.

AUTHOR INDEX TO VOLUME 7

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