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Les théories linguistiques et leurs applications, s.l., Aidela,1967, 8°, 190 p. (Conseil de la coopération culturelle du Conseil de l'Europe). [Dépositaires en Suisse: Librairies H. Rainhardt, Kirchgasse 17, Zurich 1, et Payot, 40 rue du Marché, Genève].

Lors du premier Congrès international de linguistique appliquée, organisé en 1964 par la Faculté des lettres de l'Université de Nancy, furent créées l'Association internationale de l.a. (AILA) ainsi qu'une Association internationale d'éditeurs de l.a. (AIDELA) "dont l'un des objectifs est de publier et de diffuser, par les voies commerciales normales, tous les futurs ouvrages se rapportant au 'Projet Majeur Langues Vivantes' du Conseil de la Coopération culturelle" (7). Dans cette nouvelle collection ont paru un ouvrage sur *Le laboratoire de langues dans l'enseignement supérieur* dont A. Guex a rendu compte dans ce *Bulletin* (7, 1968, 50–52), puis *Les langues vivantes et le monde moderne* de M. Gorosch, B. Pottier et D.C. Riddy, qui ont été précédés du volume que nous signalons ici. Il contient quatre des documents établis pour le Congrès de Nancy, ainsi qu'un certain nombre de commentaires émanant des personnes à qui ces documents avaient été préalablement communiqués. C'est donc un extrait des *Actes du Congrès* publiés par la Faculté des lettres de Nancy dans sa série "Annales de l'Est" (mémoire 31, 1966). Les documents choisis "traitent de certains aspects de la linguistique susceptibles de recevoir une application dans le domaine de l'enseignement des langues vivantes" (7).

Le premier rapport, qui occupe à lui seul les pages 9 à 87, est celui d'E. Coseriu: Structure lexicale et enseignement du vocabulaire. L'auteur s'est volontairement limité à la fonction lexicale proprement dite, "c'est-à-dire à la structuration primaire de l'expérience au moyen de 'mots', idéalement antérieure aux fonctions nécessaires pour la combinaison des mots dans le discours" (10). Il étudie successivement: 1. Les trois structurations du lexique – de l'expression seulement, de l'expression et du contenu, du contenu seulement; 2. Les structures lexématiques – champs lexicaux (ensembles de lexèmes unis par une valeur lexicale commune), modifications ou "dérivations homogènes" (déterminations complémentaires de tout un lexème), développements (rapports entre des lexèmes identiques exprimés par des catégories verbales différentes), dérivation (combinaison de deux lexèmes dont l'un détermine l'autre), solidarités (rapports entre deux lexèmes dont l'un est compris, en tout ou en partie, dans l'autre, en tant que trait distinctif); 3. La

méthode — définition des critères objectifs de l'analyse structurale du lexique (commutation et méthode distributionnelle); 4. Application dans l'enseignement des principes définis et de la théorie posée.

Parmi les interventions (51–87), on retiendra surtout celles de K. Baldinger sur champ lexical et champ conceptuel, de M. Culioli, très saine, sur la linguistique appliquée, et de Mme Hirschberg sur la structuration du lexique technique (qui n'est pas une simple nomenclature énumérative).

Le second rapport (89–122), dû à A.V. Isačenko, a pour objet les structures syntaxiques fondamentales et leur enseignement. Reprenant certains procédés de la grammaire générative de N. Chomsky, I. montre, exemples à l'appui, que la syntaxe structurale, à condition d'opérer avec des structures syntaxiques fondamentales bien définies, a l'avantage "d'être un système et non pas la somme fortuite d'observations empiriques" (102); ses observations didactiques concernent l'enseignement universitaire et l'enseignement pratique à des adultes; n'ayant jamais travaillé dans une école primaire ou secondaire, I. se déclare "incapable de formuler une opinion sur l'efficacité de la syntaxe structurale à l'école" (101). Ici encore on remarque la pertinence de l'intervention de M. Culioli (106–109) qui intéressera directement les enseignants.

Le troisième document, consacré à "la traduction et l'enseignement des langues", a été rédigé par J.C. Catford. Il concerne en fait la traduction en général et n'a rien à voir avec la linguistique appliquée, pas plus dans sa théorie que dans sa pratique.

Enfin P. Rivenc rapporte sur l'état actuel des enquêtes sur les langues parlées et les langues de spécialité (153–189). Il caractérise les travaux de J. Alan Pfeffer sur l'allemand parlé, ceux de A. Rojo-Sastre et de lui-même sur l'espagnol, puis, plus longuement, l'enquête sur le franco-canadien organisée par le Comité interuniversitaire Laval, Mac-Gill, Montréal, enfin les enquêtes anglo-françaises en vue d'étudier le langage de l'enfant, et celles qui sont en train sur l'évolution du français parlé et écrit en Afrique francophone. Les interventions apportent d'utiles compléments aux informations réunies par R.

L'ouvrage est intéressant de bout en bout, encore que la promesse du titre ne soit guère tenue. A l'exception d'A.V. Isačenko, en effet, les auteurs n'ont abordé que sommairement la pédagogie des langues vivantes. Dans les savoureuses remarques qu'il a faites sur l'exposé d'E. Coseriu (84–87), M. Wexler affirme que l'enseignement est une tâche impossible. La boutade permet au moins de mesurer l'énorme faille qu'il y a encore entre la théorie et la pratique.

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Lebrun, Yvan:

Anatomie et physiologie de l'appareil phonatoire, Bruxelles, Labor, Paris, Nathan, 1968, 12–103 p., ill.,fig. (Langues et culture, 2)

Sans doute séduits par le premier volume de cette collection (De Grève et Van Passel: *Linguistique et enseignement des langues étrangères.* Voir c.r. dans ce *Bulletin* 6, 1968, 45), les maîtres de langues vivantes s'attendent probablement à trouver dans ce dense petit volume un développement des indications anatomo-physiologiques sommaires fournies par l'ouvrage d'initiation de B. Malmberg: *La phonétique* (PUF. Coll. "Que sais-je?" No 637. 7ème éd. 1968). Ils seront déconcertés. En effet, plutôt qu'une description directement utile aux enseignants, le volume d'Y.L. constitue une tentative de mise au point du problème difficile que soulève le fonctionnement des cordes vocales.

L'auteur prend d'emblée une nette position de critique: en guise d'introduction, il relève les contradictions constatables dans plusieurs articles de P. Delattre relatifs à la distinction entre consonnes fortes et consonnes douces, et aux critères de cette distinction. Il montre en outre comment Delattre, sur ce point, s'oppose notamment à Malmberg. Evoquant plusieurs expériences et mesures instrumentales de facteurs contribuant à la force d'élocution dans un énoncé donné, L. conclut, sans apporter d'argument décisif pour une solution: "la division traditionnelle des consonnes en fortes et douces ne repose sur aucune constatation objective".

Cette "introduction" n'est, dans l'esprit de l'auteur, qu'une façon d'attirer l'attention du lecteur sur la nécessité de remettre en question bon nombre d'idées reçues, dont les non spécialistes ignorent qu'elles ne possèdent pas de fondements suffisants.

Nous passons alors (chap. I) à la description de la "soufflerie sub-glottique". Sur la base de plusieurs expériences qu'il a lui-même menées à chef, L. établit que, contrairement à ce qu'avancent plusieurs manuels de phonétique, "la cage thoracique et les muscles respiratoires n'exercent sur les poumons ni pression, ni traction": le mécanisme de la respiration, avec son fonctionnement particulier dans la phonation, est commandé surtout par le jeu alternatif de pression et de dépression qui s'opère dans l'espace interpleural. Des expériences poursuivies sur la façon dont se forme la "pression élocutoire", notamment dans l'émission de syllabes accentuées, n'ont pas permis de constater "une corrélation étroite entre l'accent et les variations de la pression sub-glottique". Le problème reste donc entièrement ouvert.

Les chapitres II et III donnent une description du générateur vocal, le larynx et ses "cordes vocales", puis de ce que L. appelle "le pavillon

sub-glottique". Comme on le sait bien depuis qu'on peut explorer la continuité des mécanismes articulatoires, grâce surtout à la cinéradiographie, l'acte articulatoire "ne se laisse pas analyser en une succession de positions articulatoires" (...), "le phonème n'est pas une unité articulatoire" (25). Partant d'autres critères, les phonologues aussi l'ont compris; ainsi Hjelmslev, refusant tout recours à la substance, appela les phonèmes des "cénèmes", des unités vides.

Sous le titre "Paroles singulières", le chapitre IV décrit la physiologie de la ventriloquie, de la parole chuchotée (dont l'existence prouve le rôle décisif des résonateurs supra-glottiques), et de la parole sifflée.

C'est la matière de son chapitre V qui, visiblement, se trouve au centre des préoccupations de L. Les professeurs de langues n'ont guère à s'inquiéter de la querelle — car c'en est une — dont il est question ici. Contentons-nous de rappeler que les physiologistes de la phonation s'opposent en deux clans. D'une part les tenants de la théorie "myo-élastique", selon laquelle le son laryngé est produit, sans contrôle nerveux possible, par le jeu de la pression d'air sous-glottique sur les cordes vocales. D'autre part, les partisans de la théorie "neuro-chronaxique", aux termes de laquelle la vibration des cordes vocales, constatée même en l'absence de courant d'air (mais alors on ne constate pas de production sonore), est due à l'action des potentiels électro-chimiques envoyés du cerveau dans les deux nerfs récurrents. L'opposition entre ces deux théories alimente depuis près de vingt ans un grand nombre d'articles, que recense la riche bibliographie de l'auteur. Mais ici encore, l'aperçu critique de L., consacré surtout aux travaux de R. Husson et à ceux qui en découlent, constate en manière de conclusion que "l'on n'a pas encore pu avancer d'argument décisif en faveur de l'une ou l'autre théorie".

Pourtant l'affaire est d'importance, pour les phoniâtres surtout. Si la théorie neuro-chronaxique a raison, la production du son laryngien tombe sous le contrôle cérébral. Nous n'entrerons pas dans une discussion où nous ne pourrions qu'avouer notre incompétence. Toutefois les phonéticiens, mais surtout les logopédistes, les phoniâtres, intéressés au premier chef, s'étonneront de ne voir citer par L. aucun des travaux de J. Claude Lafon, qui a pourtant avancé, en 1961 déjà (dans *Message et phonétique,* PUF), des arguments qu'il n'est pas permis de négliger, en faveur de la théorie myo-élastique. Au surplus, dans une contribution du récent *Manual of phonetics,* édité par B. Malmberg (Amsterdam, North Holland, 1968, 568 p.), Jw. Van den Berg fait nettement justice de la théorie neuro-chronaxique: "the theory, which was ably put forward by Husson, induced many valuable experiments during 1955—60. All experimental evidence disproves it" (283).

Bornons-nous à remarquer pour conclure que sous ce titre, et dans cette collection, l'ouvrage de L. aura quelque peine à répondre à l'attente de ses lecteurs: les maîtres soucieux de préparer de bons exercices de phonétique ne pourront guère trouver ici l'explication articulatoire, ni surtout acoustique, en rapport avec le fonctionnement du code linguistique. L. en effet n'aborde pas les aspects physiologiques des phénomènes linguistiquement décisifs de la chaîne parlée: la production de la mélodie, du rythme, la segmentation syllabique, les phénomènes d'assimilation et de dissimilation, etc. De leur côté les médecins, les neurologues, bien davantage concernés, n'auront peut-être pas l'idée d'aller chercher dans cette collection ce travail de critique visant ces spécialistes. Quant au lecteur profane, malgré l'aide que lui apporteront les 37 figures et schémas (groupés en fin de volume), il aura besoin d'une solide introduction à la phonétique instrumentale pour bien suivre la discussion. Mais la variété et la minutie des techniques d'expérimentation éveilleront son intérêt.

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Bung, Klaus (ed):
Programmed learning and the language laboratory 1, London, Longmac, 1968, 8o, 256 p.

Uniform with the second volume, reviewed in *Bulletin* 4, 1967, 54–64, this anthology is divided into two parts: four papers on general programmed learning theory and seven on special problems related to its application to language teaching.

If the 74 page contribution of Professor Landa is the most considerable, it is not the only important article in this long awaited book. Rather than subscribe to the orthodox Skinnerian criteria for good programming, Dr. Unwin examines in detail ten points of reference by which to judge to what extent a teaching unit is an effective means of communicating ideas to a student. It is unfortunate that in putting forward the notion of "steps of appropriate size", D.U. does not follow Gilbert in defining how to gauge the suitability of items[1]. The questions of active participation on the part of the

1 Thomas F. Gilbert: *Mathetics: the technology of education* and *Mathetics: the design of teaching exercises* first published in 1962 in the *Journal of Mathetics* and now available in reprint from Longmac Ltd, 72 Tottenham Court Road, London, W 1.

student and of his receiving confirmation of right responses when formulated are raised but not discussed at any length. His conclusion voices the hope that criteria can be developed for these aspects of programmed learning.

Davies in a clear exposition of Gilbert's mathetical programming draws attention to the overall pattern of the material to be taught. He shows how the change of behaviour which the Skinnerian calls learning can be characterized in three ways:

chains of stimuli and responses
multiple discriminations
concept learning (generalizations).

In his lucid analysis of Gilbert's theory, I.D. interposes a useful reminder of the significance of the matrix technique described in Thomas, Davies et al.: *Programmed learning in perspective,* Londres 1963. The attempt to relate subject matter and teaching strategy is indicated in the well-chosen examples of how to read matrices, but the theoretical explanation is probably insufficient to be of much use to any but the people who have long been familiar with his ideas. All programmers, however, can profit from seeing how Gilbert viewed "operant span" and applied it to composing exercises. A clear explanation of demonstration, prompt and release exercises, followed by practical guidance about their composition is the most valuable aspect of this fine paper. While I.D.'s conclusion may seem optimistic: that mathetics has to a great extent been integrated into orthodox programming procedures, it is probably true in the case of serious-minded and practising programmers who have broken away from the original Skinnerian and Crowderian systems.

Ludwig in a brief third paper draws attention to one particular aspect of Gilbert's domain theory: the role of immediate, short-term and long-term memory. Tentative figures are given as guidelines to the exploitation of memory factors in the perception, understanding and application of what is taught. It is only unfortunate that no documentation or bibliographical comment accompanies the remarks.

Landa's essay on *Algorithms and programmed learning* has been available in Russian and German for some years. Its appearance in English, however, may spark off more widespread use of algorithms as instructional techniques. L.N.L. briefly expounds the advantages and disadvantages of the various types of algorithms whenever such a method of formalising the solution of a problem is possible. L.N.L.'s comments on examples of bad algorithms could be extended and the technique suggested whereby all unspecified responses should be grouped under the one heading and a further separate strategy devised for those students incapable of formulating any answer at all. At all events, it seems necesssary to render explicit the conclusion that at every

point of choice in an algorithm, all the possible reactions of the student are provided for. If in some cases it seems wise to introduce a cyclical principle into the programming, there must ultimately be some way left to the student who simply doesn't grasp the point at issue to escape from the vicious circle. The algorithm must then be restricted to yes/no branches as in Bung's examples on pages 219 and 221 of volume 2 or extended to cover all contingencies as in standard computer-programming procedures (one or more acceptable answers, one or more specified wrong answers and a series of procedures for unpredicted or irrelevant responses). At all events, the type of adaptive teaching in which student performance on preliminary and subsequent tests determines the entry point and student progress in an algorithmic teaching programme is more suited to computer-based instruction than to use in the standard classes of our day. There is a sense in which S.R.A. Reading Laboratory programming lives up to L.N.L.'s suggestions, but the technique can only be made fully effective when counters can be used to keep a tally of student answers, reaction-time considered to allow for machine-pacing and the level of difficulty of instructional materials made to depend completely on the students' competence and performance.

L.N.L. takes some pains to analyse what the learning of the first ten English cardinal numbers could entail. He shows how in the case of listening comprehension alone, one has to specify the readiness with which the student is expected to perform, the way in which the student is to react, whether 100% correctness is considered essential. As L.N.L. points out, the essential teaching task is to bring the student from the level of performance on his first appearance to the overall mastery of the skill according to the criteria specified. This must be done with due attention to motivational values – an algorithm which keeps up student interest being preferable to one which turns the task into drudgery. All would agree that dividing the instructional sequence into suitable steps or units of work contributes much to the attitudes of the pupil. It is clear that the type of "logical" presentation necessary for such a purpose does not necessarily coincide with the findings of a Cartesian analysis of the subject matter. All these ideas are well explained by L.N.L.: it is not any type of activity that will lead the student to mastery but a well-chosen one.

Hence it is that L.N.L. makes some very penetrating remarks about the inefficacy of many steps in certain Skinnerian programmes and the unsoundness of unsophisticated branching programmes in which the panacea for all ills is to reread a basic definition on which subsequent explanation depends. While it is possible to make a multiple choice item diagnostic in

character, L.N.L. thinks this is seldom done and recommends that a programmer who comes upon a student error should do three things:

i) understand the psychological cause of the mistake,
ii) understand how the student should think in order to correct the error,
iii) understand what is to be done and how to teach the pupil to think.

Few programmers, claims L.N.L., are concerned that students should find the right answer by the wrong methods or perhaps even just by sheer memory work. Reinforcing such conduct on the part of the learner obviously inculcates bad problem-solving techniques, and in the last analysis, it is probably more important to know how to work soundly than how to associate two ideas that happen to go together. Landa's contribution should make a lot of programmers think.

The second part of the book is the shorter and contains the reprint of Bernard Spolksy's *Psycholinguistic critique of programmed foreign language instruction* (*IRAL* 4, 1966, 119–129), Klaus Bung's *Some thoughts on programming modern languages for the tape recorder* (abridged from *Modern Foreign Language Teaching* 1, Berlin 1964, 425–439), *Uses of the 'Audio-Adapter'* (part of which was published in *Contact* 8, 1966 and in the 2nd volume of this series) and *A model for the construction and use of adaptive algorithmic language programmes* (in M.J. Tobin (ed.), *Problems and methods in programmed learning* 1, 108–114). Articles on Latin, Old English and Japanese kana scripts were written specially for the volume and comprise about 50 pages of text. The particular interest of this part of the volume for language teachers lies in its rarely found critical application of programmed learning principles to a field riddled with "new" methods. Spolsky's convincing arguments against teaching language-like behaviour by Skinnerian methods and allowing such techniques to determine how much foreign language can be taught may appear savage but deserve to be meditated upon.

Spolsky outlines the case for considering separately the competence of a speaker who knows the syntax of a language and how to use it to express his thought in novel utterances independently of his native language and the myriad factors which are called into play when two people speak to each other. Syntax and semantics do not manifest themselves directly in the utterances which comprise a conversation in a foreign language; rather, they lie under the surface and can in no sense be considered operants that a psychologist can observe, teach and reinforce according to the tenets of behaviorist theory. BS does not deny the possibility of training a student to reproduce parrot-like stereotyped sentences in answer to questions with a pronunciation acceptable to a foreigner, but this is not language-learning and

indeed as Chomsky proved the very model Skinner proposed to explain verbal behaviour is fundamentally incapable of accounting for it satisfactorily[2].

Bung in "some thoughts" shows that would-be 'complex-skill' programmes must of necessity be of doubtful efficacy: emphasis on accuracy militates against fluency – both cannot be taught together; what a learner finds easy to say is not necessarily easy to write and vice-versa; skills like understanding and speaking are themselves complex and need to be broken down into components whose interaction among themselves are far from understood. In fact, not only good programming techniques but the very danger of interference between language skills counsels teaching one thing at a time. The same decision is forced upon the programmer by a wish that his work should be as useful as possible, unlikely to be criticised for arbitrariness of content or omission. The natural use of language in situation can result from having the student use short-answer forms to questions posed him, complete sentences to describe activities portrayed visually or as foreign-language equivalents to an idea expressed in the native language.

In the interests of teaching one thing at a time, it is better to leave aside problems concerning gender prior to their being mastered if one wants to teach another grammatical feature like the significance of case-endings where they exist. In this context, it appears sound pedagogy to restrict to the very minimum the verb forms necessary to allow the student to use language in the ways expected of him. It seems likely that a very limited vocabulary will suffice while the student works at the basic syntax and morphology of the language. The major problem involved in such a situation is to ensure that the utterances presented to the student and expected of the student should be accurate grammatically and acceptable as normal to a native-speaker of the language being taught. It need not be stressed that text-books written by foreigners are invariably full of artificial and even at times of ungrammatical sentences. There is no point in repeating what was said on this matter in reviewing Volume 2 (see *Bulletin* 4, 1967, 60); suffice it to note that B's article is designed for making the most of the language laboratory facilities we have at our disposal today.

Speaking of the "uses of the 'audio-adapter' ", B. points out that student practice not aimed at improving pronunciation and intonation seldom benefits from being recorded and replayed later. Exercises aimed at assimilating grammar, vocabulary and idiom, at improving answering of questions and

2 Noam Chomsky: A review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957). *Language* 35, 1959, 26–58, reprinted in Jerry A. Fodor and Jerrold J. Katz (eds), *The structure of language,* Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1964, 547–578.

translation, if monitored can just as profitably be carried out without individual tape-recorders. Numbered drawings on a student hand-out can serve as stimuli in a variety of laboratory exercises. If a class contains students with a wide spread of ability, it can be divided into groups able to progress at comparable speeds without making it imperative that each have his own tape-recorder. All the students at the same level of performance are plugged into the same audio-adapter and form a sub-group within the class. The device has the advantages of allowing students matched by ability to work together, profiting from graded exercises, repeated together as often as necessary, in response to a native-speaker of the foreign language being learnt. As B. points out, the audio-adapter makes it possible for a teacher to wheel two or three tape-recorders into a classroom, allow groups of students to practice in each and still give tutorial attention to other students in the class who could profit by it. The same unit can be used to extend a standard language-laboratory to provide for an outsized class or the inevitable visitors coming to see how the installation works. The audio-adapter makes it possible for a teacher to make a student aware of his mistakes by allowing him to play defective sequences to the pupil as often as required. The same device can be used for oral examinations of each individual in a class in turn during a standard session; everyone bar the examinee of the moment continues to work at the pre-recorded exercises.

B.'s Model for the construction and use of adaptive algorithmic language programmes is a clear but very closely reasoned article which needs to be read with attention. No summary can do it justice: expanded versions of the paper will soon be in print in German and English. Rather than accept a "listen-speak-read-write" skill sequence, B. recommends the adoption of his analysis of language skills on which we commented at length on pages 56–59 in reviewing volume 2.

It is this same "delta diagram" or analysis of language skills that Peter Hodge takes as his point of departure for his overview of programmed instruction in Latin. Over-insistence in the "dead" written language has led in the past to a neglect of the essentially oral character of much that was later recorded as Latin literature. P.H. describes in some detail the various methodologies used by Latin teachers to bring students to the goal of translating at sight from the target-language to the mother tongue and vice versa. He singles out Sweet's structural approach as a break-through in method which is the basis of recent work by Morris. Following Lane (1964), P.H. suggests that formal repertoires (imitation, reading, etc.) can be taught by linear programming while thematic repertoires (involving ability to understand a word in its context) need other techniques. P.H. further suggests

that matters of syntax and strategies of translation could be taught by an algorithmic approach. He describes Sweet's and Morris' work at considerable length before speaking of semi-programmed approaches on the parts of Franck and Frochot, Eikeboom, Hayter and Brown. A crucial question is whether comprehension of a Latin text is a goal in itself. Distler and P.H. think that it is; hence the author's research into analysis of the skills involved with a view to using algorithmic structures in conjunction with audio-lingual (FSM) techniques.

Barbara Raw considers that Old English should be taught in a way which reflects the requirements of a university subject — in a language laboratory. B.R. condemns the grammar-translation approach for handicapping students and rendering them incapable of reading Old English with understanding. An oral approach favours learning to read, emphasising as it does the grouping of words according to sense. Twelve days of intensive work with programmes initiates the students in the structure of the language at Keele University. As the teaching objective is reading with comprehension, emphasis is laid from the first on genuine texts complete with all the vagaries of spelling found in original manuscripts. Vocabulary items are listed once only and listed alongside the text at the point where a new word first occurs. Later programmes deal more with the aural element involved in scanning poetry and recognizing the devices used such as stress patterns and alliteration. Sound after all was no less essential to Old English literature than P.H. claims it was for Latin.

P.G. O'Neill takes the kana scripts of Japanese as his point of reference when speaking of programming a phonetic script. In the six weeks introductory course in grammar, O'N.'s students use a romanised script. This means that in subsequent work, they can give their undivided attention first to the kana scripts then to the Chinese characters which are used in conjunction with them. Details of writing and presenting the course are discussed. While other articles in the book may seem more meaty, it must be admitted that the practical writing of a programme step by step, the provision of tests, the student errors which led to modifications of the programme and the problems resulting from the choice of the handwritten characters rather than the printed ones are an education appreciated by those engaged in preparing their own programmed coursework.

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Turner, John D. (éd.):
Programming for the language laboratory, London, University of London Press, 1968, 7–263 p.

In judging this book, one must not be too severe. From page 132 we learn that it was written at least two years before May 1967, a fact which explains the outdated ring most of its pages contain. Given the isolation of England, it is understandable that American publications like Belasco's 1961 series on Applied linguistics and Marty's 1963 *Linguistics applied to the beginning French course* should be missing. The most worth-while American publications cited from those years are Stack's 1960 edition of *The language laboratory and modern language teaching,* Marty's 1960 *Language laboratory learning* and Rivers' 1964 *The psychologist and the foreign language teacher.* In a country where the continent is often cut off by a fog-laden "English" channel and a language barrier, it is small wonder that "overseas" periodicals have to be quoted from citations in other books and French phonetics are represented by Dauzat and Fouché among a host of British publications. The German and Russian sections of the book are more balanced in this respect.

The most unfortunate thing about this book is its misleading title: there is not a mention of any of the proponents of programmed learning in the language laboratory (whether Marty's more recent publications have been consciously omitted or not is a mystery). There is no mention of such remarkable publications as *IRAL, Le français dans le monde, Neusprachliche Mitteilungen, Moderne Sprachen, Levende Talen,* let alone anything published in the fields of programmed learning even in Britain. The result is there is not the slightest mention of Carroll, Lane, Valdman or any of those experts in linguistics who disagree with the disciples of Firth.

A better title for the book would have been: Language laboratory drills in Britain, and it is as such that the book must be reviewed in accordance with the wishes expressed by the editor in the two pages he contributed to the volume:

> "It is true, however, that the language laboratory can be used to teach many elements of language, and that by employing carefully written laboratory drills it is possible to move from familiar to unfamiliar material. It is because of this crucial factor that the term *programming* seemed particularly suitable for the title of this book".

Associate Professor W. Rivers of the Monash University French Department is the only psychologist referred to in the book, Skinner excepted. It is not she who justified the assertion:

> "If Skinner is correct and language learning is best considered as the inculcation of conditioned reflexes, then the exercises presented to the pupils must be highly repetitive with the elements set for alteration being varied within very narrow limits" (6).

The whole purpose of the language laboratory says Van Abbé "is, it must be repeated, not *testing* but *drilling*". If Skinner is incorrect on this point (as he manifestly is) what remains of the argument? I say manifestly with reason and leave it to the reader to consult Noam Chomsky's: A review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior, Language* 35, 1959, 26–58 (reprinted in Fodor and Katz's *Structure of language,* Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1964, 547–578) and the various standard anthologies of articles in the field of Psycholinguistics:

> Leon A. Jakobovits and Murray S. Miron: *Readings in the psychology of language,* Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1967;
> Donald H. Kausler: *Readings in verbal learning,* New York, London and Sydney, Wiley, 1966, and
> Sheldon Rosenberg: *Directions in psycholinguistics,* New York, Macmillan, 1965,

articles which have been published in the twenty years since Skinner gave his William James lectures and published his first ideas on programmed learning.

Let it be said from the outset, I wholly agree with Van Abbé that the pupils must be trained to recognize and correct their mistakes (7) rather than repeat them endlessly in the language laboratory. I also agree with him that "none of those trained by the new methods (St. Cloud-Zagreb of the late fifties and early sixties) is likely to be as grammatically accurate as those 'top children' trained by the 'classical' methods: as against this, their accents may well be incomparably better" (10). He insists on making the students familiar with a text initially presented in the classroom situation (11) and he agrees with Capelle and Girard that in a second phase of learning, a number of departures from the written text are to be encouraged (12). He goes on to say:

> "There is possibly everything to be said for simply *subjecting pupils in the laboratory to foreign noises* (whilst they would gain little from *listening* to their own repetitions played back to them on the tapes)".

V.A. makes the excellent suggestion that recorded materials can be "exploded" that is pauses inserted in which the student can repeat what he

heard (14) but does not consider it necessary to maintain "the illusion of being 'inside' the foreign world" and considers no concrete evidence to have been so far (by 1964) adduced to support the inclusion of a variety of speakers' voices. While V.A. unlike the other contributors mentions *IRAL* in passing (19), there is no evidence that he considered anything he read there worth incorporating into his essay on "General Principles". His claim that "the programming which is dealt with in this book involves making the best use of the facilities offered by *existing* language laboratories, and harnessing these to the work which we are being called on to do "scarcely seems substantiated and takes not the slightest notice even of the earliest articles published in England by Klaus Bung (1964 onwards) in the field of language laboratory programming.

B. Woolrich in "English as a foreign language" contributed the longest article to the book. In a particularly valuable section on word stress he contributes a vast number of practical examples of drills which cannot fail to help the language teacher and programmer. His exercises range from the very easiest to highly complex and sophisticated drills of the type adopted in the best of language laboratory courses for teaching English. One of the best suggestions he makes is his plan for what he calls "extended listening practice" in which a long narrative or dialogue is introduced to the student by a short summary using words with which he is familiar. A second presentation presents the summary with a little more "padding" – highly redundant additions which if anything usually facilitate comprehension at the sentence level even if it may tend to disguise the essentials of the performance which is then presented to the audience in a third phase. It is a pity that so important an aspect of language learning as understanding what is said in the foreign tongue should be so lightly touched on as this and other areas he consciously omitted from the present discussion are of major importance.

T.J. Barling's "French" understandably cites *Advances in the teaching of modern languages,* vol. 1, 1964 and omits the far more valuable volume 2, 1966 (an omission unfortunately not made good in the addendum, 132–134). It must be curiously disconcerting for B. to reread an article written so long before and faced with the task not of updating what he no longer believes in but purely of adding some observations. He takes the opportunity of drawing his reader's attention to publications and new policies in "two years of significant developments". It would be unfair to look too closely to an article which contains some useful "drills". If, however, one follows B.'s recommendation to consult the Audio-Lingual Materials produced by Harcourt, Brace and World in 1961, it might be advisable to read also Belasco's excellent article: *Structural drill and the refinement principle* in

Gravit and Valdman's *Structural drill and the language laboratory (IJAL* 29/2, 1963, 19–23).

Eva Paneth in "German" accepts Broadbent's findings that sounds identified as one vowel in one speaker's voice may be interpreted completely differently in another's even though the sound is physically very much the same (157). When the question of perception and memorization has been treated, she wisely tackles listening comprehension facilitated by a number of crutches to understanding other contributors to the book do not mention. She also wisely points out how the same source material can be used in a variety of ways to exploit its many aspects to the benefit of the students who come in contact with it. On page 160 the good recommendation is made that drills have a unity about them -- a unity of situation or theme to facilitate retention and meaningfulness. Her differenciation of techniques in teaching absolute beginners and the more advanced and better trained student is valuable because not often stated. Most important of all, she stresses discriminatory listening not only as a means for learning but also at some stages as an objective to reach. It is refreshing to find that from 1963 to 1965 the Goldsmiths' language laboratory team were able to improve tapes considerably by constant dependence on student criticism and demand (161–162). From experience she can say that "exploded" texts are not necessary (164) and indeed that experienced makers of tapes can speak pauses without distorting natural intonation in consequence.

A perceptive and forward-looking article was contributed to the volume by P.H. Meades: "Russian". After a schematic comparison of Russian and English, he shows successively what the English speaking student has to learn and why. The nature and roles of various types of drills are explained and the recommendation made that they be as near to real-life situations as possible. He lists the effects of various shortcomings in drills and explains why a five-phase drill is desirable sometimes. It is significant to learn that in England it is necessary to make that point. He then very correctly points out that the acid test of effectiveness is that the student be able to use what he has learnt in unstructured situations such as a conversation class after the drill session which makes for consolidation of what has been learnt. In such teaching M. is careful to point out the usefulness of a visual support like flash cards (229). It is disappointing, however, that the bibliography does not refer to the very important contribution to language teaching of Professor Landa and his colleagues, work just as useful for drill-writing as for programming properly so called. He does, however, provide for adaptations required by the introduction of closed-circuit television into every booth, for example, of the planned Cambridge University laboratory (177) and the facilities for training

interpreters in Beaconsfield Army School and some Soviet interpreter schools.

The final essay: "Spanish" by Brian Dutton fittingly rounds off the volume by a clear analysis of the difficulties to be drilled in teaching English students that language. He builds on the idea of perfectly synchronised audio and visual presentations of drill materials in the language laboratory (256). Even with such aids to ideal simulation of real-life situations in the language laboratory, D. is careful to point out the serious limitations which make for artificiality. (My own feeling is that only a computer could in due course handle all the possible right answers a teacher would want to allow a student to make in the laboratory, and that only as a stepping stone to discussion or conversation in the classroom). But all would agree with p. 260:

> "The teacher has too much to do: anything that a machine can do for him should be done by a machine."

And like the good teacher that he is, Dutton concludes with remarks on the language differences in Latin America.

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T.C. Jupp and John Milne:
English Sentence Structure, Londres, Heinemann Educational Books, 1968

Les théories structuralistes n'ont encore produit que peu de livres de grammaire susceptibles de fournir aux maîtres et aux élèves un cours pratique dans une perspective nouvelle, et de remplacer les ouvrages traditionnels. J. et M. nous en proposent un dont les qualités nous paraissent mériter beaucoup d'attention de la part des maîtres d'anglais.

English Sentence Structure est destiné à des élèves ayant déjà une bonne connaissance, intuitive peut-être, de l'anglais. Les auteurs s'adressent à un public en âge de fréquenter le degré secondaire et au-delà, également à des adultes désirant parfaire leurs notions linguistiques. Le livre vise à regrouper les connaissances éparses par une réflexion de l'étudiant lui-même. Il propose de nombreux exercices écrits qui permettent de fixer les structures grammaticales de l'anglais après en avoir compris la forme et le sens; il espère recréer l'idée d'une certaine unité des tendances de la langue à travers la

diversité de ses manifestations. La notion d'exercices écrits montre bien que les auteurs se sont cantonnés dans le domaine des structures complètes, entières, de la langue écrite, et n'ont pas voulu se perdre dans le dédale du langage parlé, avec ses formules tronquées, ses redondances et ses silences.

La méthode propose pour chaque chapitre une première phase d'analyse; l'anglais, nous l'avons dit, est supposé connu. Il est donc nécessaire d'introduire l'emploi d'une terminologie spécialisée que les auteurs ont voulue simple. S'ils se sont permis d'introduire certains termes nouveaux, ils ont tenté d'en limiter le nombre, et d'utiliser un code qui ne déroute pas le public visé. Les explications sont d'ailleurs réduites au minimum: il s'agit pour l'étudiant de réfléchir à partir de l'anglais qu'il connaît ou qu'on lui a enseigné. On désire aboutir à des généralisations plutôt qu'à des règles strictes. Il apparaît donc que les auteurs ont d'emblée renoncé à traiter de la grammaire anglaise de façon exhaustive, mais qu'il ont sélectionné ce qui dans l'ensemble de la langue peut être utile à l'étudiant étranger.

L'enchaînement des chapitres oblige l'élève à parcourir tous les exercices dès le début, même s'ils lui paraissent très simples, afin de ne laisser aucune lacune dans l'évolution de sa compréhension du langage. A la fin du cours l'étudiant aura écrit quelque 2000 phrases en classe ou sous forme de devoirs.

Un autre élément très positif de ce cours est dû à l'attention que les auteurs n'ont cessé de porter au sens des phrases choisies comme exemples ou proposées dans les séries d'exercices. Ajoutées les unes aux autres elles composent de petits textes, et évitent ainsi l'écueil des phrases isolées, détachées de tout contexte. Les exercices naissent alors tout naturellement et s'organisent autour des mêmes thèmes.

Une autre préoccupation encore des auteurs a été de prévenir autant que possible les erreurs et d'éviter les confusions toujours si difficiles à éliminer par la suite. Chaque étape est suivie d'un test qui permet à l'étudiant de se rendre compte de ses progrès et de déceler ce qui n'aurait pas encore été assimilé. L'élève peut même se corriger seul puisque le livre comprend une clef donnant la façon de résoudre les exercices du livre. Le cours peut donc être utilisé individuellement ou en classe par le professeur.

Tous ces éléments montrent que les auteurs n'ont pas ignoré certains principes modernes de pédagogie et de programmation, et les ont appliqués fort judicieusement. Cela fait aussi de leur livre un cours de méthodologie très précieux pour qui s'efforce d'en bien comprendre les buts et les moyens.

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