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Foreign language instruction using the open classroom approach : a model.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

USING THE OPEN CLASSROOM

APPROACH: A MODEL

A Dissertation Presented

by

LEORA BARON

Submitted to the Graduate School at the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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June   1973

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

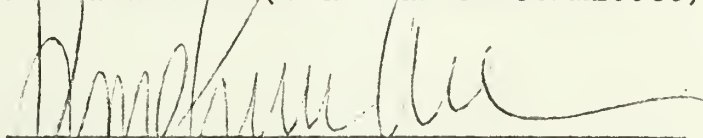USING THE OPEN CLASSROOM

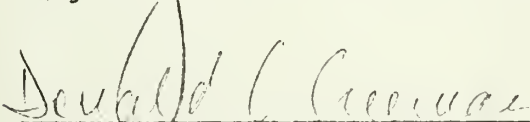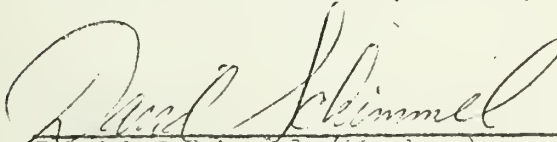APPROACH: A MODEL

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LEORA BARON

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June   1973

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ABSTRACT

Relatively large numbers of college students have been either dropping or failing foreign language courses in recent years. At the same time, teachers in this field have been deluged eith literature on the "best" methods for teaching foreign languages; none of the methods proposed has been proved to be the best or even just better than any other method. As a consequence, foreign language courses are not among the most popular courses on the college campus.

This paper suggests that part of the problem lies in the fact that whole groups of students are being taught a foreign language through a single method; that whatever individual attention is given, it is based on progress differentiation according to rate of learning alone and not according to any other individual factors of learning; and that the teachers themselves, for various reasons, do not usually try to employ more than one teaching method at a time. The solution proposed here is of using the open classroom approach which has been gaining support in the field of elementary and secondary education, in the foreign language classroom. This approach takes into consideration individual differences among students and allows the teacher to utilize a maximum number of methods.

C H A P T E R   I
INTRODUCTION

There are two aspects of foreign language teaching as it is being practiced at present that are rather disturbing. First, language courses, whether required or not, are not very popular among students, and the number of students failing or dropping them is quite high (see Appendix V). One explanation may be the discrepancy between student and teacher goals in regard to foreign language courses. There seems to be no clear definition of the goal of foreign language study as a requirement. Among the reasons given for having such a requirement are the desire to follow educational trends and the argument that studying a foreign language is part of "liberal education," as opposed to "vocational training." Foreign language study is a humanistic tradition in universities of the western world, some argue, and provides a better cultural understanding of others. It also gives one a better perspective of one's own language. It is considered a way to develop mental powers in the way that mathematics does; since "mind training" is really verbal training, foreign language study teaches the limitations which the speech patterns of any single language impose upon the individual thinking process, or even on national attitudes and assumptions. The diversity of scientific and technical literature and the relevence

to particular disciplines are additional arguments.[1] One
of the most frequently mentioned reasons for requiring
foreign language study is well expressed by the following
statement:

> It is time, in our view, to call a halt to this
> retreat toward monolingual isolationism. As a
> minimum requirement we urge thorough study of at
> least one foreign language, except for students
> with a clearly established language disability.
> In the modern language field this means carry-
> ing the study far enough so that the student
> comes to read without conscious translation, to
> understand the spoken word, and to speak with
> some ease.[2]

The student coming into the language course has quite
different reasons for being there. As the survey conducted
for this paper suggests, students take foreign language
courses, in most cases, in order to satisfy a requirement.
Those who choose to major in a foreign language do so for
various reasons. Some do it for vocational purposes, such
as becoming a teacher, an international lawyer or working
for the government; others, because language study seemed
relatively easy in high school; and still others, because
they want to travel. (See Appendix II, question #5.)

The teacher's position in this matter is ambivalent:
if he is one of a large faculty of teachers of the same
language, chances are that his department has a set of goals
which are either parallel to or are a subset of the goals of
the institution. In either case, the bureaucratic pressures
may be such that the department's goals become the teacher's

goals. On the other hand, if the teacher is on his own or in a relatively small department, his own ideas about the value of language study may either merge with those of his students or become dominant, regardless of what the goals of the department or the institution are. In most cases, though, teachers do not bother to find out why their students are there in the first place.

The second possible explanation for the large number of students who do not successfully finish language courses may be the lack of true choice on the part of the student as to method and material, and a lack of willingness on the teacher's part to exert himself beyond what is considered the norm in terms of preparation, diversification and individual attention. Also, there may be difficulty caused by the fact that foreign language courses are not being related to other subjects studied by the student. The old notion that learning a foreign language somehow rounds out a person's education may be outdated. As has been discussed earlier, most students seem to have some practical purpose in studying a language. Therefore the assumption that learning a prescribed and uniform body of material would answer every student's expectations, is wrong.

The second aspect of language instruction, which seems to bear on the unhappy situation regarding failure and drop rates, is related to the teacher. As Chomsky has put it,

both linguistics and psychology are presently in a state of "flux and agitation." These are the two major fields to which teachers of foreign languages look for some theoretical as well as practical guidance.[3] In cases where the teacher does possess the freedom to plan his own teaching, he can not always exercise it because he lacks information about the variety of methods in existence. This paper, in part, will attempt to give the teacher an overview of current theory and practices of foreign language teaching, from the teacher's point of view. (Chapter II and Appendices III and IV.) Further, this paper contains a model for foreign language instruction which will hopefully lead to the solution of the problems described about. Namely, it will create an environment in which the goals of each student and teacher become one, in which flexibility is the underlying feature of the relationship between teacher, student, material and method, where choices of material and method are student-centered and mostly student-initiated, and where the teacher has the option and the obligation to practice a variety of teaching methods.

> . . . [the teacher] is not bound by any one theory, in contrast with his linguistic colleague who is usually obliged to belong to one particular school. He can--and should--be perfectly free to choose and to build up his work with the aid of any notion that may serve his ends.[4]

Since the intent of this dissertation is to describe
a model of instruction, it is not enough merely to deal
with the content of courses or the goals of having them in
the first place. Instruction is not done in a vacuum; it
involves certain relationships between the four elements in
the teaching environment: the teacher, the student, material
and method. Therefore, one should consider briefly those
aspects of the classroom which do not deal directly with the
actual material being taught.

In terms of classroom arrangement, there are basically
two approaches to foreign language instruction being used at
present: the conventional arrangement and the individualized
one.[5] Each of these approaches, of course, includes a variety
of methods and techniques, for which in each case, there are
both advocates and opponents.

The conventional, or traditional, classroom approach
to teaching can be best described as a linear approach in
terms of the relationship between the teacher, the student,
the material and the specific method being used (Figure 1).
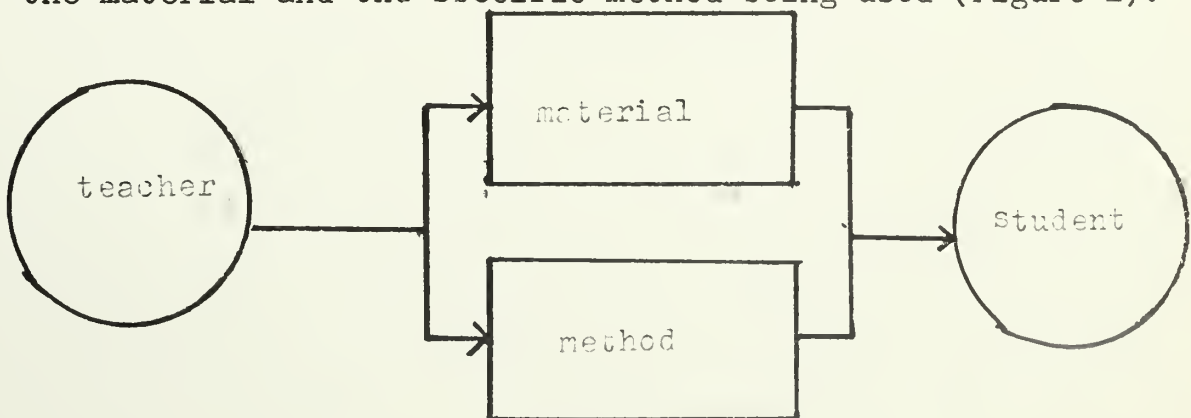
Figure 1

A Traditional Classroom

This approach is teacher-oriented. Since he is the one who initiates the learning process, he controls the choice of method and, in most cases, he does the evaluation of the student's performance. In more recent times, the student may have some say in choice of material and pace, but it is rare. There is, under this approach, a certain amount of feedback, but it is usually solicited by the teacher.

Individualized approaches are a more recent development in teaching foreign languages. They are still linear in nature, as is the conventional approach, but they may go in more than one direction at a time (Figure 2), or they may be tutorial in nature:

> In some programs the individualization is a matter of the rate at which a student can learn a set course of study through which all students must progress; in others the individualization consists of the traditional "lock-step" operation with the individualization consisting of individual or small groups help for students with specific problems in keeping up with the class; in other cases we find grouping based on common goals or similar aptitudes; in still other programs we find such approaches as tracking, team teaching, individual demand scheduling, ungraded learning centers, and independent study including correspondence courses.[6]

The dominant feature of most individualized approaches is usually the rate of learning. In most individualized programs, there is one teacher for several students; he is teaching them roughly the same material by the same method, and the "individual" feature of this approach is the particular rate at which each student proceeds. Instruction by means of the language laboratory is a common practice of individualized approaches,
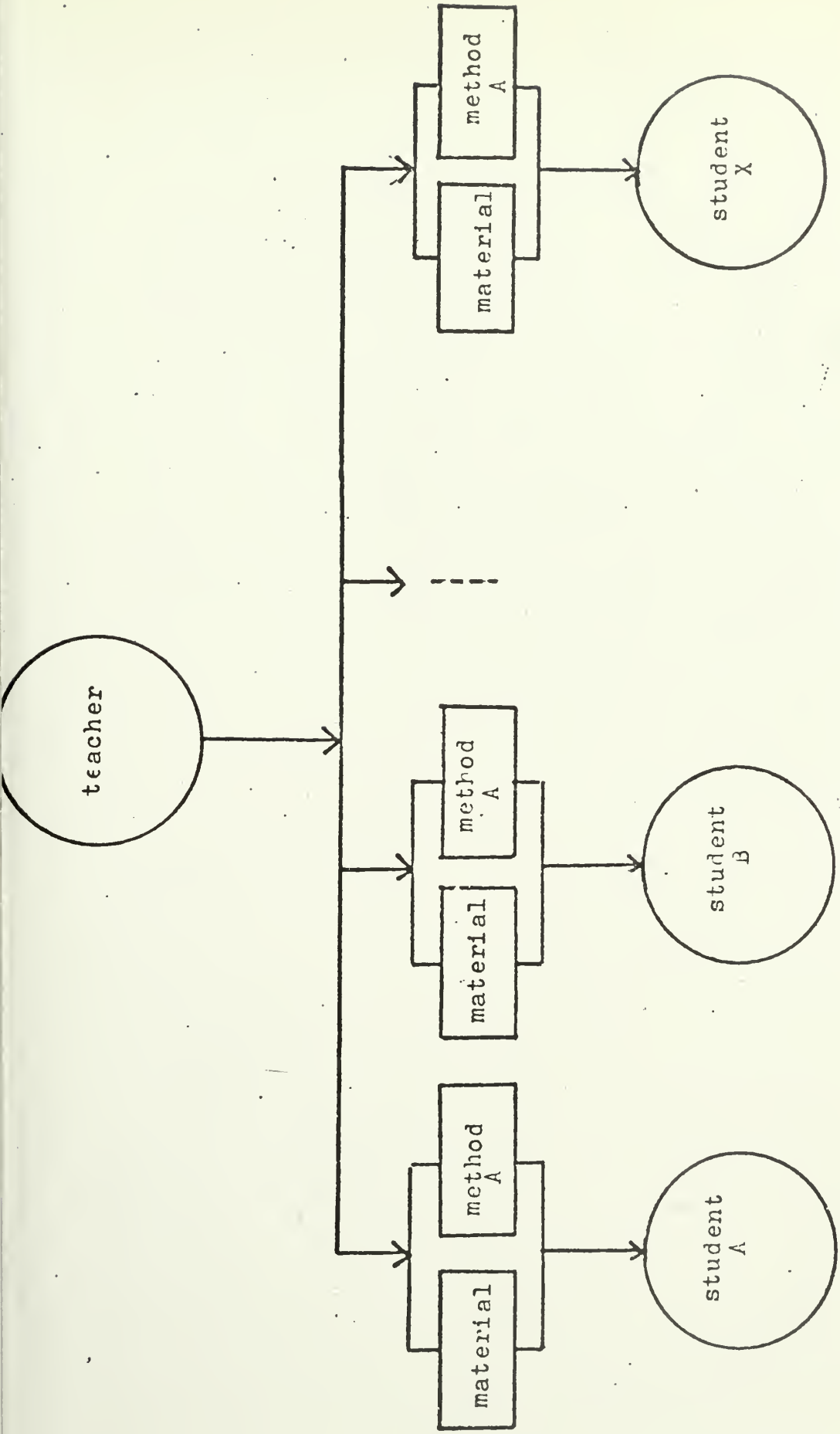
Figure 2

An Individualized Approach

since it allows each student to pace himself.

The proposed solution to the problems of student and teacher dissatisfaction has its roots in the concept of open education as it is currently being practiced in a growing number of elementary schools and in several high schools. It takes into account all the possible differences between students and sets as one of its goals the use of the most appropriate materials, at the most reasonable level, by the most suitable methods, at the most convenient rate for each student. It allows students to group together mostly at their will (in that it is different from most individualized approaches). More important, it allows the student to search and experiment until he and the teacher together find the best combination for him.

The goal in using this approach rather than any other is to allow for the relationship between student, teacher, material and method to be set up in various combinations. It is not static--change and variety are important (Figures 3, 4) because they are deemed fundamental to greater flexibility, creativity and self-expression on the part of both the teacher and the student. Figure 3 illustrates a relationship in which the teacher is trying to guide a particular student through various methods and through a variety of learning materials. In Figure 4, the teacher is working with a group of students using one or more sets of learning materials, but he is

approaching each student through a different method. These are by no means all the possibilities afforded by the open education approach, but indicate the fundamental differences between this approach and the other two.

The remainder of this paper is developed as follows: Chapter II discusses theories of language learning and their implications for foreign language instruction. The specific methods which were developed on the bases of these theories are detailed and evaluated in Appendices III and IV. Chapter III describes some of the features of individualized foreign language instruction in more detail than has been provided in this introduction. The open classroom approach to teaching is described in Chapter IV, and the following chapter, Chapter V, includes the model for the teaching of foreign languages using this approach. This chapter also includes a critical evaluation of the open classroom approach as applied to foreign language instruction, though most of the aspects to be discussed apply to other open classrooms as well. The final chapter suggests some of the implications raised by the development of the model and possible topics for further research.
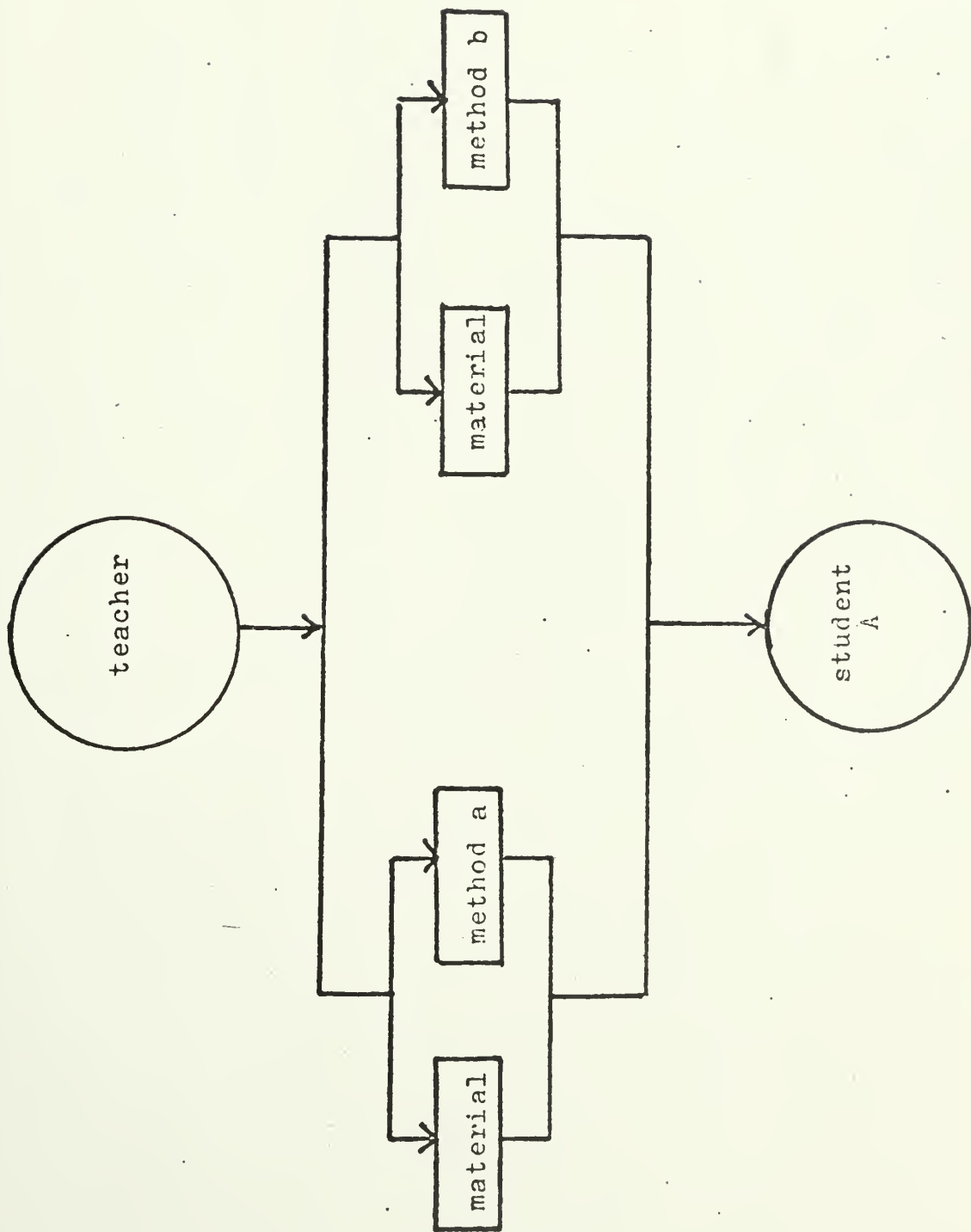
Figure 3

An 'Open' Classroom
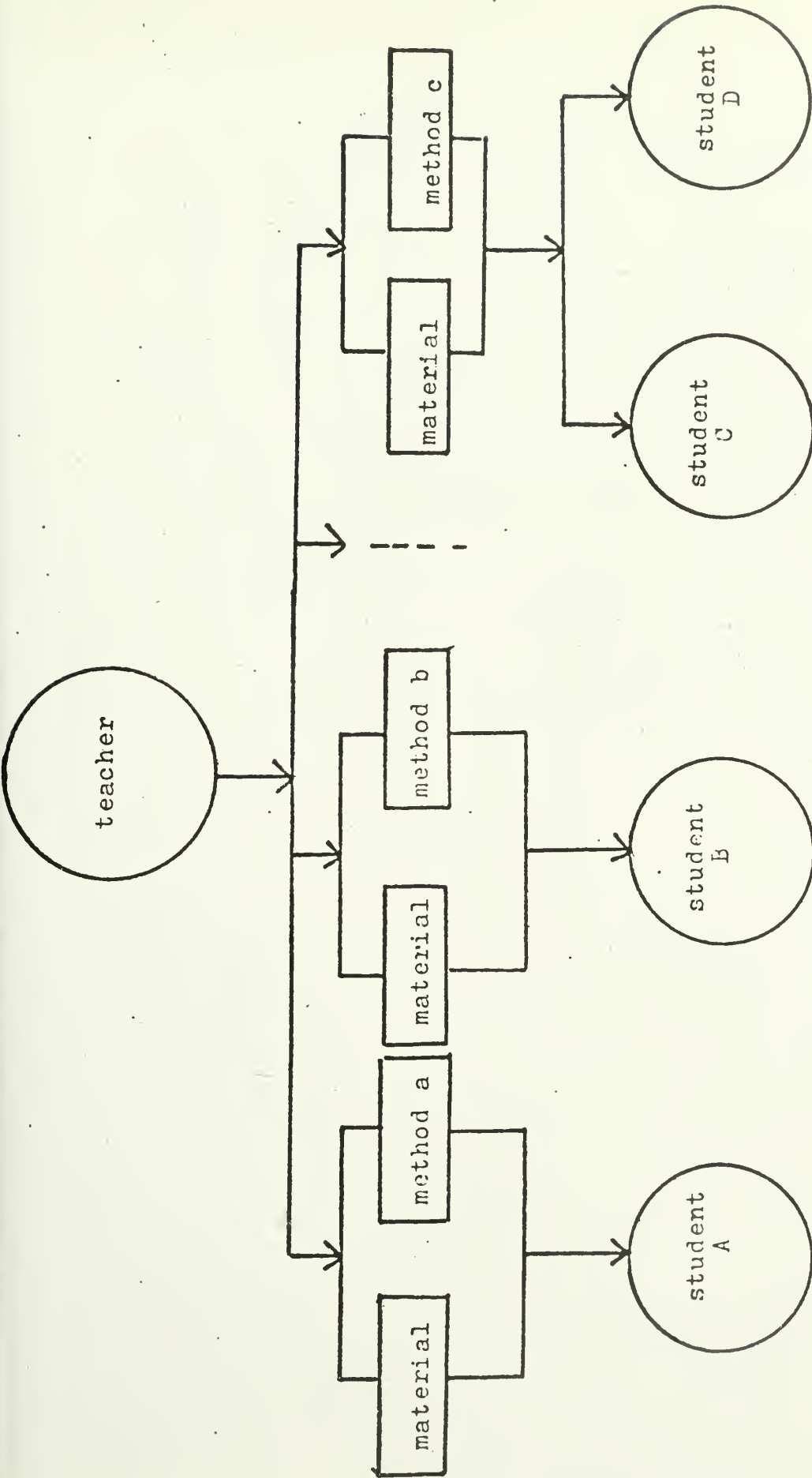
Figure 4

An 'Open' Classroom

C H A P T E R   I I

TWO THEORIES OF LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE
ACQUISITION WITH REFERENCE TO FOREIGN
LANGUAGE TEACHING[7]

There are basically two theories of language and
language acquisition: The behaviorist theory and the
rationalist theory. Both theories attempt to explain first
the nature of human language, and second, the process of
language acquisition. The following discussion describes
both those aspects of language as presented by the proponents
of each theory, and the implications each has for foreign
language instruction.

The behaviorist theory of language and language acquisi-
tion relies heavily on some theories of general human learning
and has two major sources, the descriptive school of linguis-
tics of the first half of the twentieth century and the
behaviorist school of psychology (mainly B. F. Skinner's
work).[8] It considers only observable data, that is, those
aspects of language (or behavior) which can be observed, and
rejects the theory that knowledge of a language may be
primarily a function of the mind.

Bloomfield states that "every child that is born into
a group acquires these habits of speech and response in the
first years of his life. This is doubtless the greatest

intellectual feat any one of us is ever required to perform,"
he goes on to describe the process of language acquisition as
a matter of habit-formation through stimulus-response inter-
action.[9] Consequently, descriptive linguists are mostly
concerned with the phonology of a language, its sound system,
because it is easiest to talk about it from an empirical point
of view. The basic units of structural description are the
phonemes, i.e., each distinctive sound of the language.
Phonemes are combined into morphemes: meaning carrying units.
Advanced structures include words (although morphemes may be
words), phrases and sentences. Descriptive linguists tried
to ignore sentence formation as much as possible, believing
that sentences were built by analogy to the structural
patterns of sentences previously heard:

> A grammatical pattern (sentence-type, construction,
> or substitution) is often called an analogy. A
> regular analogy permits a speaker to utter speech-
> forms which he has not heard; we say that he utters
> them on the analogy of similar forms which he has
> heard.[10]

From this point of view, language has a "structure" rather
than a rule-governed, creative grammar.

The behaviorist theory stresses the following features
of language:

Speech takes precedence over writing. "Writing is not
language, but merely a way of recording language by means of
visible marks. . . . All languages were spoken through
nearly all of their history by people who did not read or write."[11]

In addition, it is observed that when a child acquires his native language he first learns to speak and only later he may learn to write. The implication for foreign language instruction is that primary stress should be placed on the oral presentation of the language. Indeed, the preoccupation with the oral aspect of language has been a dominant reason for the important place "correct" pronunciation has in methods based on the behaviorist theory. It also leads to almost total reliance, at least at the initial stages of instruction, on oral work. The great emphasis on the oral aspect of language tends to obscure at least two crucial facts. First, that some distinctions are made in writing which are not observable in speech (such as in English: "boy's," "boys" and "boys'"), and second, that in a number of languages, as in English, spelling becomes difficult if based only on listening.

A language is a set of habits. The behaviorists tend to relegate sentence formation to individual acts of speaking:

> The sentence is the ideal type of syntgam. But it belongs to speaking, not to language.[12]

> Execution is always individual and the individual is always its master: I shall call the executive side "speaking" (parole).[13]

The most often cited attempt in recent times to explain this aspect of language, is that of B. F. Skinner. He believes language to be a mostly mechanical process:

> Useful verbal behavior can be constructed by the
> mechanical manipulation and arrangement of such
> (independent) objects.[14]

> "Verbal behavior" can also be generated by mechani-
> cally rearranging variables.[15]

> The logical and scientific community has slowly
> accumulated a set of techniques for the construction
> of effective verbal behavior.[16]

He suggests the fundamental terms of behaviorism: "stimulus,"

"response" and "reinforcement," to describe the process by

which language is acquired. In his words:

> The parent sets up a repertoire of responses in the
> child by reinforcing many instances of response. . . .
> Reinforcing consequences continue to be important
> after verbal behavior has been acquired. Their
> principal function is then to maintain the response
> in strength.[17]

Language patterns, then, are learned by analogy and imitation.

> Whenever a person speaks, he is either mimicking or
> analogizing. . . . When we hear a fairly long and
> involved utterance which is evidently not a direct
> quotation, we can be reasonably certain that analogy
> is at work.[18]

Some linguists concerned with language instruction have

adopted these views:

> The single paramount fact about language learning is
> that it concerns not problem-solving but the formation
> and performance of habits.[19]

> Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical
> process of habit formation.[20]

> There is probably no general cure for the type of
> interference that comes from clinging to intellectual
> understanding in favor of automatic responses.[21]

What people do, then, when they are using language, is think about what to say rather than how:

> We know that a "rule" of a language is the analytical statement of one of the habitual aspects of that language. We know that the habit is the reality and the rule is a mere summary of the habit.22

For the foreign language teacher the question is whether to teach rules of grammar explicitly, before or along with textual material, or whether to introduce grammatical rules as such. The behaviorists take the view that one should not (ideally) spend any time trying to present grammatical rules explicitly. Rather, new material should be presented in the stimulus/response/reinforcement sequence. Initial materials are made easy in order to enable the student to make correct responses, which would be then reinforced. For the same reason, new material is introduced slowly and in small increments. The teacher prepares manipulative materials which demand that the student go through "automatic" actions: substitution, replacement, expansion, etc. Sample sentences are presented by the teacher and are then imitated by the student. New sentences are created by analogy to the samples (this is the basis for the pattern drills). Rote memorization follows, to increase the inventory of sentences. A possible criticism is that memorization alone does not account for the fact that people who have mastered a foreign language are able to produce novel sentences. Whatever observations and generalizations are made about the grammer are learned by the students in an

indirect manner.

Under this approach, the student is very active, since learning is done through constant response and repetiton. The language laboratory serves as a useful tool because it allows for the most immediate reinforcement. Traditional-type tapes are made up mainly of two parts: first, a paragraph is read phrase-by-phrase by an announcer, repeated by the students, then read again by the announcer. Second, exercises of substitution, replacement, etc. are done in a similar fashion. Throughout, the student is constantly trying to imitate a model, as in the reading, or come up with the correct response, as in the exercises. The desired responses are always given after the student's, so that he can compare the two. The temporal spacing of the tapes is done so as to allow the student just enough time to make a response once, with no time to hesitate or change one's mind.

The habit-formation approach seems to overlook the matter of meaning. Since sentences and phrases are learned by rote, very little time is spent examining their meaning. When responses are expected to be automatic, whatever meaning is discovered does not necessarily imply understanding, i.e., a mental process. The careful attention to correct responses and the conscious attempts to avoid errors may create another problem. In isolation errors may be easily recognizable, but within a larger sequence, errors may go unnoticed, and therefore uncorrected.

<u>Language is what its native speakers say.</u>[23] The
assumption underlying this principle is that a native speaker
does not make mistakes in using his language. The grammati-
cality of an utterance is never questioned in a native
speaker's speech; it is questioned only in a learner's
performance. This has several implications for foreign
language instruction. First, in methods based on the
behaviorist theory, a model is always used for presenting
new material. The model may be the teacher himself, an
announcer on a tape or a native informant. No matter who
the model happens to be, his function is to present material
in a supposedly "authentic" fashion; the student then memorizes
the material. This is reinforced by pattern drills. The
latter are used for another purpose as well. Since only
native speakers are considered to have faultless speech, the
teacher is constantly on the lookout for errors made by the
student, because they may be the first step in creating bad
habits. Pattern drill, in this context, serves as a safeguard
against making errors.

<u>Languages are different.</u> "The sounds, constructions
and meanings of different languages are not the same."[24]
This belief of the descriptive linguists suggests that there
are no linguistic universals, and it reflects their desire to
describe each language on its own terms. They do, however,
use universal categories such as "noun" and "phoneme" to
describe all languages. The idea of the exclusiveness of

each language suggests for foreign language instruction that
one should avoid using language spoken by natives as far as
possible in order to prevent interference in the language
learning process.

> Start with a clean slate--learn to ignore the fea-
> tures of any and all other languages, especially
> one's own.[25]

The student is expected to at least ignore, if not for-
get, his 'old' set of language habits and to learn a whole
new set. Accordingly, no comparison between the two languages,
or any other languages the student knows, should be attempted.[26]
Learning materials, therefore, try to emphasize especially
those elements of the target language which are different
from the native language, without making the student aware
of the differences.

The Rationalist theory of language and language acqui-
sition disagrees with the behaviorist theory on two crucial
points: what language is and how it is acquired. These two
aspects tend to be fused into one in the literature.

> It seems to me impossible to accept the view that
> linguistic behavior is a matter of habit, that it
> is slowly acquired by reinforcement, association,
> and generalization, or that linguistic concepts
> can be specified in terms of a space of elementary
> physically defined "critical attributes."[27]

The rationalist theory makes the following observations about
language:

<u>Man is uniquely built to learn languages.</u>

> . . . all men are endowed with an innate propensity
> for a type of behavior that develops automatically
> into language and that this propensity is so deeply
> ingrained that language-like behavior develops even
> under the most unfavorable conditions of peripheral
> and even central nervous system impairment.[28]

Lenneberg describes several instances in which people over-
came serious handicaps to learn language--deaf children and
mute children being able to communicate among themselves and
with others.[29]

It has also been observed by rationalists that language
is not only universal but that all languages have certain
similarities such as having a phonological system (describable
in terms of a set of distinctive features, according to Halle
and Chomsky)[30] made up of phonemes, morphemes, etc.; the
stringing together of words into phrases and sentences ("con-
catenation," according to Lenneberg);[31] and a syntactic
structure which determines word order and grammatical rela-
tionships such as subject-verb.

Noam Chomsky, the most prominent among the proponents
of the rationalist theory of language, suggests that each
human being has the native capacity (competence) to acquire
language. This contrasts with the behaviorist view that
language is an external element of humans: "To put it
concisely, walking is an inherent, biological function of
man. Not so language."[32] Also for the behaviorist, all
people acquire language because they are subjected to

similar conditioning processes. The innate competence is
the person's unconscious knowledge of the principles of
grammar that determine the form of the acquired knowledge
of grammar in a highly organized manner.[33] This competence
is embodied in a "language acquisition device" which each
person possesses.

As a child is exposed to language, the language acts
as a trigger for the device, which can formulate hypotheses
about the structure of the language. The child tries out an
hypothesis, then modifies it if necessary. As the child
grows, the hypotheses become more and more complex. What
the child is doing is constructing his own internal grammar,
which is constantly being modified until it is similar to
that of adult language. All children go through identical
phases in the process of acquiring speech.[34] Initially they
name objects, then play around with what they have already
acquired. In all cases, language is learned within a meaning-
ful setting and context. Cultural differences, however, seem
to have no effect on the age of onset and mastery of speech.[35]

The implication for foreign language instruction is
twofold.[36] First, since language learning is a natural
activity for humans, it could be suggested that foreign
language learning should not be approached as an external
skill. It may also be suggested that since the individual
has already acquired one language (his native tongue), the
mechanism for acquiring it has already been triggered and

experimented with, therefore, it could possibly be employed
to some degree in learning a foreign language. Second, as
the child plays around and experiments with his language, so
the foreign language student should be allowed to try out and
experiment with his new language. Making errors is a natural
part of language acquisition (such as the child's form of
'breaked' for 'broke') and should be considered a part of the
experimentation; as the child corrects himself or is being
corrected, the student would probably profit from correction
(a view not acceptable to some behaviorist teachers who are
afraid that correction may reinforce erroneous patterns).
As the child acquires his native language in a meaningful
context, so should the student learn the foreign language--
with meaning playing an important role.

Language is characterized by rule-governed creativity.[37]
Each language is controlled by a finite set of rules which
eventually determine a person's linguistic performance (per-
formance being defined as "the actual use of language in
concrete situations").[38] In other words, the rationalists
would say that there are three levels in linguistic behavior.
First, there is the innate capacity for language (competence).
Second, there are two sets of rules in operation: a base system
that generates deep structures (the rewriting rules of a
phase-structure grammar), and a transformational system which
maps the deep structures into surface structures (rules of
deletion, rearrangement, adjunction, etc.).[39] Third, there .

is observable manifestation (performance). This suggests
that to know a language is to be able to create new (accept-
able) sentences in the language.

> The language provides finite means but infinite
> possibilities of expressions constrained only by
> rules of concept formation and sentence formation,
> these being in part particular and idiosyncratic
> but in part universal, a common human endowment.[40]

Creativity in language production is limited in theory only
by the above-mentioned rules, but in practice other factors
such as time pressure, inattention, or noise may affect it.

The major implication for foreign language instruction
is that learning of surface linguistic forms (performance)
is not sufficient if the learner is to be creative in the
language. He should be acquiring the mechanism of the lan-
guage (competence plus rules) to allow for such creativity.
The learner should develop three abilities:

1. The ability to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical
   sentences

2. The ability to produce and comprehend an infinite number
   of grammatical sentences

3. The ability to identify syntactically ambiguous sen-
   tences

Politzer proposes the following assumptions about
foreign language learning--that in the mature learner, the
amount of learning may be increased by an understanding of the
process of foreign language learning; that there is a definite
connection between the understanding of grammar of the native

language and the understanding of the foreign language; and
that at the initial stages of foreign language instruction
the teacher must create an understanding of concepts which
would be useful in learning the foreign language.[42]

In order to become creative in the new language, one
does not need to store a large number of ready-made sentences;
one only needs to know the rules for understanding and
creating sentences. The two kinds of rules suggested by the
rationalist theory are useful in foreign language instruction
as well. Phrase-structure rules not only describe observable
forms but also what is permissible; generative and transforma-
tional rules illustrate the connection between outwardly
different sentences and suggest the process by which new
sentences may be created. Rules are probably best learned
in conjunction with a demonstration and practice of the rules
in action. Carefully chosen examples of rules in operation
lead to the understanding of the rules (whereas presenting
new concepts in a complete dialog form may obscure their
true significance).

A living language is a language in which one can think.

We have seen that the Cartesian view . . . is that
in its normal use, human language is free from stimulus
control and does not serve a merely communicative
function, but is rather an instrument for the free
expression of thought and for appropriate response
to new situations.[43]

It [language] is thus free to serve as an instrument
of free thought and self-expression.[44]

Knowing a language means being able to think in that language. Since thinking is of both rules and words, there is a continuous learning of new concepts and thereby of new words. New words are best remembered when they are essential for expression of thought, for example, there is a latent type of vocabulary learning, as when a child learns a new word and may not use it for some time, until the right conditions are present for him to use it.

For foreign language instruction this suggests that sheer memorization does not necessarily mean knowing the material. Structure and meaning have to be linked together, since changes in grammatical structures bring about changes in meaning. Learning to think and to express thoughts in the foreign language should really be the goal of instruction. In order to reach this goal, whatever the student does must be meaningful--practice without meaning is useless.

We have seen here two opposing views on the nature of language and language acquisition, and consequently two views on how foreign languages are to be taught. The behaviorist theory suggests that linguistic behavior is an external process that does not involve any mental process but rather the formation of certain habits through the activation of stimuli, responses and reinforcements. It further suggests that language is not a rule-governed mechanism but an automatic and random one, whose accuracy is synonymous with the attested speech patterns of its native speakers. For

foreign language instruction this theory implies heavy dependence on the oral aspect of language with great emphasis placed on proper pronunciation and error-free production of language by means of imitation, analogy and rote memorization.

For the rationalists, language is a unique attribute of man, for which he has an innate capacity. Language is rule-governed and systematic and, above all, it reflects the human capacity to think and understand. This theory implies for foreign language instruction the simultaneous presentation of grammatical rules (competence) with the observable aspects of the language (performance). By virtue of being a later entrant into the area of foreign language teaching, the rationalist theory has the benefit of being able to contrast itself with the behaviorist one. Therefore the rationalist theory suggests several observations:

-- It is not enough to teach an automatic response; language instruction must lead to creative language use in new contexts.

-- Language can be learned by listening and doing, better than by listening and repeating.

-- Programmed language instruction will have limited results in language teaching.

-- The semantic system of the language has to be learned as well as the syntactic one.

-- The learning of fundamental syntactic relationships can
   not be achieved by drill alone.

-- Learning a language is not enough; it is necessary to
   learn how to use it.[45]

C H A P T E R   I I I
INDIVIDUALIZED FOREIGN
LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Basically, the individualization of foreign language
instruction has followed the same patterns as the
individualization of other academic disciplines such as
reading, history and art. Indeed, the idea of individualizing
FL instruction is so young that only a handful of books on
the subject have appeared. Most of them talk about the
need to individualize instruction but only a few go so far
as to suggest actual techniques for doing so.

There appears to be no agreed-upon definition of what
individualized instruction is. From the student's point of
view, it can mean one of three things: individual rate of
learning: the student progresses at his own pace or at a
pace decided upon by the teacher; individual mode of learning:
a student learns via a particular approach or method; and
individual content of learning material. From the instructional
point of view, individualized learning may take the shape of
programmed instruction, which means that certain materials
have been arranged in "packets" which the student tackles in
sequence, at his own pace. It may be a non-graded classroom
in which students of different levels study the same materials,
but each is working on a different level. But it most often

means independent study, in which an individual student is guided by a teacher. In more recent years the team-teaching method has been introduced, whereby several teachers and aides work with a large number of students divided into smaller groups.

Politzer, in one of the first publications concerned with individualizing foreign language instruction, suggests several reasons for the new trend:

1. It is a reaction against a curriculum that tended to neglect individual differences.

2. It is in line with present trends in learning theory which stress the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher.

3. It is favored by the "new style" of psychological research which studies treatment/aptitude interaction rather than the differential results of different treatments.

4. It is favored by a growing number of administrators.

5. New advances in technology, especially the utilization of the computer for instructional purposes, facilitate individualization.

6. It is a necessary response to the abandoning of foreign language requirements as part of general education.[46]

Gougher and Altman agree to a great extent on several guidelines which should be followed in individualizing foreign language instruction:

1. Ideally, each student should be allowed to progress at his own optimum rate.

2. The student is learning "how to learn." He is aware of methodology and techniques employed in the learning process.

3. The emphasis should be on learning for mastery.

4. Greater responsibility than in other approaches is placed on the learner.

5. Each student should help plan his own curriculum.

6. Each student should be competing with himself.

7. Students should always be aware of their learning tasks. This implies that:

   -- They know what they are expected to accomplish.

   -- They know the quality of performance expected of them.

   -- They know the conditions under which they must demonstrate what they have learned.

   -- They know the time limits.

8. Instruction is personalized.

9. Teachers should expect that failure will still occur, though less than in other approaches.

10. The teacher determines performance objectives for each level.

11. The teacher is available for consultation.

12. The teacher tries to create a positive attitude on the part of the learner.

13. The teacher acts as a catalyst for progress.

14. In the beginning levels, structure is necessary.

15. Students are tested on their achievements at given intervals, but only when they expect to be tested.

16. When evaluating a student for performance, a teacher may accept less than perfect accuracy, allowing the student to proceed, while working for increased accuracy in the future.[47, 48]

In summation,

> To believe in individualized instruction means to accept the premise that the purpose of education is not the smoothing out of differences between individuals. . . . [It] means to support the ideal that the purpose of education is to enable each individual to achieve his maximum potential as a human being.[49]

Examples of Individualized FL Instruction

In a report issued by the Committee on Curriculum Development for Individualized Foreign Language Instruction at the Conference on Individualizing Foreign Language Instruction at Stanford University in 1971, a proposal for setting up such a program was developed.[50] It suggests that much of the basic language code (this author assumes it to mean "prescribed grammar") can be learned during the first two semesters of college language courses. It also suggests that materials for such a course be developed by a team of specialists: a native speaker, a phonetician, a linguist, a psychologist, a programming expert, an expert on culture,

and professional writers (the report recognizes that this would involve substantial financial resources). The report goes on to state its underlying assumptions, namely, that listening comprehension, reading and speaking are the three skills the plan is attempting to develop; writing serves as a tool in learning. Culture is viewed as a basic ingredient permeating all materials to be used, and the materials themselves should be designed for a wide range of student abilities and interests. No specific order is assumed in which learning of skills should progress, and the role of the teacher under this plan is minimized since the instructional materials are viewed as basically self-instructional.

The most obvious factor affecting student differences is rate of learning. Therefore, the report suggests that materials used should include a feature of step-increment, i.e., that they be of an ascending order of complexity in regard to grammatical rules, spelling, sentence structure, etc. In addition, every step should be supported by a sufficient number of similar materials to allow the slowest student to find adequate opportunity to practice. The student should be guided to make his responses with a minimum of error (programming here does not mean a linear sequence, but rather a carefully planned arrangement and sequencing of materials). The materials are to be developed in such a way that they lend themselves to self correction by the students. Testing is to be done at frequent and regular

intervals, and it is suggested that the tests, or as much of them as possible, be of the self-correcting type.

The report further suggests that materials should be made available in both auditory and graphic forms; that at the beginning of the course auditory discrimination should be taught through a sequence of conditioning and/or learning experiences, and that materials should be continuously available. Grammar is to be presented by contrasting elements of the target language with elements of English; exercises and tests should be used extensively for the purpose of habit-forming and automatic recognition of elements of the language.

A teacher of an introductory foreign language course at the university has discovered after the first semester that not only did his students have a variety of capabilities and learning rates, but that this discovery, when made by the students themselves, led to self-doubt on the part of the slower ones and to laziness on the part of the faster ones.[51] What this teacher decided to do was to individualize his teaching. First, he set up certain hours during the week at which he would be available for conferences and testing. The students work independently (though all with the same textbook). The teacher makes available to them additional exercises which he draws out of other textbooks. The students proceed at their individual paces, but all are expected to complete the same amount of material. When a

student feels that he has learned a chapter, he takes a test on that chapter. If he passes, he is allowed to continue with the next chapter. There are no meetings of the entire class and the teacher does not have any idea whether students study in groups or individually.

There are several other examples of individualization along the same lines as the two programs described in this chapter. Most of these tend to abandon the traditional setup of students facing a teacher, and most are flexible about rate of learning. A few programs, like the one outlined by the Stanford report, try to have available a variety of materials. But despite the fact that greater flexibility than ever before is being advocated, it is manifested only within certain aspects of the learning environment. For instance, materials are proposed in the Stanford plan which would be of many kinds, but there is no explicit mention of the possibility of using a variety of language teaching methods. Neither does there seem to be a great deal of flexibility regarding goals ("learning for mastery" is listed as one of the aims of the Stanford plan). Regular, conventional testing is suggested by both the Stanford plan and the example described, and it is to be done systematically--again not a very flexible approach. In all, both plans are on the right track toward greater individualization and flexibility, but more can and should be done, in the author's opinion.

CHAPTER IV

THE OPEN CLASSROOM

This paper has discussed approaches to foreign
language instruction that were designed and developed
specifically and exclusively for this purpose. The theories
and assumptions underlying these approaches are the direct
outgrowth of theories about language and language learning.
As such, the behaviorist and the rationalist approaches deal
mostly with the content of a course. Individualized ap-
proaches try to incorporate into their framework the recog-
nition of individual differences among learners; but in
practice, they too deal mostly with content. The model de-
veloped in this paper has as its primary rationale an educa-
tion theory--that of open education. As such, it considers
first of all the learning environment; specific details and
methods of foreign language learning are of secondary impor-
tance (but are paramount as they apply to each student). It
is therefore fitting, at this point, to look at what open
education (variously called "Open Classroom," "Open Plan,"
"Integrated Day" and "Informal Education") is like.

Open education is an approach to teaching which
discards the traditional classroom setup and the traditional
roles of teacher and students.[52] Instead, it favors a more
informal and more individualized student-centered learning

and teaching.[53] It assumes that learning is much more
effective if it grows out of the interests of the learner
and that the teacher's role is that of a facilitator of
learning. This mode of teaching and learning has thus far
been introduced mainly in the elementary school because it
is based on assumptions about children's development and
because this phase of education lends itself most readily
to improvisation and flexibility. An overview of this
approach to teaching is provided by Hassett and Weinberg:

> It [open education] capitalizes on each child's
> natural curiosity and desire to learn about the
> things that interest him by providing, or
> allowing the children to provide, or by a combina-
> tion of both, a multitude of materials and learning
> experiences. In this way each child can find,
> whether alone or in a group activity, what interests
> and challenges him at his present stage of develop-
> ment. . . . It encourages the child toward inventive
> activity with whatever interests him at his own
> level of development. [All subjects] are learned
> as instruments that enable one to attain an objec-
> tive or goal. The teacher must exercise his
> ingenuity in setting up these situations and in
> preparing the various materials to be integrated. . . .
> The student, generally speaking, learns not by sub-
> ject matter, but by working on projects that bring
> into play a number of different "school subjects."
> The teacher's judgement determines which approach
> is called for at a given time with a given class
> [or individual].[54]

The key for understanding what is happening in the
classroom which operates in this fashion is the great amount
of diversity and flexibility on the part of both the teacher
and the students. The underlying attitude is that of respect
toward and valuing of children. Open education's proponents

view the learning process as individual in rate and style, social (as it is enhanced by sharing with others), continuous within the total life environment and most significant when self-initiated and self-directed.[55] Or, as Featherstone put it:

> Freeing children is part of the point, encouraging them to make significant choices is desirable because often the choices reflect their needs, and in any case, that is how they learn to develop initiative and think for themselves.[56]

Most of the characteristics of open education have been discussed in a study conducted by Herbert J. Walberg and Susan Christie Thomas for the Education Development Center, in 1971, and this chapter is based, to a great extent, on their findings.[57] Unlike the TDR report just mentioned, this author has decided to divide the realm of the open classroom (and any classroom could be described in similar terms) into the following five distinct categories (there may be some overlap):

    I.   The physical aspect of the classroom

    II.   The role of the teacher

    III.   The role of the students

    IV.   Materials

    V.   Procedures for recording and evaluating

The following description of the open classroom is derived from the TDR report, but is revised to fit these categories, as is the model in the following chapter.

I. The physical aspect of the classroom

In the open classroom, unlike in the traditional classroom, formal class lessons are not conducted, neither do students have their own individually assigned desks. Spatial arrangements are flexible, as space is divided into various activity areas for a variety of potential use and allowing for a variety of ability levels. The different areas are attractive and inviting. Time, in this arrangement is treated differently too. There are very few fixed time periods because the belief is that providing for sustained involvement requires a flexible and individualized organization of time. Students move freely from one area to another, at their own will and their own timing. Talking among students is encouraged. In all, the climate of this kind of classroom is unthreatening (that is due only in part to the flexibility in spatial and temporal arrangements; other reasons, however, will be discussed in the following categories).

II. The role of the teacher

The teacher using the open classroom approach to teaching views himself as an active experimenter in the process of creating and adapting ideas and materials; he sees himself as a continual learner who explores new ideas and possibilities both inside and outside the classroom; but above all, the teacher values open education as an opportunity for his own personal and professional growth, as well as for the development of his students. In his relation-

ship with the students, the teacher promotes trust and openness among the students as well as an attitude of trust on his part toward each of the students. Underlying the free flow of emotion and respect between teacher and students is not the principle of laissez faire, as some may think-- there is no abdication of authority and responsibility on the part of the teacher. However, the teacher respects each student's personal style of operating, thinking and executing, his ideas and suggestions and individuality (by not accepting ability grouping, group norms and homogenization). The teacher takes student feelings seriously. He trusts students' ability to operate effectively and learn in a complex frame- work. The teacher feels comfortable with students' taking the initiative in learning, making choices and being independent of him. He encourages students' independence and exercise of real choice. When he feels unable to give the student the help he needs, the teacher admits his limitations and seeks with the student a way to solve that problem. Moreover, the teacher recognizes and does not hide his own emotional responses. When necessary and when it is available, the teacher makes use of help from someone who acts in a supportive advisory capacity, viewing himself as only one of many sources of knowledge and attention possible in the classroom.

In planning instruction, the teacher does so individually (for each student) and pragmatically, based upon reflective evaluation of each student's particular needs and interests.

He keeps in mind long-term goals which affect his guidance
and extension of a student's involvement in his chosen ac-
tivity. The teacher tends to give individual students con-
centrated amounts of his time; he becomes actively involved
in the work of each student. This involvement is not re-
stricted to immediate situations; the teacher becomes involved
with the student diagnostically before suggesting any change,
extension or redirection of activity. While evaluating or
observing a student's work, the teacher refrains from dis-
couraging correction or from making judgmental statements--
he rarely commands or reprimands, and this refers to academic
work as well as behavior. In spite of the fact that activi-
ties do not arise from predetermined curricula and that no
fixed pattern of instruction is followed, the teacher provides
direct instruction and assignment to individual students when
needed. Instead of giving assignments, the teacher extends
the possibilities of activities that students have chosen,
through individual conversation and introduction to related
materials.

Although individualism in instruction and activity is
the hallmark of the open classroom approach, the class does
operate within clear and well-defined guidelines, made
explicit by the teacher. The teacher is part of the learning
process, not just an authority-figure. When conflict arises,
either between the teacher and a student or among students,
it is recognized and worked out within the context of the

group, not simply forbidden or handled by the teacher alone.
The teacher is an initiator, facilitator and evaluator of
learning, but not exclusively so and not by himself--the stu-
dents are as much a part of the learning process as he is,
and they are the focal point, not he.

III. The role of the student

There are several assumptions underlying the student's
role in the open classroom. Those made by the TDR report
refer specifically to young children, but the author sees
them as applicable to students of all ages as well. The
first assumption is that knowledge is the personal synthesis
of one's own experience, and learning of "skills" and
"subjects" proceeds along many intersecting paths simul-
taneously. Individual students often learn in unpredictable
ways, at their own rate, and according to their own style.
Further, work and play are not distinguishable in the
learning process of children; to a lesser extent, the same
holds true for adult students. The student's innate
curiosity forms the basis of his learning; he should be able
to continue to pursue his interests as deeply and as long as
he finds the pursuit satisfying. Another assumption regard-
ing the learning process is that students are capable of mak-
ing intelligent decisions in significant areas of their own
learning. An accepting and warm emotional climate is an es-
sential element in students' learning; learning is facilitated
by relationships of openness, trust and mutual respect, and
it depends upon direct interaction with materials and one's

social and physical environment. The final assumption is
that students have the right to direct their own learning
and to make important decisions regarding their own educa-
tional experience. Upon consistent, reasonable and explicit
restrictions, students are able to be more free and productive.

In the classroom itself, the above-mentioned assumptions
take on the following form of approach to learning which is
interdisciplinary, i.e., the student does not generally
confine himself to a single subject or area of learning. The
class is heterogeneous with regard to age and ability, and
there is an overall sense of community of mutual respect and
cooperation. Students usually work individually or in small
groups; they usually group and re-group themselves through
their own choices. Students help each other when necessary,
and talking among them is encouraged. Determination of each
student's routine is largely the student's own choice, but
he must, though he is not always overtly made aware of it,
take into consideration other students' activities. Since
it is believed that competition does not contribute effectively
to learning, cooperation among students is natural and un-
hindered.

IV. Materials

The underlying assumption in setting out to equip the
open classroom is that there is no set body of knowledge
which must be transmitted to everyone. As students are
treated as individual learners, the materials which they are

going to use should reflect a diversity of interests and approaches. Manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range with little replication; i.e., not class sets. They are made readily accessible to students, and students work directly with them. The teacher constantly modifies the content and arrangement of the classroom and the materials based upon continuing diagnosis and reflective evaluation of the students and their interests and progress. He seeks information about new materials, and he himself experiments with materials. Books and other materials brought in or developed by the teacher and by the students. Above all, the teacher permits and encourages constructive unplanned use of the materials.

V. Procedures for recording and evaluating

It is believed that fear of making mistakes or of not doing well impedes progress in learning, and that measures of performance may have a negative effect on learning and do not necessarily evaluate those qualities of learning which are most important. Therefore, two principles underly the evaluative procedure in the open classroom. First, errors are seen as desirable, a necessary part of the learning process, because they provide information valuable to further learning. And second, sensitive observation over a long period of time is the preferable means of evaluation of a student's school experience covers a long range of time; the teacher preferably works with each student for more than one year. He uses evaluation to provide information he will use

in seeking better ways of encouraging the students and providing for further experiences.

To obtain diagnostic information, the teacher takes an involved interest in what the student is doing, and the diagnosis is based upon attention to the student's thought processes more than to his solutions. Evidence of learning is assessed through direct observation of what the student does and says and produces; because of this individual nature of evaluation, predetermined yardsticks of performance are not used in evaluating students' work, and the teacher avoids using standardized and traditional testing procedures.

Imagination is valued in the open classroom as another way of knowing about the student. It is also a quality the student may use for learning. Oral performance of the student in the classroom figures in the evaluation of his work, as do the other aspects just mentioned.

The teacher's record-keeping consists of individual histories chronicling the student's progress. The teacher collects each student's work and makes use of it as the appropriate measure for his evaluation. Students do not always depend on teacher judgement; they also diagnose their own progress using the materials they are working with.

In summary:

The function of school is to help children [students] learn to learn, to acquire both the ability and the willingness to extend their intellectual and emotional resources and bring them to bear in making decisions, organizing experience and utilizing knowledge. . . . Objectives of education should

go beyond literacy, dissemination of knowledge
and concept acquisitions.58

Since this mode of education has been chosen as the basis

for the model of this thesis, it is quite clear that more

has been found in it of value than not. This does not

necessarily mean that there are no potential flaws in this

arrangement. But it is felt that a critical evaluation of

open education should be done after the practical application

of its principles has been described. Therefore, an examina-

tion of some possible shortcomings of open education is given

in the next chapter, following the model.

CHAPTER V

A MODEL OF FL INSTRUCTION

USING THE OPEN CLASSROOM APPROACH

The model contained in this chapter, as the title
suggests, belongs to the group of individualized approaches
to teaching, but it goes beyond them in terms of the relation-
ship between teacher, student, material and method, flexibility,
and the recognition of the individuality of each student.
As Nyquist points out,

> For almost all their time, however, the children
> [students] engage in activities individually or in
> small groups, as impelled by their spontaneous
> interests and as inspired or persuaded by the
> teacher. . . . The teacher plays a key role by
> knowing each child thoroughly and guiding his or
> her development as a unique and complex individual. . . .
> Such as classroom actually operates according to
> principles long honored by American educators, albeit
> more in the breach than in the observance. This is
> a classroom where freedom, responsibility, self-
> discipline, and consideration for others are
> learned by having to be practiced all the time.
> This is a classroom that accommodates the full
> range of individual differences, where individuality
> can be richly prized and given full expression.[59]

The proposed model is based on several assumptions
regarding individualization, and its framework is that of
the open classroom approach. Thus it could probably be
categorized as a flexible-individualized approach. Its
flexibility lies not only in the variety of teaching methods
that can be employed, the relationship between student and
teacher, and the unconventional arrangement of the classroom,

but also in the relationships among students, the freedom of choice it allows, and the evaluative procedures it uses.

The four principles cited as underlying open education (see p. 37) apply with only a slight modification to the environment created by this model in the college foreign language class. These four principles are: first, learning is individual in rate and style; second, the learning process is social (it is enhanced by sharing with others); third, learning is continuous within the total life environment. (Total life environment does not mean, as is the case with young children, school, home and street, but rather the student's academic life, i.e., the relationship to other subjects he is studying and the application of principles to life situations.) Fourth, learning is most significant when self-initiated and self-directed.

The details of the features of the open classroom apply, without exception, to the environment this model is attempting to create. This chapter, however, tries to suggest ways by which these features can be implemented in a college program of foreign language instruction. The model is developed around the following categories:

1. The physical aspects of the classroom

2. The role of the teacher

3. The role of the students

4. Materials

5. Procedures for recording and evaluating

Following the detailed description of these categories, are
conclusions, a comparison to other individualized approaches
and an examination of possible areas of difficulty in its
application.

Physical Aspects of the Classroom

Entering an open classroom, for the unprepared, may be
a shocking experience. The initial impression is of total
chaos—students moving constantly about the room, the
teacher is hopping around, and the noise level may reach
unexpected heights. But all of this is an illusion; there is
order inside the disorder, and there is serious study being
done despite the noise.

There are as many possible varieties of classroom
layouts as there are teachers. Presented in this model are
four possibilities. They all share some common features:
all are attempts to get away from the traditional frontal
arrangement in which there is nothing in the room but student
desks facing a blackboard and a teacher's desk. Studies have
been conducted of the level of attention of students within
a traditional classroom setting:

> . . . [researchers] seem to agree on the fact that
> classroom space can be divided into zones containing
> people who behave differently, but whether zones
> are selected by those people in the first place or
> affect them afterwards, or some combination of the
> two, remained unclear.[60]

Sommer, in his book on personal space, points out that spatial freedom is one factor in allowing the students to create such an arrangement that would alleviate some of the problems found in the conventional classroom, lack of attention in certain areas of the room, for example.

In an interview on the current arrangement of most university classrooms, Professor Agasi of Boston University stated,

> A lecturer [professor] should be a guide, a know-ledgable person who shares his assets with the students rather than lectures at them. . . . The frontal lecturing approach is dated--and was in vogue 800 years ago; But, teaching this way is necessary as long as there are those who are willing to accept it. . . . It is fitting [necessary] that there be more libraries and laboratories in all areas and disciplines. Because in a laboratory actual situations are being tested, components are analyzed, people learn from mistakes and conclusions are drawn.[61]

He refers not to the natural sciences, for which laboratories are a common provision, but rather to the social sciences which tend to be book-oriented and sheltered from the test of their teachings in real-life situations. I suggest that the model in this paper is at least a step toward moving instruction from the conventional classroom into the laboratory situation in its broadest sense.

The suggested size of the class is about 15 students per teacher (this may vary from teacher to teacher, and is based here on personal experience). If teaching assistants or aides are available, the number of students may be

increased; the ultimate number should depend on the dimensions of the room, so that free movement between centers is not blocked and the teacher is comfortable in overlooking the situation.

The first arrangement proposed (Figure 5) is really a transition from the frontal setting to the open setting (for hesitant teachers or supervisors). Student desks and chairs are placed in the center of the room so that "commuting" to any part of the room is relatively simple. It should be noted that there is no indication in these plans as to the direction in which the students face. They may all be facing the teacher at some point and they may break into small groups at another point, or they may form a circle or some other arrangement.

The teacher and the blackboard are relatively close together. This does not exclude the students from using the board. As a matter of fact it is probably beneficial to have several blackboards located around the room.

This model does away with the traditional language laboratory. Instead, audio-visual aids are an integral part of the classroom. The visual aids center holds such items as projectors, screens, slides, transparencies, charts, etc. It is to be used by the teacher for presentations and by the students. The audio center contains tape-recorders and tapes, record-players and records. It can be arranged in one of two ways: As a storage area from which equipment and

bookshelves

blackboard

teacher

student desks

Figure 5
Open Classroom I

audio
corner

bookshelves

visual aids

bookshelves

materials are borrowed and used in the desks area, and as a self-contained unit with individual listening booths, much like the old language laboratory.

The bookshelves hold a variety of materials: textbooks of all varieties, readers of different levels, newspapers and magazines. These can be arranged by level of difficulty, by category (books separately, newspapers separately, etc.), or by topic.

The programmed materials center includes: a copy of each of the texts available on the bookshelves, with all of the exercises solved; supplementary exercises, arranged by topic and prepared in advance by the teacher. There should be enough copies of each exercise for all of the students. There should also be additional informative material prepared by the teacher. "Prepared" does not necessarily imply that the teacher makes up all of the material, but rather that he finds it and makes it available to the students.

The record-keeping center is for use by both teacher and students. It contains individual slots (or drawers) with one assigned to each student. The student places in it his planned work for the day, if that is part of the program, a record of his activities during his stay, and any material that should be seen by the teacher. This, too, can be either required or voluntarily submitted material. The teacher places in each section the corrected work of this student, evaluation of his work and any other written communications.

The student may keep a folder in his section with his accumulated work and records, if such is the arrangement.

This mode of record-keeping and evaluation procedure is quite different from the traditional one in which the teacher alone has responsibility for both: he not only checks regularly on each student's work but he is the final authority in determining how much information is needed for evaluating all of the students' work. The student's responsibility is to provide the teacher with proof of his achievement by being present at "checking time," which is usually done uniformly for all in the final evaluations and grades.

Under the proposed plan it seems that the student may actually be encouraged to supply his teacher with as much information as possible not only on his progress, but also on areas of difficulty he encounters and on thoughts he has about the learning process itself.

The other classroom plans included here vary mainly in their arrangement but not in their content. In the second plan (Figure 6), students work in groups of four. This does not exclude individual work or larger group gatherings. In the third plan (Figure 7), the teacher is located at the center of the room, with the record-keeping unit next to him. Student desks are scattered around the room and they are not permanently assigned. They are occupied by the students using the center nearby. Space is provided for a lounge area in which students may gather for a discussion, or just relax with a book.

bookshelves

keeping

teacher

54
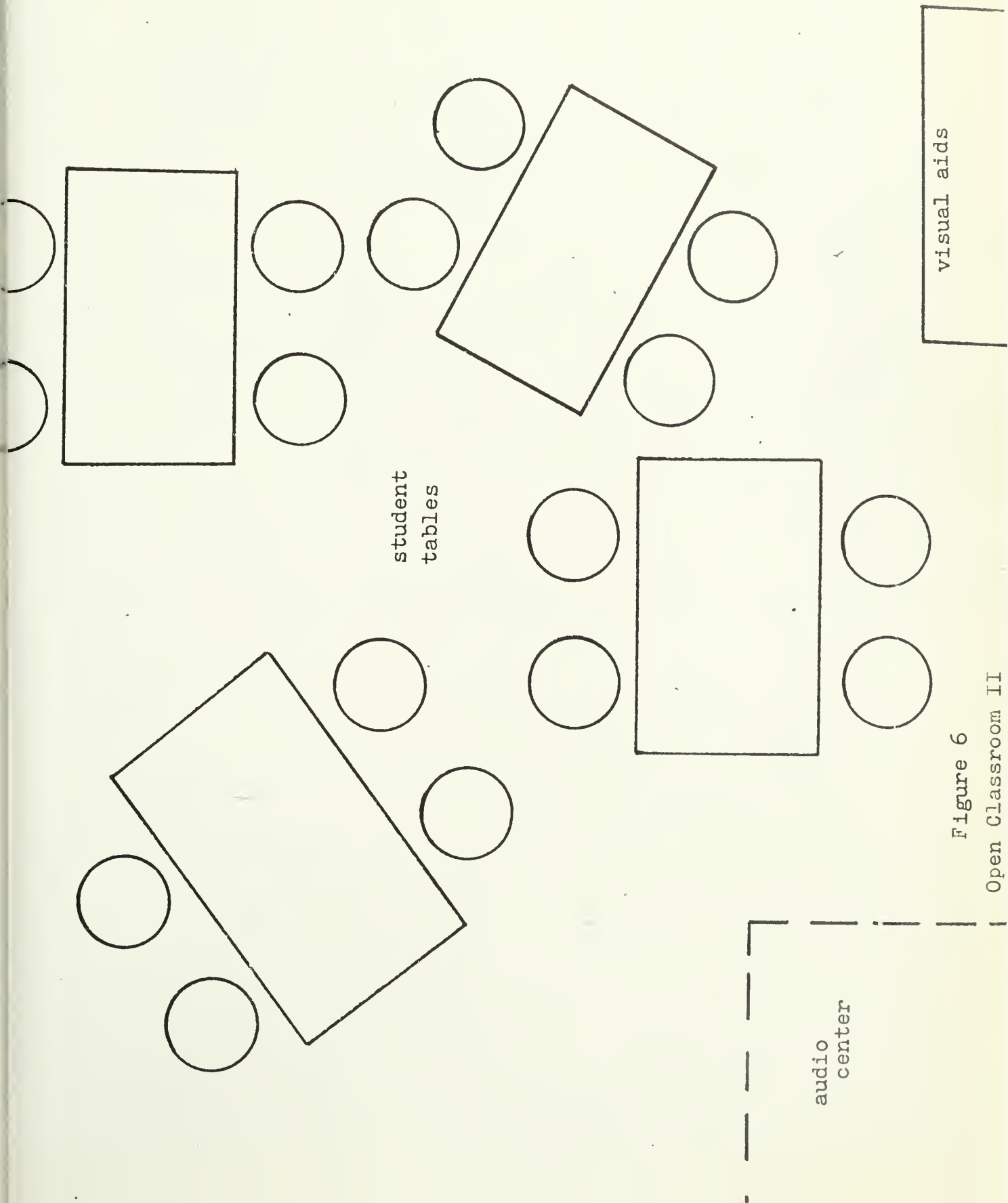
visual aids

student
tables

audio
center

Figure 6

Open Classroom II

visual
aids

programme
materials

lounge
area

Figure 7
Open Classroom III

teacher

record-
keeping

empty space for skits, etc.

audio center

bookshelves

video center

recording

teacher
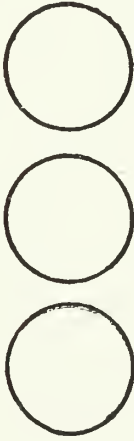
(movable partition)

programmed materials

56

Figure 8

Open Classroom IV

lounge area

(movable partition)

audio center

library

bookshelves

There is also some space provided for performances such as role-playing or demonstrations of cultural aspects of the study. The specific arrangement of this area depends on the resources available, but it could remain just an open space.

The final plan (Figure 8) is a bit more elaborate than the previous ones in that the room is divided by movable partitions so that work can be done in from one to six areas at a time. The lounge area here serves the same function as did the lounge and the performance area in the previous plan.

Teachers wishing to experiment with various classroom arrangements (the four plans given here by no means exhaust the possibilities) can follow the practice used by interior decorators in planning a room: cut out paper forms representing the various objects in the room and rearrange them until a satisfactory arrangement has been achieved. "Satisfactory" in this context refers to teacher and student, as well as the ease with which materials and equipment can be reached and used. One should not expect that the first arrangement tested will be the most successful one, but there is certainly room for experimentation and change.

If the time allocated to a course is an administrative decision, that is what is going to be used. For example, if a three-credit course requires four one-hour class meetings a week, then four hours per week is what is required from students in this model. The word "required" suggests that the classroom should be open for longer periods of time

so that students may use it at their wish, beyond the required number of hours. What should eventually develop is that people of different courses (i.e., 110, 120, 130, etc.) would be using the room simultaneously. Initially, one would assume that a group of students belonging to the same course would be using the room at one particular time. If such is the case, then the room should be open for several hours during the week when no particular group is scheduled to use it.

For the convenience of the teacher it is suggested that he may want to relocate his office to be part of the classroom, making his area into a "center," so that he is available for as much of the time as possible. This, however, is impossible if more than one teacher is using the classroom.

No specific amount of time is allocated to a particular activity, nor is there an attempt to specify the length of time each student should spend to master a particular body of material. The pace and the sequence of learning are left entirely up to each student.

The following list of equipment to be located in the classroom cannot be complete, as new gadgetry becomes available constantly and financial and physical resources dictate the quantity as well as the quality of the equipment. There is no limit to how much can be put into use. It is suggested that the room be equipped with a duplicating machine on which the teacher and students can copy exercises and other supplementary materials, several typewriters for

use by both teacher and students, tape-recorders in sound-
proof booths or with individual earphones, at least one
record-player, one overhead projector, a slide projector,
screens, at least one blackboard (portable if possible), and
some office equipment such as scissors, staplers, etc.

The room should be as comfortable and attractive as
possible (similar to study lounges in a library). This does
not mean that the room must be carpeted and curtained, but
if possible, this should be done--it addes to the informality
of the setting and to the students' and teacher's feeling of
well-being.

The role of the teacher

Creativity in teaching and commitment to teaching are
the keys to the teacher's role in any classroom. The teacher
also has the role of manipulator of the teaching environment
and the material. In this plan he assumes, in addition, the
role of motivator of students, who then take over much of the
responsibility for managing and directing their own learning
--something which is not usually present in the conventional
classroom.

There are three requirements made of the teacher who
is going to teach in the open classroom, before he ever meets
the students. First, he must create a new environment
conducive to individualization. Most students are the
"products" of the traditional system and have never been

taught foreign languages on an individual basis. Probably most of them have never had a say regarding what or how they are going to learn. Their initial impressions of the open classroom will influence their motivation in using it. Also, it should be remembered that most of the other courses they are taking are being taught traditionally. Second, the teacher must make allowances for a gradual adjustment to the new environment. Third, he must accept the changing role of the foreign language teacher under this system. He must be content with what he is going to do.

Once the program has started, the first thing the teacher should do is get to know the students as individuals ——both in terms of their capabilities as students and their personal tastes, temperaments, etc. This is crucial, since the teacher will be continuously trying to tailor learning materials and activities to each student. Materials prepared in advance may prove to be of no use once he gets to know his students.

Although we are dealing here with supposedly mature students, they are usually people who have been students for most of their lives; so they are still looking to the teacher for leadership and guidance. In that context, the teacher assumes the responsibility for managing time. This does not mean that he prescribes particular times for certain activities, nor does it mean that he is trying to rush or slow students. What it does mean is that the teacher is

constantly aware of what each student is accomplishing, and in consultation with each student tries to make the student aware of his own pacing. The managing of time related also to observing students who seem to be dragging their feet at one place and to motivating them to move on.

Beyond the management of time, the teacher has the responsibility of planning with individual students their course of study—if the student so desires or if this is one of the aspects of the program. The teacher initiates activities and learning processes when and where it is required, and he is the one responsible for evaluating materials available to the students and work done by the students. He introduces the students to new materials and methods, and keeps track of materials being used and not being used and tries to find the reasons for both. The teacher is the one responsible for the creation of the atmosphere of mutual trust which is a basic tenet of this program, and he should continuously search for ways to complement the learning done by the students. He provides counseling and diagnosis of difficult areas and continuously assesses the program as a whole.

Foremost among the teacher's roles is that of supplier of learning materials—he should be able not only to find and make available materials created by someone else, but should be able, upon diagnosing a problem area, to supply the students with at least temporary and immediate help. This may take the form of a short exercise dealing with a

specific grammatical point, a set of sentences illustrating vocabulary usage, etc. And in addition to all that has been said about the teacher thus far, he should possess two qualities which have nothing to do with his professional credentials: he should be patient and energetic.

The role of the student

The role of the student in the open classroom is to learn and to learn how to learn. On the college level there is reason to believe that some of the students have a fair idea of how they study best or what sort of things interest them. The guidance function of the teacher is to help them formulate these ideas if they haven't already done so, or to clarify them if they are confused. In this context, the students must inform the teacher of several things: of their activities within the classroom and those outside which bear on their language learning; of any difficulties they may have and any request for additional resources and materials; of their achievements, interests and feelings concerning the whole learning environment or specific portions of it.

As has been seen in the discussion of the student's role in open education on the elementary level, his role may be described as passive in his use of the environment, but the initiation of activities and the direction of study is mostly the responsibility of the teacher. On the college

level, however, a student may be expected to play a more active role in planning and making his wishes known to others and to the teacher. Beyond this, however, as was discussed, the student assumes the responsibility of supplying the teacher with as much information about his work and progress (and difficulties) as he sees fit (or as is agreed by him and the teacher). The student is an active participant in the evaluation and record-keeping aspect of his learning.

Materials

In the discussion of the various teaching methods of foreign languages it has been shown that different methods are based on different assumptions about what should constitute the core of materials learned, whether it be grammar, a vocabulary of 850 words, basic conversational patterns or reading. One of the premises of this model is that different students study foreign languages for different reasons, and the open classroom affords each the opportunity to pursue his own interests in his own way. Therefore, materials used in the open classroom are not limited to any particular kind or mode of presentation. The bookshelves are stocked with grammars representing various approaches and presentations: readers covering diverse areas of interest from travel to history, religion or fairy-tales; newspapers in all degrees of difficulty and of different philosophical, political and cultural persuasions; and magazines of all kinds, for women, sports fans, or for the romanticists. All of these materials

are available to buy, of course, but most are obtainable by request from the publisher, through the library (which discards old issues unless someone requests them), and from foreign embassies. The students themselves sometimes come up with their own ingenious ways of obtaining such materials.

In the audio center one finds tapes for all primary textbooks available on the bookshelves. Some books come with ready-made tapes, professionally recorded and derived directly from material in the books. The most interesting tapes, from the students' point of view, are those made by the teacher. Tapes are a good vehicle for giving dictations, for instance, and these do not necessarily have to be based on specific materials--they may be used for ear training using completely unfamiliar vocabularies. Tapes also are available of songs, poetry reading and humor. All should be clearly identified and, if possible, a short evaluation of the level of each tape should be provided. Records, in this area, are of the same type as the tapes.

In visual-aids one finds maps, grammatical charts (these are of the greatest use if they are hung around the room--they help create the right mood and they are constantly visible), slides, and transparencies. The latter provide one of the best on-the-spot tools of explanation, and unlike the blackboard, they provide a permanent record. There are frames available for these, and they can be filed for future reference.

For special occasions such as a play or a cooking demonstration, materials are brought in. Office supplies such as duplication paper is kept in good supply.

Another suggestion for utilization of materials draws upon the students' other interests (as suggested in the introduction to this model). If materials are tailor-made for the needs of each student, they should not only take into account his competence in the language at a given point, but be arranged so that their content, and maybe even their form, reflect the students' particular interests such as science, history, music, etc.

Procedures of recording and evaluating

As the heading of this section suggests, there are two distinct processes discussed here. Recording involves the documentation of activities by students in terms of number, variety and content. For this procedure, the student himself is responsible. The teacher merely makes sure that the student supplies him with enough data. There are basically three ways in which activities can be recorded. The first is the anecdotal record. This is a written (or recorded, if one wants to really impress the teacher) statement of what the student has done during a given period of time. It may include, besides the obvious listing of activities such as "Smith, L. Beginning Turkish, chapter one, text and exercises," the student's observations regarding

his comprehension of the material, reasons for choosing it and ideas for pursuing the topic. Although this mode of recording may seem rather lengthy, it provides an invaluable insight into the individual's activities as a student.

The second mode of recording is the 'geographical' record. This is a map describing the student's movements in the room during a particular period. Figure 9 describes where one student has been during an hour: He started by studying at a desk (1) then visited the visual-aids corner (2) from which he proceeded to the lounge area (3). After spending some time there, he visited the programmed materials center (4), had a conference with the teacher (5), and ended the period by returning to the visual-aids corner (6).

The activities record is a list of possible activities drawn up by the teacher. After each period each student records on a list the activities he has engaged in during that time (Figure 10).

A more detailed variety of this mode of recording is concerned with the specific information the student has been working on. For example:

Alphabet:

vowels _____

consonants _____

printed letters _____

Cursive writing _____

Figure 9

Recording Student Activities

audio center

visual aids

programmed materials

X 6

X 2

X 4

X 3

X 1

teacher
X 5

record-
keeping

lounge
area

empty space for skits, etc.

bookshelves

Student: J. Morris
Date: September 5
Time: 1 Hour

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Grammar:

Verbs: _____

    simple past tense _____

    present tense _____

    future tense _____

    roots _____ _____ _____ _____

Sentence structure:

    transforming statements into questions _____

    negating _____

    correct word order _____

    All three modes of recording are supplemented by written work done by the student and deposited in his slot in the record-keeping corner. In all cases, the student has the responsibility of supplying the teacher with as much information as possible regarding his activities and progress.

    Evaluation, too, may be of several forms. There is, of course, the traditional testing procedure. Tests can be written or oral and are taken when agreed to by both student and teacher. Customarily, a student is tested when he feels he has learned a well-defined body of material. The problem with tests is that they are normally followed by grades, and the latter may cause difficulty if the teacher is not careful to evaluate each student on his own merit and not compare him to others.

Activities Record

Name _____ Date _____

       Length of time _____

Bookshelves:

	Title	Author	Pages	Done Exercises (yes/no)
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Audio Center:

Tape No. _____; _____; _____;

Record _____

Visual-aids Center:

Slides _____ _____ _____ _____

Charts _____; _____;

Transparencies ____; _____; _____; _____;

Programmed materials center:

Exercises ____; _____; _____; _____;

Student-created materials:

      _____

      _____

      _____

Other activities:

      _____

      _____

Figure 10

Evaluation can also be done by having the student do special projects which demonstrate his acquisition and mastery of material. These can include short compositions, oral presentations, book reports, translations, etc. Individual contracts (Figure 11--a contract used in a traditional classroom setup) are one way of doing an evaluation based on the two most important principles: the student should be aware of the procedures used to evaluate his work, and any evaluation should be subject to discussion between student and teacher.

C O N T R A C T

INSTRUCTIONS:

Read the entire contract before making up your mind. Once you have decided what you want to do, place a check mark in the space next to the grade of your choice and sign your name clearly at the end of the contract.

FOR A GRADE OF 'D' __

    1. Regular class attendance
    2. Participation in class
    3. Do all homework assignments

FOR A GRADE OF 'C' __

    1. Regular class attendance
    2. Participation in class
    3. Do all homework assignments and receive more +'s than ✓'s.
    4. Receive a passing grade (+ or ✓) on all quizzes.

FOR A GRADE OF 'B' __

    1. Regular class attendance
    2. Participation in class
    3. Do all homework assignments and receive more +'s than ✓'s.
    4. Receive a passing grade (+ or ✓) on all quizzes
    5. Do a term project (individual)

FOR A GRADE OF 'A' __

    1. Regular class attendance
    2. Participation in class
    3. Do all homework assignments and receive more +'s than ✓'s.
    4. Receive a passing grade (+ or ✓) on all quizzes
    5. Do a term project (individual)
    6. Do one newspaper translation

AB, BC, and CD are grades reserved for the following:

    1. When the quality of the work done is less than satisfactory--more ✓'s than +'s
    2. When any one of the requirements has been done only partially

Failure to fulfill the requirements set for your chosen grade releases me from having to give you that grade. You will then be graded according to my judgement.

Figure 11

Conclusion

The model just discussed was intentionally designed in as general a manner as possible without omitting any of the fundamental features. This has been done for two reasons. First, using any specific language as an example here would unintentionally create in the mind of the teacher the association of the model with the particular language and would make it difficult to transfer features of the model to teaching other languages. Second, the basic premise of this model is the flexibility it allows the teacher in implementing his own program. Making provisions too specific would, therefore, be a contradiction.

The model has been developed so that existing resources of manpower and equipment need only minimal additions. It is an open-ended proposition, though, because there is no limit to how much expansion, improvement and experimentation can be carried out by each teacher and each program.

It is probably good to stop for a moment and reflect on the differences between the proposed model and other individualized programs. The physical layout is obviously the most prominent difference--students are working in a classroom. but the arrangement is such that individuality is enhanced by the presence of others in the same room. The other programs assumed static location of students, that is, a student, no matter whether he is working individually or in a group, is assumed to study at one place all of the time.

Here there is free movement of students from one activity
center to another. Other differences are:

-- This model allows student choice not only of the pace
   at which he is learning, but also the choice of materials,
   methods, timing and activities. Other individualized
   programs tend to be flexible in one aspect and rigid in
   others.

-- In other programs individualization meant separation--of
   students, of materials and of methods. Here there is
   allowance for almost an infinite number of arrangements
   and unlimited ways in which each student can use the
   various materials and the different methods.

-- Other individual programs stress the fact that in the
   beginning of a language course structure is needed, and
   the structure is the same for all students. This model
   assumes no presupposed structures, demands or expectations;
   once the teacher has met each student, he plans the
   structure for this student's course of learning, and sets,
   together with the student, the goals, demands and
   expectations appropriate for him.

-- In other plans there are "levels" and "goals" in terms
   of what is expected of all students. In this model no
   attempt is made to measure levels or to set common goals
   for all students, beyond what each student sets for
   himself (possibly with the teacher's assistance).

-- Other programs still cling to the notion that learning
   is done for "mastery"--some arbitrary level of knowledge
   expected to be the goal of study. This model recognizes
   the fact that different students take language courses to
   achieve different aims, so the degree of mastery is
   dependent not only on the personal ability of each
   student, but also on his goals. If open schools are any
   indication, students will probably do better where they
   choose the material and the channel (direction) than in
   programs where these are being selected for them.

     With all the enthusiasm over an idea, one should not
fail to take a critical look at it for potential areas of
difficulty. This model is proposed with the honest belief
that it may be the practical solution to the stated prevalent
problems; still, several problems may be encountered during
the process of its implementation. In matters external to
the classroom itself, one may encounter lack of willingness
on the part of supervisors or administrators to support an
experimental program of this sort. This is a very real problem
with any attempt at change and each teacher must find his own
way of convincing others that what he is attempting to do is
worth trying. Criticism that this plan is costly can be
answered simply by pointing to the fact that it requires much
less hardware than a standard language laboratory does, even
though it requires more software (paper and tapes, mainly)

which hardly balances the difference. The securing of a room assigned specifically for the purpose of an open classroom is a difficult one, although here again a good job of convincing will probably do the trick, if space is available.

As for the teacher, he must be sure that when he starts the program he has enough prepared materials available to last for a while. An inexperienced teacher may tend to underestimate the amount and the diversity of materials needed, and consequently feel swamped with work once the course is under way. If a teacher is not sensitive to the needs of the students or if he falls behind in updating the materials and the physical layout, the classroom, and thereby the students, he may 'freeze' into a particular set of routines --a contradiction to open education. In sum, this plan makes great demands on the teacher's energy and therefore he must have the conviction that what he is trying to do is both appropriate and worthy.

With adult students, as with children, one may come across potential shirkers who would think of the open arrangement as an opportunity to avoid work. The teacher should be alert to such a possibility, but more important, he should seek ways by which to interest and involve such students in what is being done in the classroom; they may be his real challenge. With adult students in particular, the teacher should be very careful not to criticize them in a way which may antagonize them; a constructive discussion is

an integral part of the open education approach, but an argument which takes on a personal flavor is endangering the atmosphere of goodwill and cooperation which should prevail.

Besides the above-mentioned difficulties, there are some technical questions that need to be answered. First, there is the problem of maintaining or changing the customary pattern of class periods. It seems that this could be overcome once the teacher has secured his own classroom. He can then design his teaching in such a way that all students are accommodated, taking into account the fact that they still have to maintain regular schedules in their other courses. Second, each teacher using the open classroom should try to develop new evaluative modes in addition to traditional testing methods, as well as to work out the problem of maintaining a system of grades and credits used in the traditional setup. The last point is a difficult one because it touches on a routine which is not only a long-practiced tradition, but also a convenient one.

In summary, one hopes that the combination of a very flexible arrangement, individual choices made by the students, and the creativity demanded from the teacher would make this a better way to teach, study and learn foreign languages than the ones now in use.

C H A P T E R   V I
IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER
RESEARCH

The preceding pages described a theoretical model of a classroom; it was based on personal experience as well as on assumptions regarding learning in general and language learning in particular. As such, it needs to be implemented in an actual learning environment in order to answer several basic questions. First, will it work in a traditional college setting where all other subjects are taught in the traditional manner? Will not the students find the transition too great? Second, will the ideal relationships described in the model be suitable in actual practice? What is the most feasible size of room to be used and what is the best ratio of students to teacher? Can more than one language be taught at one time in one room? Are there particular adjustments that need to be made when different languages are being taught? Since this model has been designed for college level instruction, its implementation, with certain modifications, on the elementary and secondary school levels would be of interest. If used, would such programs prepare students for college language study better than the traditional ones? Will such programs help create a more positive attitude toward foreign language study in general? And in schools which already

operate on the open plan, how will language instruction centers be integrated into the classroom?

The necessity to rethink the conventional grading system under open education has been discussed earlier in this paper. There is a contradiction in the practice of awarding grades and credits to individualized study. If a person is studying to the best of his ability, and this is really the goal of individualization, how can his personal effort be classified in terms of credits or letter grades? It has been suggested that the awarding of credits once each semester be abolished in favor of a system by which a specific amount of work has a specific credit value (1/10, 1/4, 1/5, etc.), and that such credit be awarded at the completion of each segment of work.[62] Thus, some students may receive 3 credits within two months, while others may receive 2 1/2 credits at the end of this period. Another observation has been made that the traditional insistence on "normal curves" in grading does not really reflect the efforts of either the teacher or the student because it means only that the degree of learning when the grades of a class approximate a "normal curve" has occurred by chance, i.e., the teacher neither tried to facilitate learning nor to inhibit it.[63] Both these topics need to be further researched and tested in order to possibly devise a system which appraises and rewards individual efforts.

The final area of investigation to be suggested here (although there will undoubtedly be many more arising in the field) is that of the modification of the traditional classroom not only in foreign language study but in all subjects, particularly those which are traditionally book-oriented, such as history and English. It had been earlier suggested that classrooms need to be rearranged to become not just lecture halls but laboratories in which concepts and information are learned not out of books or teacher's lectures alone, but by discussion and experimentation in approximating hypothetical situations to real-life ones. One important question to be asked is whether other subjects besides foreign languages will lend themselves to this type of instruction and learning. It has worked for years in the natural sciences, why not in other areas?

In conclusion, this model is an attempt to suggest a practical solution to a common problem regarding a particular field, foreign languages, but it does suggest some areas of investigation which are not necessarily related to this field, and which bear on questions of learning and teaching in general.

APPENDIX I

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Language you major in _____

2. Freshman ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior ____

3. What other foreign languages have you studied?

Language	Where	For how long	Grades

4. What other foreign languages do you know?

Language	Where have you learned it?

5. Indicate which of the following is the reason for your
    choosing to major in a foreign language. Next to the
    reasons which apply (there may be more than one) indicate
    whether it was: 1 - very important

                     2 - slightly important

    a. I want to teach a foreign language at the elementary
        school level _____

    b. I want to teach a foreign language at the high school
        level _____

    c. I want to teach a foreign language at the college
        level _____

    d. I plan to live in a country where this language is
        spoken _____

e. My parents speak this language _____

f. Other relatives speak this language _____

g. My friends advised me to study this language _____

h. My high school counselor thought I should study this language _____

i. I think knowing a foreign language makes a person's education more complete _____

j. I liked the teacher who taught me this language when I first started _____

k. It's an easy language to learn _____

l. Foreign languages are relatively an easier major than other subjects _____

m. I had a lot of this language before coming to the university _____

n. Other reason (specify) _____

_____

_____

6. Did you have another major before becoming a language major? Yes _____ No _____. If yes, what other major was it? _____

7. The following are various skills that basic language courses can emphasize. Rate the extent to which you were interested in each of them while taking the basic (first 2 years) courses:

> 1 - great interest
> 2 - some interest
> 3 - very little interest

a. Being able to engage in an everyday conversation with native speakers of this language _____

b. Being able to listen to news broadcasts in that language _____

c. Being able to enjoy films in the original language _____

d. Being able to read the classical literature in that language _____

e. Being able to read magazines and newspapers in that language _____

f. Being able to handle correspondence in that language ___

g. Being able to write in that language _____

h. Being able to read professional literature in that language _____

i. Other (specify) _____

_____

_____

8. Thinking mainly of introductory language courses, indicate the extent to which you were (are) satisfied with each of the following aspects of foreign language courses:

                  1 - very satisfied
                  2 - fairly satisfied
                  3 - dissatisfied

a. The type of skills you were taught in the course _____

b. The textbooks you have used _____

c. The classroom activities _____

d. The language laboratory (if required) _____

e. Homework assignments _____

f. The readings you were assigned _____

g. Opportunities you had outside of class to practice the language (radio, magazines, native speakers, etc.) _____ Indicate the opportunities you did have: _____

_____

_____

h. The information you received from the instructors as to your progress in the courses _____

i. The evaluation methods used _____

j. The teachers' competence in the language _____

k. The teachers' ability to enthuse the students regarding the subject matter _____

l. The teachers' helpfulness

m. Teachers' availability outside of the classroom _____

n. Other students' attitude toward the subject as reflected by their behavior and performance in class__

o. The seating arrangement (i.e., rows of students' chairs facing teachers' desk) _____

p. Utilization of materials other than the text and the tape _____

q. The ability of the courses to keep your interest at a fairly stable level throughout _____

r. The number of <u>hours</u> the class met weekly _____ (How many _____)

s. The number of <u>times</u> the class met weekly _____ (How many _____)

t. The extent to which the culture of the parts of the world where the language is spoken, was presented and described _____

u. The pace of the courses _____

v. Other aspects of the courses _____
_____

_____

9. Did you ever feel in a language course that you were either slowed down or rushed by the pace of the class as a whole? Yes _____ No _____. Explain: _____
_____

_____

10. In your opinion, which of the following skills should be emphasized the most in a language course? Indicate the order of importance by numbering the skills from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important):

                      Reading _____
                      Speaking _____
                      Writing _____
                      Understanding _____
                      Grammar _____

11. In the basic language courses you have taken, which of the skills has been dealt with the most? (Number 1 for the most emphasized to 5 – the least emphasized):

         Reading _____

         Speaking _____

         Writing _____

         Understanding _____

         Grammar _____

12. In your experience, did you find any particular aspect of language courses boring? Yes _____ No _____. If yes, explain: _____

_____

13. If you were given the opportunity, would you make any changes in the basic structure of language courses as they are being taught at present? Yes _____ No ___. Explain: _____

_____

_____

14. From your experience in language courses, please indicate the manner in which you learn a foreign language most effectively (number the items listed from 1 – most effective, to 18 – least effective):

a. Using pattern drills for grammar _____

b. Vocabulary memorization _____

c. Composition writing _____

d. Memorizing passages _____

e. Quizzes and tests _____

f. Reading aloud _____

g. Translation from English to the foreign language ____

h. Translation from the foreign language to English ____

i. Oral exercises (tapes) _____

j. Written exercises _____

k. Conversation (in class) _____

l. Role-playing in the foreign language _____

m. Oral responses in class _____

n. Listening to other students _____

o. Studying alone from books _____

p. Reading materials (such as magazines) in the
    foreign language _____

q. Listening to songs in the foreign language _____

r. Other _____. Specify: _____

_____

15. In your opinion, what is the optimum (most effective)
    number of students in a language course? _____.
    Explain: _____

    _____

    _____

16. Should the university have a foreign language require-
    ment? Yes _____ No _____. Explain: _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

17. Should students majoring in foreign languages be required
    to take another foreign language? Yes _____ No _____

    Explain:_____

    _____

    _____

18. Additional comments you wish to make:_____

    _____

    _____

    _____

APPENDIX II

STUDENT SURVEY: ITS AIMS,

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

One of the assumptions of this thesis is that even on the college level there is reason for the teacher to assume that if he treats a class as a unit, that is, if he fails to recognize the fact that a class is made up of individuals, he may soon run into difficulty.

There are several factors which characterize language students in terms of how each of them will behave in a foreign language course, how much effort each will invest in his work, what attitudes he will develop toward the material and the teacher, and what degree of success he will have in his studies. These factors are:

1. Maturity of the student

2. Past experiences in a foreign language classroom

3. General study habits

4. Motivation toward the particular subject

5. Reasons for taking a language course

6. Linguistic background (i.e., study, travel, home, etc.)

7. Rate of learning

8. Behavior in a group (participation, etc.)

9. Influence of the major area of study on the approach to language study

10. Attitudes towards foreign languages and cultures

My contention is that if each of the above-mentioned factors were measured and presented in the form of a matrix, it would become clear that it is almost impossible to find any two students with an identical "make up." The study

discussed in this appendix was aimed at student evaluations of foreign language classroom practices and their preferences in this area. It was expected to show that there exists great diversity of opinions and preferences.

The questionnaire was sent to all foreign language majors at the University of Massachusetts during the spring semester of 1972. There were then (there are more now) five languages offered as majors: Spanish, French, Italian, Russian and German, as well as a major in the Classics (i.e., Greek and Latin). Language majors rather than non-majors were used for this study for two main reasons: First, they would be more apt to respond to something which is close to their interests, and second, having been exposed to more language courses than the average student, they would probably indicate opinions which have a better correlation to real situations.

Of the 286 questionnaires that were sent out, 114 (39.8%) were returned completed by the time the semester ended.

The questionnaire (see Appendix I) started with questions about the student's linguistic background (#1-4), followed by questions about the choice of major (#5-6), past experiences in foreign language courses (#7-9), the student's preferences (#10-13), self-evaluation of the student's study habits/preferences (#14), and feelings about class size and language requirements (#16-17).

The following are the results of the study, listed in the order of the questions in the questionnaire:

<u>Question #1</u> - Major language

          French   - 45

          German   - 21

          Spanish - 22

          Russian - 13

          Classics - 7

          Italian - 6

<u>Question #2</u> - Division of students according to class

          Freshman - 37

          Sophomore - 27

          Junior   - 20

          Senior   - 30

<u>Question #3</u> - Study of other languages

          0 languages - 10

          1 language - 53

          2 languages - 33

          3 languages - 16

          4 languages - 2

<u>Question #4</u> - 16 students indicated that they have learned one or more foreign languages through sources other than schools (travel, home, etc.).

<u>Question #5</u> - Students could answer this question by checking more than one option. It is obvious (Figure 12) that there is quite a variety of reasons given, although

some options seem to be "favorites" (such as "i" and "m").
Included in the "n" category were such reasons as wanting
to become an international lawyer or an airline hostess
and/or another profession requiring knowledge of a foreign
language, as well as fascination with the language or the
ability to learn languages with ease.

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n
1	3	33	18	28	4	5	3	3	60	34	4	6	40	34
2	21	31	24	19	17	17	9	11	27	30	19	14	18	

Figure 12

Question #5

Question #6 - Change of major:

Yes - 30

No - 84

Question #7 - Again, as in question #5, the results of this
question show a great diversity of opinions (Figure 13).
Some choices got more approval than others, though: items
"a," "e" and "g" seemed to be of greatest interest.

Question #8 - This question was concerned with the degree of
satisfaction a student had in introductory language courses.
Very few students seemed to question the teacher's competency
in the language ("j"), the teacher's enthusiasm ("k"), the
teacher's helpfulness ("l") or his availability ("m"). Yet

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i
1	95	31	54	49	76	64	86	42	2
2	8	48	38	43	32	38	24	36	
3	8	32	20	21	4	11	2	33	

Figure 13

Question #7

for all other items (practical teaching aspects), there were more students who were only fairly satisfied or were dissatisfied than satisfied. (Figure 14.)

Question #8, like several other questions, allowed for student comments. Here are some of the comments:

> I feel that the "teaching methods" of most language teachers should be greatly improved.

> Additional meetings of the class.

> Early in the courses there should be a strong emphasis placed on learning vocabulary and idioms.

> I'd like more intense study.

Question #9 - This question dealt with an aspect of language courses (and others) that is most frequently cited as a justification for individualized learning. It has to do with the pace of the individual as compared to the pace of the rest of the class. In a way this is a subjective question, especially in the case of those who feel rushed, because there might be other factors besides the pace of the class

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v
1	44	31	33	18	36	45	20	49	40	95	67	76	68	20	34	24	43	43	42	24	39	7
2	64	12	64	24	64	56	20	44	54	14	36	34	36	65	45	41	53	37	36	46	51	12
3	3	20	14	44	9	7	30	16	12	2	8	1	3	23	26	38	11	17	22	36	17	3

Figure 14

Question #8

which give them that feeling. The distribution of answers to this question was as follows:

34 students did not feel either rushed or slowed down.

41 students felt slowed down.

37 students felt rushed.

There were several comments made in regard to this question:

Didn't meet often enough.

When grammar was being taught, I usually caught on fairly quickly, while a few students need everything repeated over and over.

A lot of kids took beginning French just to get their credits and had no interest in learning the subject; some classes were slowed down at first.

Certain aspects of grammar were hard for me to comprehend. I had to do a lot of work on my own to avoid being left behind.

If people aren't interested they don't study, and slow down everyone.

Sometimes classes were too large--progress was slowed, because there was often a wide range in the capabilities of the students to do the work.

Backgrounds are always diverse, so there were times when others knew more or less than I did.

Rushed not so much by class as by syllabus.

Question #10 - In this question students were asked to rate the language skills usually taught in language courses. Here again, there was a diversity of opinions (Figure 15), although understanding and speaking the language were the most desired skills.

	Reading	Speaking	Writing	Understanding	Grammar
1	9	41	1	47	7
2	15	35	0	44	11
3	46	14	10	7	28
4	23	8	53	4	15
5	12	6	41	3	44

Figure 15

Question #10

Question #11 - This question related to the same skills
discussed in question #10, and the students were asked to
rate them according to their experiences in actual language
courses. Here it seems that grammar was the component most
emphasized in courses (Figure 16). Speaking the language
was the least emphasized aspect, according to almost half of
the students. This is in complete dissonance with their
expectations. (Question #10.)

Question #12 - This question, too, dealt both with student
preferences and their experiences. The distribution was as
follows:

82 students found some aspects of the courses boring.

29 did not find any aspect of their courses boring.

Much more interesting than the distribution itself, though,

is the variety of reasons given for selecting a "yes" answer:

	Reading	Speaking	Writing	Understanding	Grammar
1	28	6	4	23	46
2	22	19	23	18	24
3	32	15	24	23	14
4	16	16	28	34	13
5	9	51	28	9	10

Figure 16

Question #11

I dislike grammar--unfortunately you need a solid background in this area before you can really begin to learn the language.

I found translation to be an absolute waste.

Writing assignments.

Not much variety.

Grammar.

Language labs in which no instructor was present to help us.

Methods! Cut and dry grammar exercises--there must be a more interesting way of conveying the information!

Some of the material used as well as the teacher's complete domination of the course.

Days of grammar study without practical application and constructive feedback.

I found some of the textbooks used pretty boring.

Translation.

The stress on grammar; and the terrible use of
modern and potentially rewarding language labs.

Some of the literature that was read.

It was a stereotyped and regimented course after
course, no new learning methods were introduced
which could have been fun, interesting and
worthwhile.

The demand for perfect grammar instead of an
understanding why.

Oral drills--often there wasn't enough variety.

Question #13 - This question was intended to help the student

summarize his gripes against his courses, if his answer was

a "yes." It should also have helped him decide how serious

those gripes were. Eighty-six students thought they would

have liked to change certain things in their courses; 23

were satisfied with what they had (or said that they were

not knowledgeable enough to make any suggestions. Some of

the suggested changes were:

The learning should come at the individual's pace,
not the teacher's schedule.

Distinguish between a literature major and a
language major.

Devoting some class time to writing and grammar.

Combination of audio-lingual and transformational
Generative approaches.

I feel it would be wise to try to avoid teaching
language by the most standard (and often boring)
methods, and to introduce more individual and
interesting activities.

I feel there should be more of an opportunity for the spoken language. However, I realize that the time element is a problem.

I would have more translating into and working in the foreign language.

Pre-language course to break down inhibitions.

Make times more convenient.

More use of many various methods.

Intro courses should stress more the culture of the country.

More emphasis should be put on learning vocabulary and grammar.

Inventive teachers.

I would deal more directly with literature.

I would have more hours for classes.

I would attempt to make the language lab better.

Smaller classes rather than large ones divided into sections.

Smaller classes—less structured, intensive learning of grammar and vocabulary.

Optional labs.

I would try to introduce more outside materials.

Increased use of tapes.

Question #14 – This question called for the student's appraisal of his own study habits. Obviously, the options were many and varied, but the results do illustrate the great diversity of opinions among the students. The only options which received a noticeably greater number of "votes" than any other was "k-1"—conversation. (Figure 17.)

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r
1	8	6	2	3	1		2	2	2	2	30	2	3		3	1		8
2	6	6	5	3	1	5	4	1	4	5	11	10	21	1		1		1
3	3	3	5	2	2	4	7	3	11	4	5	10	10	4	5	6	1	
4	8	4	7	1	4	4	3	6	6	5	4	4	11	7	3	6	2	
5	4	8	6	1	3	7	5	3	10	7	8	2	4	8	3	5	1	
6	3	7	10	2	6	4	4	5	4	8	5		10	4	4	6	3	
7	6	4	7	2	2	9	6	6	7	9	2	6	4	7	2	7	1	
8	4	3	11	1	8	3	9	5	5	8	2	2	5	9	4	5	2	
9	4	6	9	3	6	9	8	10	2	9	1	5	2	1	3	6	1	1
10	9	6	10	2	9	6	7	4	4	3	1	3	4	5	7	4	2	
11	5	6	3	2	6	5	6	9	5	6	1	2	3	3	4	11	5	
12	3	4	3		5	6	4	6	4	10	1	5	5	8	12	4	2	
13	6	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	5	3	2	4	1	6	8	6	5	
14	5	4	2	7	4	7	6	7	1	2		12		4	7	4	7	
15	4	6	1	11	6	7	5	4	5	2	1	6	1	6	4	2	12	
16	4	2	2	16	8	3	2	4	7	2	1	4		8	6	4	8	1
17	1	3		16	7		3	5	2			6		2	9	5	21	2
18	2	1	1	6	1									2			9	

Figure 17

Question #14

Question #15 - Size of class seen as the most desirable:

Number of students: 1 - 5 (7)

6 - 10 (62)

11 - 15 (37)

16 - 20 (6)

No one wanted classes with more than 20 people.

Several reasons were given for selecting a particular class size:

Each student gets the greatest amount of practice.

Every student should be given the opportunity to actively participate in classroom activities.

More individualization is possible.

Allows pairing off. Keeps everybody active.

I find it much easier to stay alert and interested in a smaller class.

The number varies according to course (grammar, literature, basic).

The fewer students, the better; but it is good to have a more than 1 to 1 correspondence, because you can learn from others' mistakes.

To begin with, I think the student should be left on his own to acquire the basics of the language.

(A large group) more activities than in a small class.

Question #16 - Should the university have a foreign language requirement?

Yes - 43

No - 67

Question #17 - Should FL major be required to take another language?

> Yes - 37
>
> No - 72

Question #18 - Additional comments by the students:

I wish to study more culture.

I feel that the language departments should research new and better methods of teaching beginners especially, so that people won't be turned-off.

The American primary school ignores the basics and structure of the student's native language, English.

I only wish a greater variety of courses could be offered.

Observations:

Two very important observations can be made, based on the results of this study. First, that there is a great diversity of needs, talents and experiences among students, and that these should be taken into consideration in the planning and teaching of language courses. The high rate of failure and drop out from language courses (Appendix III) is supportive of this observation. Second, students on the college level seem to have an idea of how and what they want to study. Here, too, there is a great variety of opinion, and it should be considered in the overall framework of a course. All of the above is really unnecessary as a justification for individualizing

language instruction; one should only be aware of the fact
that people are different when making a choice between teaching
by the conventional confrontational methods or by some
individualized method.

APPENDIX III

BEHAVIORIST-BASED METHODS

OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Direct Methods

As the heading suggests, there are several varieties of "direct" styles of teaching a foreign language. But they all share some common features (this methodology is believed to have been started in Germany by Wilhelm Vietor in 1902 and in France, as the Methode Directe, in 1901; it was brought to the U.S. in 1911 by Max Walter, one of Vietor's students).[64] The Principles underlying this methodology are:

1. The use of the native language is discouraged or totally forbidden.

2. Language is believed to be made up of sounds, not letters; therefore, speaking should be the first aim. Training of the eye should be second to the training of the ear and the tongue.

3. All reading matter is presented orally first.

4. The first few weeks of study should be devoted to pronunciation; the teachers themselves usually serve as models.

5. There is extensive listening and imitation until forms become automatic.

6. Connected discourse is prime--isolated words should not be taught, rather, full expressions are preferred because they carry more meaning.

7. Concrete meanings are taught through object lessons; abstract ones through the association of ideas.

8. Many new linguistic items are introduced at once.

9. Everyday vocabulary and structure should be used.

10. Language should be learned in a natural way, as a child learns his first language. Therefore, translation is not acceptable.

11. Grammar is taught inductively; it is not explained.

12. Grammar is taught orally.

13. Grammar is taught by situation.

14. Grammar is illustrated through visual presentations. Visual aids are used extensively by these methods in order to avoid the use of the native language.

15. Grammar is presented through pattern drills.

16. Most of the work is done in class.[65,66]

Some of the direct methods rely heavily on carefully graded presentations of the material in the foreign language. Teaching, which is mostly oral, utilizes questions and answers, commands and responses.[67]

A. The Berlitz Method

This is one of the direct methods discussed above. Its first requirement is that all teachers be native speakers of the foreign language. In this program, instruction is done on an individual basis or in groups of up to 10 people. Besides the principles common to all direct methods, this method advocates:

1. The direct association of the foreign speech with the learner's though

2. Absolute avoidance of the native language

3. An oral procedure which demands:

   Never translate; demonstrate.
   Never explain; act.
   Never make a speech; ask questions.
   Never imitate mistakes; correct.
   Never speak with single words; use sentences.
   Never speak too much; make students speak much.
   Never use the book; use your lesson plan.
   Never jump around; follow your plan.
   Never go too fast; keep the pace of the student.
   Never speak too slowly; speak normally.
   Never speak too quickly; speak naturally.
   Never speak too loudly; speak naturally.
   Never be impatient; take it easy.[68]

The strength of this program may lie in its insistence on using the foreign language exclusively. Since no grammar rules are introduced, nor is any translation done, it can be viewed only as a very basic introduction to the language. Visual aids are used to introduce new words and sentences. But this may become a handicap in that not all material that is visually demonstrable is basic, and not all basic materials lend themselves to visual demonstration.

B. The Eclectic Direct Method

This method was developed mainly by British teachers of English in the Orient. It was actually introduced as a compromise aimed at combining the best of the direct and the grammar-translation methods.[69] Its features include the following:

1. Oral practice of sounds, phonetic drills, speaking of language phrases, and reading aloud are put into the

beginning stages of the language course.

2. Questions in the foreign language and answers in the same are used to test comprehension of the spoken language.

3. Audio-visual aids are used to help vocabulary learning and to give information about the culture of the foreign people.

4. Grammar is explained deductively in order to save time in the classroom (this is a feature of most methods associated with the cognitive code-learning approach).

5. Compositions or sentences are assigned in order to test the learning of grammar.

6. Translation is used as the acid test to find out whether the student really comprehends the reading material.

7. For reasons of economy of time, oral work is gradually decreased until it becomes either the grammar-translation method or the reading method (depending on the teachers and the circumstances).

The order of skills as introduced by this method is: speaking, writing, understanding and reading.[70] The reading material is graded according to frequency and usefulness. The grammar taught is that of current usage.[71] Most British universities still use this method.

The Eclectic method seems to be by far the most flexible of the behaviorist-oriented methods; it employs elements of

several methods: The target language is used exclusively, as in direct methods, but grammar is explained deductively as in rationalist methods. One possible difficulty in using this method with a class is that in limiting the scope of the material, it avoids taking into account individual differences of preference, interest and aptitude.

C. Simplification Methods

These methods are based on the limitation and selection of lexical and structural items in order to ensure a rapid and substantial mastery of the essentials of the language.[72] Two methods are included in this category:

a. Basic English

The lexical core is made up of 850 words (this method has been used for English only, as far as the literature shows, but it is included here because it can easily be adopted to other languages and because it is a distinct method). This method claims to have the following uses:

1. To teach a practical language
2. To simplify and clarify English texts
3. To translate from the foreign language into English
4. To teaching English to speakers of other languages[73]

Pronunciation is taught by imitation and description of sounds. In teaching the grammar and vocabulary, there is some flexibility in allowing the use of the native language.

The vocabulary has only 16 verbs: be, come, do, get, give, go, have, keep, let, make, put, take, say, see, send, seem; 2 auxiliaries: will, may; and the auxiliary use of be, have and do. Selection criteria for reading is purely semantic.

Criticism directed at this method includes the observation that pronunciation tends to be neglected.[74] Also there is not a planned series of oral exercises, and the semantic nature of selecting the reading material would make it rather limited, so that the transition to "real" English may become difficult.

b. The Graded Direct Method

Unlike the basic direct method, the material used by this one is scaled, starting from "simple" and building up to more complex structures:

> The material is organized into graded sentence
> sequences, each building outward from the
> preceding ones--establishing in the students'
> minds the basic structure of the language,
> and substituting the active mastery of meaning for
> mere rote memory.[75]

It introduces the concept of Sen-Sit which is a unit made up of a sentence in the situation which gives it meaning. Clarity and intelligibility are the criteria for grading and selecting the Sen-Sits. They are introduced and supplemented by pictures and audio-visual aids, thus avoiding the use of the native language. Grammar is reduced to a few basic structures, and introduced in meaningful contexts through

substitution exercises. Oral practice is also used.

The advantage of this method is obviously its
extensive use of audio-visual aids and its careful selection
of contexts. But, on the other hand, the limitation of
lexical items may bring about awkward constructions,
lexically as well as grammatically. Moving from this subset
of the language to a more advanced level may demand some
unlearning and relearning. As is the case with other methods
which insist on monolingual instruction, some time may be
lost on explanation which could be done faster and more
accurately in the native language.

Other Methods

A. The Phonetic Method

This method is also called the Reform or Oral Method.
It starts with ear training, then goes on to pronunciation.
The progression is of sounds to words, words to phrases and
phrases to sentences. Later on, dialogues and stories are
introduced. Phonetic notation is used in the text instead
of the regular spelling. Grammar is taught inductively.[76]

One difficulty with using this method is the transition
from phonetic notation to the actual spelling of the target
language. This is magnified when the script is different
(the author has tried using a textbook for Hebrew which
employs phonetic notations through half of the first semester
and the students' reactions were mixed: some thought that it

gave them an early feeling of satisfaction in that they could at least read from the very start, others thought that it made the later transition to Hebrew script much more difficult than if they would have used Hebrew script from the beginning of the course).

B. The Psychological Method

Apparently so called because it relies heavily on the mental visualization and association of ideas, this method makes extensive use of objects, diagrams, pictures and charts in order to create a mental image and to connect it with the word. Vocabulary is arranged into groups of short idiomatic sentences connected with the subject. The teaching is at first exclusively oral. Composition is introduced after the first few lessons. Grammar is introduced early and reading, late.[77]

C. The Natural Method

The order of presentation under this method is: listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar (some modifications on this order have been made in the method used now under the name of the Nature Method). Initially, questions are asked about objects, and pictures are used for the illustration. New words are explained by means of known words. Meaning is taught by inference. There is absolutely no use of the native language, no translation and no discussion about the foreign language. Grammatical explanation is used to illustrate and correct mistakes.[78]

D. The Reading Method

This method suggests the concentration on an extensive reading program in the teaching of modern languages. In the 1920's it was found that the quantity of reading done by a student had a marked effect on the quality of his achievement and comprehension.[79] Also, according to studies, the faster a student read, the better he understood. Experiments suggested that similar correlations exist in the study of modern languages. The immediate result was the construction of word and idiom lists--1500 most frequently used items. The main characteristics of this method are:

1. Pronunciation is stressed at first, because even in silent reading a person's mind might tend to suggest sounds for the words in the text.

2. Grammar is taught for recognition only.

3. Oral use of the foreign language in the classroom is restricted usually to pronunciation drills and a few questions in the foreign language to test comprehension of the material read.

4. Translation from English to the foreign language is usually omitted.

5. Reading materials introduce words and idioms at a pre-determined rate, and are based on the scientifically prepared word and idiom lists.[80]

6. Materials written by foreign authors are rewritten, where necessary, to restrict the selections to the

graded vocabulary level desired. Initially, materials are introduced as short passages preceded by a list of new words. New words are taught through context, translation and pictures. Supplementary readings are added after a certain mastery of the vocabulary is attained.[81]

The main drawback of this method is its avoidance of using the oral language for anything but pronunciation drills. The student thus becomes a passive learner, without a chance of trying either to use what he has learned or to produce new utterances of his own. There is no creativity involved in the learning process here.

E. The Army Method

This method was developed during World War II when it became apparent that people skilled in foreign languages would be needed in fairly large numbers and in a short period of time. Contributors to this method included cultural anthropologists and descriptive linguists, the American Council of Learned Societies, college professors and military agencies.

The anthropologists said that written and spoken languages were not identical in societies where both existed, and that most people in all cultures learned to speak, but not quite as many learned to read or write. The written symbols were not, therefore, the essence of language as were the vocal symbols (patterned groups of sounds).[82]

Characteristics of this method include:

1. For descriptive analysis of the foreign language, a native informant and a trained linguist are needed.

2. A course should have maximum content covered in minimum time--17 weekly contact hours over a period of 36 weeks, (which is about 5 times the usual college load).

3. There is a high standard of student selection and performance.

4. Students under this program are highly motivated (as one criterion for their selection in the first place).

5. Language studies are integrated with area studies.

6. Objectives are clearly defined. The army wanted its trainees to have a command of the colloquial spoken language to the point of speaking fluently, accurately and with acceptable approximation to a native pronunciation, and almost perfect comprehension of the language as spoken by a native.

7. Classes are small--10 students per instructor. In the classroom itself, the following procedures are followed:
Imitation - The new vocabulary is presented word for word. Each word is repeated twice by each student. Similar procedures are followed for the whole sentence or phrase. Mistakes are corrected at once.
Repetition - Students repeat each new sentence twice without a model.

<u>Translation</u> - The students give the translation into English (or the native language).

<u>Rotation</u> - Sentences are repeated by the students around the room so that each student has eventually repeated all of the sentences.

<u>Discontinuous repetition</u> - After the initial familiarization with a set of sentences, the teacher asks the students, in random order, either to repeat a sentence or translate it. The students do not know when or what they will be asked.

<u>Dialogue practice</u> - Short but complete dialogues are used. They are done by the teacher and a student, or among the students.[83]

The big question about this method is its applicability to other situations of foreign language instruction. The selectivity associated with this method in terms of aptitude, attitude and motivation is unique, and is not only unavailable in high school or colleges, for instance, but also contrary to their philosophy of education. It is also possible that when a language is studied as intensely as that, if practical use does not follow immediately, much of it will be forgotten. A very attractive feature of this method, though, is its combination of language study with area study (i.e., cultural aspects).

F. The Practice-Theory Method

In this method, theory follows practice. Three units of theory are given for each seven units of practice. Model sentences are memorized through constant repetition and by imitating informants and recordings. Model sentences are then analyzed phonetically and structurally to permit their expansion into other sentences of a similar type.[84]

G. The Language Control Method

It is somewhat similar to the direct methods, but it is highly patterned and tightly controlled. The main features of this method are the limitation and gradation (sequencing) of vocabulary and structure based on word frequency or usefulness, the teaching of meaning through controlled actions and pictures as well as objects and visual material. Both oral and written drills are included.

The shortcomings of this method would be similar to those of the Berlitz method, that is, the limitation of material may cause difficulty in moving on to more advanced levels, and the selections may be too subjective to be applicable to all situations.[85]

H. The Linguistic-Anthropological Method

This is a method practiced mainly in the U.S. It is not too concerned with the teaching techniques. Rather, it is concerned with the objective aspect of language study, that of the linguistic material to be analyzed, selected, graded and presented to the student. Because of the special

nature of this method, since it has been used mainly to train people for linguistic field-work, it is difficult to evaluate how effective it would be when applied in a classroom.

I.   The Audio-Lingual Method

Also known as the aural-oral and the mim-mem method, this method seems to be the closest to the principles of the behaviorists, and is the one most widely used today. This method rose in the 1920's with the work of L. Bloomfield. According to Bloomfield,

> language learning is overlearning. Anything else is of no use.[86]

The theoreticians of the behavioristic approach to language equated speech with behavior. In order for speech (behavior) to be conditioned, the student must be led through a series of stimulus-response situations in which his own response is followed at once by a reinforcement.[87]

   -Since speech is primary and writing is secondary,
    the habits to be learned must be learned orally
    first.
   -Habits must be automized as much as possible.
   -Automatization of habits happens mainly through
    practice, by repetition.[88]

The audio-lingual approach (method) tries to imitate the manner in which the native language is learned. Language skills are believed to be learned more effectively if items of the foreign language are presented in spoken form before the written form.

Language is something you understand and say
before it is something you read and write. This
principle should be applied not only at the
beginning but also at later levels.89

Other general principles of this method are:

1. Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign language

    learning than analysis

    The learner who has only been made to see how
    language works has not learned any language; on the
    contrary, he has learned something he will have to
    forget before he can make any progress in that area
    of language.90

2. The meanings which the words of any language have for the

    native speaker can be learned only through allusions to

    the culture of the people who speak that language.

    Unless we understand the cultural situation in which
    an utterance is made, we may miss its full implica-
    tion or meaning. The tie of language study with
    culture is not an "option" to be discussed in terms
    of the preferences of the individual teacher, but
    actually a practical necessity.91

3. 'Natural order' in teaching the language: a progression

    from listening to foreign language speech patterns, to

    active speaking, reading and writing. Since language

    learning is a process of habit formation, there should

    be a maximum of structural pattern learning and a minimum

    of isolated word study and grammar analysis.

    The specific details of teaching through this method

are:

— Basic speech patterns are acquired through memorized

    dialogues dealing with everyday situations.

-- Conversation is not graded, slowed-down or made easy.

-- English (or the native language) is practically excluded from the classroom.

-- Sounds are introduced first (much as in the Army method). Ear training is the major activity at first.

-- Speaking follows soon after the initial listening period. Students imitate the teacher or the tapes in the laboratory. Structured drills follow for reinforcement.

-- Students memorize the basic dialogues, then dramatize them.

-- In the early stages of learning, meaning is postponed in order to stress development of automatic responses.

-- The transition from the oral stage to the visual presentation stage follows this order:

Step 1. Students repeat the dialogue orally several times before they see the printed text.

Step 2. Dialogues are repeated several more times from the text.

Step 3. The dialogues are read silently from the text.

Step 4. The dialogues are read in chorus, with students imitating the teacher.

Step 5. Individual students read portions of the dialogue.[92]

-- Writing is a graduated process, going from controlled writing (copying, dictation of familiar sentences), to directed composition (outlined by the teacher), to free composition.

-- Grammar is learned incidentally through constant practice of structures occurring in the dialogues. No effort is made to explain the specific grammar.[93]

-- The types of drills used are:[94]

 1. Repetition

 2. Transformation (changes)

 3. Substitution

 4. Integration (combining phrases)

 5. Expansion

 6. Contraction

-- Reading is of three main types:[95]

 1. Intensive - done in the classroom and aimed at increasing the knowledge of vocabulary, idioms and language structures.

 2. Extensive - quantitative in nature. The student chooses from a variety of reading materials.

 3. Supplementary - extra reading assignments added to the intensive or extensive lists. They are used mainly to give additional information about the culture.

-- The teacher's role in introducing new materials includes:

 1. Stimulating the students' interest in the material

 2. Eliminating many of the difficulties by giving definitions, synonyms or antonyms for unfamiliar words or idioms

3. Emphasizing certain allusions to cultural practices

4. Relating the theme of the material to the students' experiences or needs

5. Checking the students' comprehension of the material by asking questions

--- Translation is used only in advanced stages.[96]

The best feature of this method is the extensive use of the foreign language right from the start. This not only tunes the student's ear to the particular language, but it also tends to give him an early sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. On the negative side, this method, like several of the others discussed in this chapter, tends to ignore individual differences between students. For some students learning through the eye may be a faster process than learning through the ear, or one may supplement the other. Studying mainly through memorization may obscure some of the crucial points being learned as well as cause boredom and fatigue. As to the claim that learning a foreign language should simulate the learning of the native language, there is no proof that the two processes are indeed parallel, and certainly, the redundancy and lack of predictability associated with the native language can cause some difficulty and discouragement. This method tends to treat language and parts of it being taught as closed systems, finite in nature. This, in addition to the automatic nature of initial

learning, could lead to difficulty in advancing from that stage to more advanced ones. Since grammar receives only a spotty treatment and the student is not made aware of the nature of what he is doing, the more inquisitive type of student may become rather frustrated. The refusal to consider the foreign language in relation to other languages and the reliance, therefore, on analogies within the one language, limit the scope of available explanation and tend to create questionable constructions.

APPENDIX IV

RATIONALIST-BASED METHODS

OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The Grammar-Translation Method

This method as the name suggests, proceeds from a
formal explanation of grammar rules to their application
through translation. It is traced back to the Humanists
of the 16th century, who wanted to go back to the "original
Latin." In later years it was used as a mental exercise to
strengthen the various faculties of the mind:

> Latin syntax strengthens the reasoning faculty;
> English-Latin translation, the logical powers;
> Latin vocabulary and grammar, the memory; the
> very difficulty of Latin, perseverence and tenacity.[97]

The rules of grammar taught under this method are first
universally defined and then applied to a specific language.[98]
The grammar-translation method assumes that sentences in the
native language act as stimuli for the recall to memory of
the total teaching event.[99] Some of the features of this
method are:

-- There is no purposeful choice of words to be used.

-- There is no gradation in the presentation of new
   material.

-- It teaches about the language as well as the language.

-- It is mainly used for teaching the classical languages
   therefore much of the instruction is done through reading.

The language learned through this method is mostly
literary and book-dependent; it is only remotely connected
with the spoken language (this is due to the fact that the

method was developed for the classical languages). The Student tends to assume a passive role of absorbing new material and reconstituting it, and the monotonous nature of the study on top of it may tend to bore and discourage. The grammar introduced by this method is usually the traditional-prescribed one. Communication skills are completely ignored.

The Dual-Language Method

This method is based on the similarities and differences between the native language and the foreign language. The elements stressed are: vocabulary, sounds, forms and syntax. The material is arranged according to the length and complexity of its formal elements. The native language is used to explain differences in phonetics, grammar and vocabulary. Each point of difference is used for systematic drills.[100]

The Cognate Method

The student, under this method, starts out by learning a basic vocabulary made up of words which are somehow similar to words in his native language. These words are used for oral and written expressions.[101]

The Unit Method

This method is based on the following steps of teaching:

Step 1. Students prepare the material.

Step 2. Material is presented in class.

Step 3. Guidance is given through induction.

Step 4. Aspects of the language are generalized.

Step 5. Application of rules is discussed.

At the elementary level, a unit would be developed in the following manner:

-- A unit of interest is chosen by the students.

-- Students prepare a dialogue in the native language.

-- The teacher translates the dialogue.

-- Vocabulary of the dialogue is learned.

-- Grammatical points are listed.

-- Key sentences and phrases are repeated and memorized.

-- Students describe the grammatical rules.

-- The dialogue is acted out.

-- Elements of the dialogue are used for further projects.

This method has a merit, which other methods lack, in that it utilizes student interests and student-originated materials as its basis (it is very similar to the Language Experience Approach to reading). The possible problem with it is that students may initiate structures which are too complicated for the beginning stage, and that their fluency in the native language may make it difficult for them to come down to a basic level. In order to avoid these difficul-

ties, the students must have a good understanding of the mechanics of their native language. Most of the work, under this method, is to be done by the teacher, because materials have to be developed on short notice and according to student direction. This is a good feature of this method because it involves creativity on the part of the teacher.

APPENDIX V

STATISTICAL DATA ABOUT

ENROLLMENT IN LANGUAGE COURSES

AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS 1968-1971[*]

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[*]Spring 1970 - Student Strike. Students had the
option of receiving either a Pass grade or a
letter grade. Fail grades were given only upon
student requests.

Russian

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	WITHD.	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	67	43	11	13	16.4	17.4	33.8
	115	11	7	0	4		36.4	36.4
	130	32	29	3	0	9.4	--	9.4
Spring 1969	120	38	33	2	3	5.3	7.9	13.2
	125	9	8	1	0	11.1	--	11.1
	140	28	26	1	1	3.6	3.6	7.2
Fall 1969	110	73	56	9	8	12.3	11	23.3
	130	35	24	4	7	11.4	20	31.4
Spring 1970 STRIKE	120	39	38	0	1	--	2.6	2.6
	140	19	18	0	1	--	5.3	5.3
Fall 1970	110	68	41	14	13	20.6	19.1	39.7
	119	9	8	0	1	--	11.1	11.1
	130	34	26	4	4	11.8	11.8	23.6
Spring 1971	120	29	22	4	3	13.8	10.3	24.1
	129	5	5	0	0	--	--	--
	140	26	25	0	1	--	3.8	3.8
Fall 1971	110	51	45	6	0	11.8	--	11.8
	119	6	5	0	1	--	16.6	16.6
	130	29	28	1	0	3.4	--	3.4
	139	3	3	0	0	--	--	--

Italian

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	WITHD.	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	74	47	10	17	13.5	23	36.5
	120	21	10	5	6	2.4	29	53
	130	37	32	2	3	5.4	8.1	13.5
Spring 1969	110	46	33	8	5	17.4	10.9	28.3
	120	40	33	7	0	17.5	--	17.5
	130	10	8	1	1	10	10	20
	140	28	28	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1969	110	61	42	9	10	14.8	16.4	31.2
	120	19	16	1	2	5.3	10.6	15.9
	126	7	7	0	0	--	--	--
	130	19	17	0	2	--	10.6	10.6
	140	6	5	0	1	--	16.6	16.6
Spring 1970	110	30	26	0	4	--	13.3	13.3
STRIKE	120	29	25	0	4	--	13.8	13.8
	126	12	12	0	0	--	--	--
	130	8	7	0	1	--	12.5	12.5
	140	11	11	0	0	--	--	--
	146	4	4	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	110	50	39	4	7	8	14	22
	120	15	11	1	3	6.7	20	26.7
	126	21	20	0	1	--	4.8	4.8
	130	12	11	0	1	--	8.3	8.3

Italian - 2

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
	140	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
	146	5	5	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1971	120	22	17	2	3	9.1	13.6	22.7
	126	25	20	1	4	4	16	20
	130	9	7	0	2	--	22.1	22.1
	140	10	10	0	0	--	--	--
	146	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1971	126	57	52	5	0	8.8	--	8.8
	130	6	5	0	1	--	16.6	16.6
	140	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
	146	11	11	0	0	--	--	--

Latin

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	26	18	3	5	11.5	19.2	30.7
	130	54	49	2	3	3.7	5.6	9.3
	140	10	10	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1969	120	10	9	0	1	--	10	10
	121	5	5	0	0	--	--	--
	140	39	37	1	1	2.6	2.6	5.2
Fall 1969	110	40	34	1	5	2.5	12.5	15
	140	19	17	0	2	--	10.5	10.5
Spring 1970	140	19	15	0	4	--	21	21
STRIKE	141	16	13	0	3	--	18.7	18.7
Fall 1970	110	63	43	5	15	7.9	23.7	31.6
	140	24	24	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1971	140	35	33	1	1	2.9	2.9	5.8
Fall 1971	110	72	67	4	1	5.6	1.4	7
	140	23	21	1	1	4.3	4.3	8.6

Spanish

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	010	16	14	1	1	6.25	6.25	13
	020	31	25	2	4	6.5	13	19.5
	110	362	239	73	50	20.2	13.8	34.0
	120	85	50	20	15	23.6	17.8	41.4
	130	317	280	22	15	6.9	4.7	11.6
	132	15	15	0	0	--	--	--
	140	93	85	5	3	5.4	3.2	8.6
Spring 1969	010	4	3	0	1	--	25	25
	020	7	5	1	1	14.3	14.3	28.6
	110	134	75	29	30	21.6	22.4	44.0
	120	216	147	44	25	20.3	11.6	31.9
	130	98	73	15	10	15.3	10.2	25.5
	140	270	257	4	9	1.5	3.3	4.8
	142	12	11	1	0	8.3	--	8.3
Fall 1969	110	290	209	42	39	14.5	13.4	27.9
	120	63	41	6	16	9.5	25.4	34.9
	126	13	10	0	3	--	23	23
	130	170	146	8	16	4.7	9.4	14.1
	133	26	21	1	4	3.8	16.6	20.4
	140	61	55	5	1	8.2	1.6	9.8

Spanish - 2

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Spring 1970	110	112	89	1	32	0.9	19.6	20.5
	120	166	114	0	52		31	31
STRIKE	126	15	12	0	3	--	20	20
	130	48	44	0	4	--	8.3	8.3
	133	8	5	0	3	--	37	37
	140	118	105	0	13	--	11	11
	141	44	41	0	3	--	6.8	6.8
	146	13	11	0	2	--	15.4	15.4
Fall 1970	110	291	206	48	37	16.5	12.7	29.2
	120	87	64	10	13	11.5	15	26.5
	126	10	7	0	3	--	30	30
	130	163	148	4	11	2.5	6.8	9.3
	133	33	29	1	3	3	9	12
	140	58	53	4	1	6.9	1.7	8.6
	146	13	11	0	2	--	15.4	15.4
Spring 1971	110	117	83	11	23	9.4	19.4	28.8
	120	169	128	19	22	11.2	13	24.2
	126	16	8	2	6	12.5	37.5	50
	130	65	56	5	4	7.7	6.2	13.9
	140	117	113	0	4	--	3.4	3.4
	141	43	37	2	4	4.65	9.3	13.95
	146	11	9	0	2	--	18.2	18.2

Spanish - 3

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1971	110	279	246	32	1	11.5	0.4	11.9
	120	76	69	5	2	6.6	2.6	9.2
	126	35	31	4	0	11.4	--	11.4
	130	136	128	8	0	5.9	--	5.9
	131	25	25	0	0	--	--	--
	134	50	49	1	0	2	--	2
	140	51	48	2	1	3.9	1.96	5.86
	144	24	24	0	0	--	--	--
	146	15	15	0	0	--	--	--

French

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	010	57	47	4	6	7	10.5	17.5
	020	76	70	2	4	2.6	5.2	7.9
	110	175	129	19	27	10.9	15.4	26.3
	120	26	21	2	3	7.7	11.5	19.2
	130	500	410	56	34	11.2	6.8	18.0
	132	26	22	2	2	7.7	7.7	15.4
	133	303	266	23	14	7.6	4.6	12.2
	140	206	193	1	12	0.5	5.8	6.3
	142	29	28	0	1	--	3.4	3.4
Spring 1969	010	19	17	0	2	--	10.5	10.5
	020	31	25	2	4	6.5	13	19.5
	110	39	29	5	5	12.8	12.8	25.6
	120	124	100	13	11	10.5	8.9	19.4
	130	119	94	18	7	15.1	5.9	21
	133	36	25	6	5	16.6	14	30.6
	140	578	534	19	25	3.3	4.3	7.6
	142	28	27	0	1	--	3.6	3.6
Fall 1969	110	333	282	18	33	5.4	9.9	15.3
	120	78	63	9	6	11.5	7.7	19.2
	126	6	5	0	1	--	16.6	16.6
	130	349	311	10	28	2.9	8	10.9
	132	25	24	1	0	4	--	4
	133	116	89	12	15	10.3	13	23.3

French - 2

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
	140	144	127	5	12	3.5	8.3	11.8
	142	26	23	1	2	3.8	7.6	11.4
Spring 1970	110	32	22	0	10	--	31	31
	120	82	47	0	35	--	42.5	42.5
STRIKE	133	13	10	0	3	--	23	23
	142	27	25	1	1	3.7	3.7	7.4
	144	169	157	0	12	--	7.1	7.1
	145	14	13	0	1	--	7.1	7.1
	147	36	36	0	0	--	--	--
	148	12	12	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	110	413	333	41	39	9.9	9.5	19.4
	120	124	111	7	6	5.6	4.8	10.4
	130	443	390	19	34	4.3	7.7	12.0
	132	24	21	0	3	--	12.5	12.5
	133	53	43	3	7	5.7	13.2	18.9
	142	64	57	1	6	1.6	9.4	11
	144	84	81	1	2	1.2	2.4	3.6
	145	15	14	1	0	6.7	--	6.7
	147	12	12	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1971	110	124	84	18	22	14.5	17.5	32.0
	120	340	261	45	34	13.2	10	23.2
	130	116	92	14	10	12	8.6	20.6

French - 3

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
	132	9	8	0	1	--	11.1	11.1
	133	21	16	1	4	4.8	19	23.8
	142	26	23	1	2	3.8	7.6	11.4
	144	221	196	12	13	5.4	5.9	11.3
	145	4	4	0	0	--	--	--
	147	61	59	1	1	1.6	1.6	3.2
Fall 1971	120	69	60	9	0	13	--	13
	123	255	236	18	1	7.1	0.39	7.49
	126	17	15	2	0	11.8	--	11.8
	130	386	370	15	1	3.9	0.27	4.17
	131	14	14	0	0	--	--	--
	132	21	21	0	0	--	--	--
	142	68	68	0	0	--	--	--
	144	132	126	5	1	3.8	0.76	4.56
	145	13	13	0	0	--	--	--
	146	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
	147	39	39	0	0	--	--	--

German

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	010	23	22	1	0	4.35	---	4.35
	020	12	10	1	1	8.3	8.3	16.6
	110	437	345	40	52	9.2	11.9	21.1
	112	14	11	2	1	14.3	7.2	21.5
	120	88	67	9	12	10.2	13.7	23.9
	130	336	295	21	20	6.25	5.95	12.2
	132	10	10	0	0	--	--	--
	140	131	117	8	6	6.1	4.6	10.7
Spring 1969	010	2	1	0	1	0	50	50
	020	8	5	1	2	12.5	25	37.5
	110	105	82	10	13	9.5	12.4	21.9
	120	313	265	27	21	8.6	6.7	15.3
	122	12	12	0	0	--	--	--
	130	88	68	9	11	10.2	12.5	22.7
	135	15	15	0	0	--	--	--
	140	258	229	12	17	4.65	6.6	11.25
Fall 1969	110	393	283	30	80	7.6	20.2	27.8
	112	10	9	0	1	--	10	10
	120	77	58	5	14	6.5	8.2	14.7
	130	208	169	16	23	7.7	11	18.7
	138	34	28	4	2	11.8	5.9	17.7
	132	10	8	0	2	--	20	20
	140	87	78	2	7	2.3	8	10.3

German - 2

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Spring 1970	110	93	70	0	23	--	24.8	24.8
	120	203	188	0	15	--	7.4	7.4
STRIKE	122	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
	130	67	59	0	8	--	11.9	11.9
	136	10	10	0	0	--	--	--
	140	114	99	1	14	0.88	12.3	13.18
	142	9	9	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	110	266	207	15	44	5.6	16.5	22.1
	112	11	10	0	1	--	9.1	9.1
	120	71	56	8	7	11.3	9.9	21.2
	130	174	150	10	14	5.7	8	13.7
	132	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
	138	10	9	0	1	--	10	10
	140	71	65	2	4	2.8	5.6	8.4
Spring 1971	110	83	60	7	16	8.4	19.3	27.7
	120	169	141	10	18	5.9	10.7	16.6
	122	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
	130	43	36	1	6	2.3	14	16.3
	135	4	4	0	0	--	--	--
	136	12	9	0	3	--	25	25
	138	12	12	0	0	--	--	--
	140	101	84	2	15	1.98	14.9	16.88

German - 3

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
	142	21	18	1	2	4.8	9.6	14.4
	148	20	17	0	3	--	15	15
Fall 1972	110	298	265	33	0	11.1	--	11.1
	112	34	32	2	0	5.9	--	5.9
	120	62	56	6	0	9.7	--	9.7
	130	138	125	7	0	5.1	--	5.1
	132	26	24	2	0	7.7	--	7.7
	138	15	15	0	0	--	--	--
	140	52	50	2	0	3.8	--	3.8
	142	7	7	0	0	--	--	--
	148	15	14	1	0	6.7	--	6.7

Arabic

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1971	110	16	14	1	1	6.25	6.25	12.5

Hebrew

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1971	110	39	39	0	0	--	--	--
	130	12	8	3	1	25	8.3	39.3

Armenian

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1971	110	12	12	0	0	--	--	--

Chinese

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1969		9	6	0	3	--	33.3	33.3
Spring 1970		5	4	0	1	--	20	20
STRIKE								
Fall 1970	126	15	10	2	3	13.3	20	33.3
	166	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1971	127	6	5	1	0	16.6	--	16.6
	167	2	2	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1971	126	24	23	0	1	--	4.2	4.2
	166	4	4	0	0	--	--	--

Japanese

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1969	110	12	8	3	1	25	8.3	33.3
	130	1	1	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1970	120	7	7	0	0	--	--	--
STRIKE	140	1	1	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	126	13	12	0	1	--	7.7	7.7
	130	6	4	0	2	--	33.3	33.3
Spring 1971	127	8	8	0	0	--	--	--
	140	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1971	126	13	13	0	0	--	--	--
	130	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
	260	2	2	0	0	--	--	--

Portuguese

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	25	22	0	3	--	12	12
	130	8	8	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1969	120	17	17	0	0	--	--	--
	140	7	7	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1969	110	25	18	5	2	20	8	28
	130	7	7	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1970	120	11	10	0	1	--	8.2	8.2
STRIKE	140	6	6	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	110	22	17	3	2	13.6	9.1	22.7
	130	4	3	0	1	--	25.	25
Spring 1971	120	14	13	0	1	--	7.2	7.2
	140	3	3	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1971	110	9	9	0	0	--	--	--
	126	14	13	1	0	7.2	--	7.2
	130	4	4	0	0	--	--	--

Dutch

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1969	126	8	8	0	0	---	---	---
Spring 1970 STRIKE	146	5	5	0	0	---	---	---
Fall 1970	126	7	6	1	0	14.3	---	14.3
Spring 1971	146	4	1	0	0	---	---	---
Fall 1971	126	7	6	1	0	14.3	---	14.3

Swedish

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	126	13	12	0	1	---	7.7	7.7
Spring 1969	146	10	10	0	0	---	---	---
Fall 1969	126	12	8	2	2	16.6	16.6	33.2
	140	13	9	2	2	15.4	15.4	30.8
Spring 1970 STRIKE	146	5	5	0	0	---	---	---
Fall 1970	126	17	15	0	2	---	11.8	11.8
Spring 1971	146	8	8	0	0	---	---	---
Fall 1971	126	22	19	2	1	9.1	4.55	13.65

Polish

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	14	10	1	3	7.2	21.6	28.8
	130	19	15	1	3	5.3	15.8	21.1
Spring 1969	140	5	5	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1970	110	28	23	4	1	14.3	3.6	17.9
Fall 1971	110	9	8	1	0	11.1	--	11.1
	130	5	5	0	0	--	--	--

Greek

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1968	110	20	16	1	3	5	15	20
Spring 1969	120	8	8	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1969	110	12	9	0	3	--	25	25
Spring 1970 STRIKE	140	8	6	0	2	--	25	25
Fall 1970	130	27	24	0	3	--	11.1	11.1
Spring 1971	140	28	27	0	1	--	3.6	3.6
Fall 1971	110	13	12	1	0	7.8	--	7.8

Danish

SEMESTER	COURSE NO.	TOTAL	PASS	FAIL	W	% FAIL	% W	TOTAL F & W
Fall 1970	126	4	4	0	0	--	--	--
Spring 1971	146	2	2	0	0	--	--	--
Fall 1971	126	7	6	1	0	14.3	--	14.3

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ment?" PMLA, LXXII, No. 2 (April 1957), 1-12.

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(Washington, D. C.: Dept. of State, 1961), p. 28.

[3] N. Chomsky, "Linguistic Theory," in Language Teaching:
Broader Contexts, ed. by R. C. Mead, (N. Y.: MLA, 1966),
p. 43.

[4] Denis Girard, Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching
(London: Longman, 1972), p. 11.

[5] Terminology needs clarification before this thesis
proceeds. The literature on foreign language instruction
is full of references to 'approaches,' 'methods,' and
'theories.' No two sources seem to use quite the same
definition for any of these, if there is, indeed, any
attempt at definition. Following are the definitions of
these terms as they will be used in this thesis:
Method - a set of techniques used in teaching foreign
languages (example: repetition exercises combined with
pattern drills).
Approach - a framework of instruction which defines the
various combinations of techniques which can be used to
achieve specific goals (example: Audio-Lingual Approach).
Theory - a statement regarding the nature of language and
of language learning (example: Cognitive Code-Learning
Theory).

[6] Gerald E. Logan, "Curricula for Individualized
Instruction." Britannica Review of Foreign Language
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[7] Throughout this chapter, 'language acquisition' refers
to the native language and 'language learning' to foreign
languages.

[8] Karl C. Diller, Generative Grammar, Structural
Linguistics and Language Teaching (Rowley, Mass.:
Newbury House, 1971), p. 9.

[9] Ibid., p. 275.

[10]L. Bloomfield, _Language_ (N. Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1933), p. 29.

[11]_Ibid._, p. 21.

[12]Ferdinand De Saussure, _Course in General Linguistics_ (N. Y.: Philosophical Library, 1959), p. 124.

[13]_Ibid._, p. 13.

[14]B. F. Skinner, _Verbal Behavior_ (N. Y.: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957), p. 423.

[15]_Ibid._, p. 411.

[16]_Ibid._, p. 422.

[17]_Ibid._, pp. 29-30.

[18]C. Hockett, _A Course in Modern Linguistics_ (N. Y.: Macmillan, 1958) p. 425.

[19]Nelson Brooks, _Language and Language Learning_ (N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1960), p. 19.

[20]Wilga M. Rivers, _The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher_ (Chicago: Chicago Un. Press, 1964), p. 19.

[21]R. L. Politzer, _Teaching French: An Introduction to Applied Linguistics_ (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1961), p. 17.

[22]W. Freeman Twaddell, "Meanings, Habits, and Rules," _Education_, CLIC (1948), p. 77.

[23]L. Bloomfield, _Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages_ (Baltimore: Linguistic Society of America, 1942), p. 16. (In a way, a similar principle seems to be at the base of the generative-transformational argumentation by which a statement is considered to be correct if it is acceptable to a native speaker).

[24]_Ibid._, p. 1.

[25]_Ibid._, p. 1.

[26]_Ibid._, p. 11.

[27]N. Chomsky, "Linguistic Theory," in Language Teaching: Broader Contexts, ed. by R. C. Mead, (N. Y.: MLA, 1966), p. 43.

[28]E. Lenneberg, "The Capacity for Language Acquisition," in Structure of Language, J. Fodor and J. J. Katz (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 589.

[29]Ibid., pp. 589-590.

[30]N. Chomsky and M. Halle, The Sound Pattern of English (N. Y.: Harper & Row, 1968).

[31]Lenneberg, p. 586.

[32]E. Sapir, Language (N. Y.: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1921), pp. 1-2.

[33]N. Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (Cambridge Mass.: MIT Press, 1965), p. 48 (also in Chomsky and Halle, The Sound Pattern of English, p. 1).

[34]Lenneberg, p. 593.

[35]Ibid., p. 592.

[36]It should be mentioned here that generative-transformational linguists have not been too interested in the area of FL learning. As Chomsky states, "From our knowledge of the organization of language the principles that determine language structure and cannot immediately construct a teaching program--"Linguistic Theory," p. 45.

[37]Rule in this context is discussed as specifying a sound-meaning connection.

[38]Chomsky, Aspects, p. 4.

[39]N. Chomsky, Cartesian Linguistics (N. Y.: Harper & Row, 1966), p. 42.

[40]Ibid., p. 29.

[41]S. Saporta, "Applied Linguistics and Generative Grammar," in Trends in Language Teaching, A. Valdman (N. Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1966), p. 84.

[42]R. L. Politzer, <u>Foreign Language Learning</u> (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. vi.

[43]Chomsky, <u>Cartesian</u>, p. 13.

[44]<u>Ibid</u>., p. 29.

[45]B. Spolsky, "Linguistics and Language Pedagogy-- Applications or implications?" in <u>Monograph Series, 29th Round Table</u>, ed. by J. E. Alatis (Washington, D. C.: Georgetown Un. Press, 1970), pp. 150-153.

[46]Robert L. Politzer, "Toward Individualization in Foreign Language Teaching," in <u>Individualizing the FL Classroom</u>, H. B. Altman (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1972), p. 53.

[47]Ronald L. Gougher, <u>Individualization of Instruction in Foreign Languages</u> (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1972), p. 1.

[48]H. B. Altman, <u>Individualizing the FL Classroom</u> (Rowley Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1972), pp. 1-13.

[49]H. B. Altman, "The Three R's of Individualization: Reeducation, Responsibility, and Relevance," <u>Foreign Language Annals</u>, Vol. 6, No. 2 (Dec. 1972), 206.

[50]Report of the Committee on Curriculum Development for Individualized Foreign Language Instruction, in <u>Individualizing FL Instruction</u>, H. B. Altman (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1971), p. 156.

[51]The information contained here was related in a conversation by C. Isbell of the Classics Dept. at UMass, about his personal experience.

[52]This approach to learning is an outgrowth of the educational philosophy of John Dewey in the 1920's and 1930's, and the Progressive Education movement of that era. For various reasons it had been abandoned, to a large extent, in this country, but was adapted and developed in Britain. Only in recent years has the movement for open education been gaining widespread support in the U. S.

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[55]Ruth C. Flurry, "Open Education: What is it?" in Open Education, W. B. Nyquist, p. 103.

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[58]Ibid., p. 6 (Appendix B).

[59]Nyquist, pp. 1-2.

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[61]Joseph Agasi, interview in "Maariv," March 22, 1973, p. 8.

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[72] *Ibid.*, p. 103.

[73] *Ibid.*, p. 104.

[74] *Ibid.*, p. 103.

[75] *Ibid.*, p. 105.

[76] Mackey, p. 152.

[77] *Ibid.*, p. 152.

[78] *Ibid.*, p. 152.

[79] Childers, p. 36.

[80] *Ibid.*, p. 38.

[81] Mackey, p. 152.

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