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HANDBOOK OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

By

Keith D. Crosbie

B.A., Whitman College, 1948

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

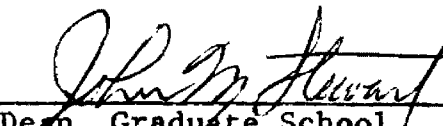
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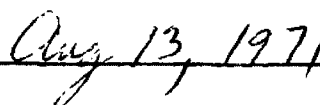
UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA

1971

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INTRODUCTION

Up to the present moment, the State of Montana has not had a curriculum guide of any kind for foreign languages, and the need has been expressed frequently for such a document. The first question that arises has to do with the nature and composition of such a guide: What should it contain, and how should it be organized?

The most superficial investigation leads to the conclusion that many curriculum guides are not heavily used by the teachers for whom they are intended. In most cases, the reasons given have to do with the fact that many guides emphasize the problems of scope and sequence to the exclusion of all else, and come to be miniature textbooks. Many such guides are very prescriptive and attempt to provide samples of every kind of drill the foreign language teacher may encounter. When this procedure is multiplied by five or six languages, the guide becomes unwieldy and remains unused.

This Handbook is different in that it avoids being prescriptive, and does not attempt to sample everything that teachers have in their textbooks. The emphasis has been placed on providing answers to the questions that most foreign language teachers and school administrators ask from time to time. The decision of what questions or problems to include was based on the experience of seven years as a language consultant, and on personal knowledge of the continuing problems of the profession as reflected in the literature. Many questions have no specific answers, but attempts have been made to suggest possible solutions.

Foreign language education in Montana suffers the same vagaries that afflict the profession nationally, and enrollments for the school year that began in fall of 1970 were down by almost six per cent over the previous year. The State suffered a net loss of eleven schools compared to the previous year. That is, there are eleven more schools without a foreign language program this school year than last.

It is not known how much effect a curriculum handbook may have on the current situation, but it is one more weapon in the arsenal, and hopefully will provide guidance to teachers and school administrators alike. Every effort has been made to adapt ideas to the particular realities that exist here: many small schools and a scattered population. Conceivably a curriculum document that covers the right problems might be of more need here than a similar work in a state that is composed differently. Montana needs strong foreign language programs as does every other part of the country, and it is to be hoped that the solutions proposed in this Handbook will supply some of the answers to this need.

Chapter I

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

WHY STUDY A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?

What benefit should a student reasonably expect to derive from foreign language study? What will it do for him? What is the real nature of the contribution which foreign language study should make? Does it go beyond the question of jobs, travel, or the college requirement? In short, what are the "best" reasons for foreign language study?

A careful consideration of these questions seems particularly appropriate at the present moment. The foreign language profession once again finds itself required to justify its existence even though as recently as the late fifties and early sixties foreign language study was declared to be a problem involving national defense. At the moment, instead of special institutes for language teachers and the varied benefits of the National Defense Education Act, we have the discontinuance of the institutes, drastic cuts in Federal funds for such programs, and a kind of general disenchantment with foreign language study which seems to have found its greatest expression in the debates surrounding the college foreign language requirement, and surrounding the question of the value of foreign language study in general.

The questions appearing in the first paragraph above are valid, in spite of the fact that it is quite reasonable to explain the changing situation in terms of the curious cycles through which American education

seems bound to pass. There are many important reasons for foreign language study and they need to be restated, but in terms of the world as it is now and as it might be over the next few years.

First of all, twentieth century science has transformed man's earlier concepts of distance and of space into something much less limited. There is no longer any room for narrow provincial thinking. Man's community is now the world, whether he likes it or not. Scientific advances have allowed more movement from place to place than before, more interaction among human beings everywhere than before, and the problems of mutual understanding have become critical. Foreign language study is simply one of the tools that education must use effectively in preparing man to perform adequately in a world context, and in solving some of the problems of human relationships. In other words, foreign language study should make its most valuable contribution in the area of the humanistic development of the learner, humanistic being simply defined as that process which emphasizes the human qualities of man--the attributes by which he is distinguished from other beings. The humanities as a body of knowledge are concerned with the cultural heritage of man, and with his goals and values. There is always concern for the individual and for his responsibilities as a member of the human community.

Learning the language of another people is a direct cultural experience that should not be denied to anyone. The process begins with the realization that the "other fellow" does exist, that he may have a different point of view, and that he has a right to his point of view--that mere difference is no reason to withhold respect! The awareness and acceptance of this principle is the essence of the humanistic ideal--and what foreign language study is all about.

The first-hand experience of a foreign culture should help to remove the greatest natural enemies of international understanding: the suspicions and antipathies which are usually based on fears engendered by psychological reactions to "foreignness." Language is one of man's most intimate possessions, and no more accurate index can be found to tell us what he is really like, how he thinks, why he acts the way he does, in short, how he truly is. A person who has never had contact with a second language can only see the world over a very narrow horizon, and it is unthinkable that any educated man or woman in these times should accept such an unnecessary limitation.

Another aspect of the question is the insight into the nature of one's own language which the student gets as he studies a second one. For the first time he is able to observe from a more objective vantage point, and to see his own language in contrast. He meets the perplexing difficulties caused by semantic differences, and the whole question of meaning. He encounters the problem of concepts that are not parallel from one language to another. He becomes aware of the limitations as well as the richness of the tongue to which he was born. This is the basis of the frequent claim that one understands his own language better by studying another.

It is quite true that the world is multilingual and a person could only hope to master a very few of its many languages at most. But it is equally true that learning even one foreign language is a vast improvement over learning none. It is also quite likely that the emphasis of many foreign language programs is not such that the student will derive all of the benefits to which he is entitled, but this fact only points up the need for careful consideration of program goals, and of proper planning

so that specific objectives may be met. The fact that goals are at times not reached does not in any way negate the effort to reach them.

To declare that the "best" reasons for foreign language study are humanistic, having to do with helping man to interact more effectively with his foreign counterparts who may think, act, or look differently, is not by any means to ignore the more specific or immediately practical benefits which can accrue from such study. There are many tangible rewards within easy reach of those who have mastered a second language. The range of possibilities is almost limitless, as foreign language proficiency can be combined with nearly any vocational pursuit. Some of the more obvious areas where foreign language skills might be applied are: scholarly research and interchange, business and commerce, government service, diplomacy, private industry, leisure activities, travel, translating and interpreting, educational work, the military, etc. (Please consult the chapter bibliography for references containing more complete treatment of the question of vocational opportunities).

It is most important that teachers give beginning students good reasons for foreign language study, but the whole question should be discussed frequently even with more advanced classes, as this procedure helps to give meaning to many of the activities they are asked to perform. Each student should have a clear idea of what foreign language study can do for him, in the broad areas of human relationships, as well as in the pragmatic field of vocational considerations.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The important factor in the consideration of program goals and objectives is the benefit received by teachers themselves as they go

through the process of deciding what they would like the course to emphasize, and what they hope students will get out of it. The only goals or objectives that carry any meaning ultimately are those agreed upon by the persons who are required to carry them out. It is always a fruitful exercise for any teacher to identify and formulate program objectives in clear and realistic terms, but it is even more useful and necessary for those teachers in large districts where many schools are involved in the same program.

From the standpoint of an entire state, program goals can be expressed only in very general terms, but some broad statements can be made which should be adapted and made specific enough to have meaning for individual schools and teachers. The following statements are a suggested list of minimum broad goals which foreign language programs in Montana should attempt to attain:

1. Emphasize foreign language as a communicative skill, and consciously design programs with this in mind.
2. Provide the student with maximum opportunities leading to reasonable control of the basic fundamentals of the target language.
3. Present the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in a systematic way so as to effectively prevent the omission of any skill.
4. Help students develop an attitude of sympathy and respect for people of another culture through an accurate knowledge of their value systems.
5. Help students develop insights based on the literary and artistic heritage of the people whose language is being studied.

6. Bring the student to a greater awareness of the nature and functioning of language in general.

Broad goals are intended to represent over-all or long-term aims of a program, and have no real significance unless consideration is given to the question of implementation. What must be done, for example, to insure that students will in fact develop an attitude of sympathy and respect for the people whose culture they are studying? What is meant by "basic fundamentals of the target language?" Such questions must be answered by teachers for themselves in specific terms if broad goals are to have any meaning. It is a mistake to assume that the solution will be provided by the textbook. Most books offer a wide range of choices from which the teacher may select, depending upon what is being emphasized. If objectives can be clearly stated in terms of expected outcomes and student performance, there is far greater likelihood that broad goals will in fact have meaning.

Many teachers have received training in formalized techniques of writing instructional objectives, and if the process itself is not allowed to become too complicated or involved, such training can be very helpful. Robert Mager's excellent manual on the subject is highly recommended.¹

WHO SHOULD STUDY A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?

If the basic purpose of education is to prepare man to respond adequately to his environment, and to develop his talents to their maximum potential, then all students should have the opportunity to study a foreign language.

The world is composed of many languages and many peoples, and every student needs the direct experience of another culture which lang-

uage study provides. It is true that aptitudes differ and some students may not be able to do the more analytical work required at the upper levels, but this does not negate the benefits that they might derive from the beginning levels, if the course is presented with emphasis on the active skills. It is always easier to design courses for students of proven scholastic ability, but it seems highly undesirable to limit quality education to an elite group.

WHEN AND FOR HOW LONG?

Many of the objectives which schools and teachers often set for their language programs are simply not attainable in the usual two-year sequence. Four years of foreign language study seem to be a reasonable minimum if the student is to acquire proper balance in the use of the various skills, and anything below that must be considered less than ideal. The United States is one of the only countries in the world where foreign language study is treated in such a strange manner--demanding "mastery" on the one hand, and offering the student short, unrealistic sequences on the other.

Many school districts have had good success presenting the first level in the seventh and eighth grades, which allows the student to enjoy a six-year sequence. Furthermore, many of the activities identified with an oral approach appear to be more acceptable to younger students than they are during the later high school years. This "earlier the better" attitude would also indicate that quality programs should start in the elementary school. There is no specific agreement as to the optimum age for beginning foreign language study, but many programs seem to favor the third or fourth grades. There are other considerations that are important to

foreign language study in the elementary school, and these will be covered in a later chapter, but there seems to be no doubt that young children can learn foreign languages easily, and with great accuracy.² It is a pity that schools do not find it feasible to take advantage of this rare potential more often.

WHICH LANGUAGE?

The reasons for choosing one language over another usually have to do with practical considerations such as teacher availability, strong ethnic strains within the community, and the fact that modern materials are still only available for the common European languages: Spanish, French, German, and to a lesser extent Russian. Latin is still taught in many schools although the number of students studying Latin has diminished in recent years. All languages are important since they are used to communicate the ideas of human beings, and it is difficult if not impossible to support a thesis that suggests that one language is "better" than another. If a student is clear about his future vocational interests, it is possible that a particular language may have more specific application for him, but generally any language is valuable as a cultural experience for the student.

The question of how easy or how hard a given language may be, is also a doubtful basis for making a choice. Some languages do contain features that may present special problems for speakers of English, such as the Russian alphabet, but student aptitudes differ so widely that it is difficult to be sure about the whole question of language difficulty as far as the individual student is concerned. This is especially true if the comparison involves languages of a similar group, such as the

Romance languages.

Because Latin is no longer a spoken language, it may be considered by some to be irrelevant. This is not the case, as the roots of Western civilization are deeply embedded in Latin culture, and have been under its influence for some 2,000 years. Perhaps the renewed interest in the humanities during recent years will bring Latin studies back into perspective. In any case, teachers of modern foreign languages are encouraged to support the Latin program for the many contributions of a cultural nature which it can make to a student's education.

Regardless of which language is offered, it is important that the sequence be long enough to allow the student a chance to study it in some depth. A second language should not be introduced into the curriculum until a long sequence has been well established in the first language. It is generally considered more likely by the profession that program objectives having to do with the active use of the language will be met if the student studies it for four years than if he could study two different languages for two years each. Most large districts offer many languages, and the depth of any one language program is usually controlled by enrollment, but at least one of the languages should be available in real depth (six-year sequence or more) and all sequences should terminate with the student's last year in high school, to avoid gaps for those going on to college.

REFERENCES, Chapter I

¹Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives (Fearon Publishers, 1962).

²Wilder Penfield and L. Roberts, Speech and Brain Mechanisms (Princeton, N.J., 1959), p. 255.

Chapter II

ELEMENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE PROGRAM

THE TEACHER

Good foreign language programs do not happen accidentally. They are the result of the work of many people, and of many elements in the school situation. The most important, by far, of these elements is the teacher, but it is not enough to say simply that any classroom experience will have a better chance with a good teacher. An effective foreign language teacher must be much more than those teachers normally described as "good." He must possess certain personal attributes, such as those discussed below, in addition to the purely technical competencies normally associated with foreign language teaching. It has been difficult for research specialists to identify the characteristics common to "good" foreign language teachers, but one such study completed at Stanford University by Politzer and Weiss in 1969, did manage to identify certain general characteristics of the technical variety that seemed to be present in the work of most teachers who had been identified as "good." The composite picture of the "successful teacher" that emerged, is that of a person who:

- (1) Gives students the opportunity to respond freely.
- (2) Switches frequently from one kind of drill to another, particularly to those requiring linguistic manipulation.
- (3) Uses visual aids.
- (4) Has spent time in the foreign country.

(5) Performs well on the listening part of the MLA-ETS tests.¹

The first three characteristics describe a teacher who involves students actively and who uses a varied approach in the classroom. The last two suggest that "good" foreign language teachers control the language fairly well, and have been sufficiently motivated to visit the foreign country for direct experience in the language.

While these conclusions are reasonably predictable, Politzer and Weiss made certain inferences regarding the personal attributes of a good teacher that are perhaps more important for our purposes. They underscored the importance of innovation and flexibility on the part of the teacher, and made the following statement concerning the personal area:

The findings of this study suggest the hypothesis that the efficiency of the individual teacher increases with the amount of his personal stake and personal contribution to the instructional processes.²

It is precisely this "personal contribution" that moves the teacher into the category of "superior," and helps to produce a truly effective program. Some of the areas in which this type of teacher will operate include the following:

(1) He will be a good salesman for the program. Some disciplines occupy a position of high priority in the school curriculum. Foreign languages have never enjoyed a permanent spot on this scale, and the harsh reality is that they must be "resold" from time to time, even to the educational community. This may seem strange in view of the reality of the world about us, and in view of what is common practice in most other countries, but being able to "sell" the language program to a variety of clients--school personnel, parents, the student himself--is

one of the surest ways to develop a strong program and to reduce the dropout between levels. The reasons for foreign language study may seem perfectly obvious to the language teacher, but the situation may be quite different for a person whose education has not included a second language.

If the language teacher is to help in overcoming this limitation, he must be clear in his own mind on the reasons for foreign language study, especially those that go beyond mere utilitarian considerations.

(2) He will be the "willing" local authority on foreign language matters. In most school districts the foreign language teacher is the only person who knows what is going on in the profession and he must not be reluctant to provide information or advice when necessary. This problem is somewhat simpler in districts large enough to have a department chairman or supervisor.

(3) He will be a contributing professional in the best sense of the word: aware of the movements and currents within the profession, giving active support to state and national organizations whose aim is the improvement and strengthening of language teaching.

The classroom teacher is the direct link to the student and his importance in the scheme of things cannot be overemphasized. Good language programs are built on more than technical competence alone, and the personal contribution of the teacher will probably make the difference.

THE ADMINISTRATOR

It is almost an axiom that truly effective foreign language programs are only found where strong administrative support and direction exist. This is especially true in small schools where the program can change drastically--and does--from one year to another, depending on

administrative attitudes. Next to the teacher, the administrator is the most significant element in the process of developing a good language program. The term administrative support is a reference to the kind of school administrator who encourages a strong foreign language program, because he understands that it is an important element in the general education of anyone who must live in these complex times. The location of a school in an isolated or rural setting makes it even more necessary that administrators make every effort to provide their students with this mind-broadening experience.

One of the areas where administrative attitudes can make a significant difference is the area of advanced level offerings. Upper level classes in any subject area tend to be somewhat expensive because enrollment is frequently small. In the case of foreign languages, it may take a few years to firmly establish these courses. Since most of the objectives which schools and teachers set for their programs are simply not attainable in a short two-year sequence, administrative support is vital if longer sequences of three and four years are to become a reality.

Another area of vital importance to a state like Montana is teacher participation in the activities of their professional organizations. All teachers should be encouraged to attend their annual conference, and whenever possible, some financial assistance should be offered to those who must travel a great distance. For many teachers this conference is the only opportunity during the year to discuss professional problems with peers, to meet with teachers from the college and university level, and generally to be exposed to new perspectives and new opinions.

The responsibility of the school administration is to provide the kind of atmosphere in which good programs can flourish. Foreign language teachers, like all teachers, need administrative encouragement to grow,

to learn, to change, to create, in short, to make the really personal contribution referred to earlier.

THE COUNSELOR

It is most important that foreign language teachers maintain a close relationship with the personnel who counsel students. Each day high school counselors give information and advice about a variety of topics directly affecting the foreign language program, and it makes good sense to work closely with them for the ultimate benefit of the student.

Foreign language study is a highly specialized field and many of the basic philosophies and procedures have been changing rapidly from one year to another. It is most difficult even for persons actively involved within the profession to keep up to date with these changes, and the school counselor will have an impossible task unless he can get help from the foreign language department.

A good listing of the areas about which counselors should be informed appears in a United States Office of Education brochure, Modern Foreign Languages, A Counselor's Guide. The topics are as follows:

- (1) Why study a foreign language?
- (2) Who should study a foreign language?
- (3) When should the study begin?
- (4) How long should the pupil study a foreign language?
- (5) Which language should a pupil study?
- (6) Can success in the study of a foreign language be predetermined?
- (7) How are communication skills developed?
- (8) Are there opportunities for out-of-school practice?

- (9) What vocational opportunities are there for using foreign language competencies?
- (10) What about college entrance and degree requirements in foreign languages?

A simple workable solution to the information problem between counselors and foreign language teachers is to have regularly scheduled meetings attended by both groups, at which time there is an exchange of information and ideas, as well as discussion of mutual problems. Schools that have used this approach have found it very helpful. Foreign language teachers should see that counselors are informed about pertinent articles that appear in the professional journals from time to time that have a bearing on the work that counselors do in advising students. A copy of this State Handbook should be available to every counselor in the State, as most of the topics listed by the U. S. Office of Education are discussed therein.

LENGTH OF SEQUENCE

The teacher, the administrator, and the counselor have been designated as important elements of any effective foreign language program, but there are certain other factors that must be included in the list of "elements," because of their far-reaching effect on language programs. The length of sequence, or how long students study the language, is one of these. In recent years the number of students studying foreign languages in high school has increased dramatically, but there is still only a relatively small group who go beyond two years. In all languages, fourth-year enrollments in fall 1965 were less than a tenth of the number that started their study in fall 1962.⁴ More recent statistics are not yet available, but it is doubtful that this situation has improved appreciably.

Foreign language study that is restricted to a short two-year sequence can attain only limited results. If control of the basic functions of a language--the sound system, vocabulary, syntax, etc.--is the broad purpose of a high school language program, then most of this is manifestly impossible in two years. The short sequence, furthermore, effectively prevents much exposure to those areas that will probably be of most interest to serious students: in-depth study of the foreign culture, some contact with the history, literature, and political characteristics of the foreign nation, and use of the language in reasonably free conversation. There seems to be little doubt that at least some of the apparent disenchantment with foreign language study at the moment must be ascribed to simple frustration arising from high expectations which have not been met mainly because the time allotted to study of the language was not long enough. The foreign language profession has boldly described what is possible under new approaches to language teaching, without clearly stating the most important condition: a sequence long enough to make it happen.

The two-year sequence is a good beginning but should be considered no more than that. It is unrealistic to lead students to expect results that are not possible in such a short time. An effective program should offer at least four years--or more--of language study, and students should be counseled to study one language in depth before going on to another.

PROGRAM COORDINATION

Lack of program coordination must be considered the most serious and persistent problem that exists among districts large enough to have

more than one school in the same program, but not large enough to afford a language coordinator. The situation is especially acute where students from two or more junior high schools attend one senior high school. Many of these districts have fine individual teachers whose talents are dissipated by the absence of any kind of organized program. As will be evident from research cited below, lack of program coordination results in student under-achievement in foreign language classes.

Under a research contract with the U. S. Office of Education, Pinsleur, Sundland, and McIntyre performed a study of under-achievement in foreign language learning at Ohio State University in 1963. The quotations that follow cover their conclusions concerning the problem of program coordination and the transition from level to level:

Coordination is important in any subject, but it is particularly important in foreign languages. A study of the performance of 290 students in five major subjects showed that foreign languages are more sequential--that is, future learning depends more on previous learning--than mathematics, English, history, or science. Therefore, foreign languages, more than any other subject require a coordinated program to ensure orderly progress through successive stages of learning.

The transition from junior to senior high school is especially difficult. A study of second-year grades showed that students who made this transition received poorer grades than those who remained in the same school for both years of the language, whether in a junior or a senior high. Evidently, the need is acute for coordination between junior and senior high schools.

. . . it becomes apparent that what is lacking is more than just coordination--it is commitment to a foreign language program, a set of fundamental agreements as to the objectives to be attained in each foreign language course, the step-by-step means of achieving them, and the delegation of authority to ensure that the program is carried through as agreed. A strong case can be made to the effect that the lack of a unified program, agreed to and carried out by all teachers in all schools, is one of the chief causes of under-achievement in foreign language learning.⁵

It is evident from this study that good coordination of foreign language programs is a high priority item, and that this year's language class is deeply affected by how well it is related to last year's class.

Problems of coordination can be minimized if the school district will arrange for regular meetings of the entire foreign language staff approximately once each month. These meetings need not be lengthy, but should allow for all the teachers of a particular language to come together for mutual planning and discussion. The adoption of the same textbook series by all the schools in a district does not by itself insure proper coordination. Mutual decisions must be made on a continuing basis about a vast array of details: the quantity of material to be covered, the whole question of approach and emphasis, the presentation of aspects of the foreign culture, the use of special materials, and many other items of this kind. Regardless of how many levels or schools are involved, there is really only one program, and coordination must be approached on this basis. The delegation of authority for these tasks is discussed in the next section of this chapter.

PROGRAM SUPERVISION

Any foreign language program involving many teachers in different schools, should have one person delegated to perform certain administrative functions such as those described in the preceding section. Unless supervision is provided for in this way, it is unlikely that the program will be properly coordinated. A department chairman in one building, or a general curriculum coordinator for the district cannot perform the functions necessary to coordinate the entire program.

If the district is not large enough for a full-time language coordinator, a simple solution is to allow released time to one of the regular staff members for the work of coordination and supervision. This person should have authority to work in all the schools in the district,

and to direct the task of program planning and coordination. Some such delegation of responsibility is an absolute necessity if the problems of transition from junior to senior high school are to be avoided.

A worthwhile project for any district, especially for one with more than one foreign language teacher, is to design a complete program, covering every detail of emphasis, philosophy, and procedure, within the context of the local situation. A plan of this sort can be revised whenever necessary--at least each year--and is infinitely more meaningful than more general state or national programs. Teachers new to the district will find this arrangement very helpful, and all teachers will enjoy the sensation of working towards common objectives mutually agreed upon by all. Finally, the greatest beneficiary of a well-coordinated, well-supervised program is the foreign language student.

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Chapter III

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION -- SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

THE CONCEPT OF LEVELS

In most foreign language circles, the concept of "levels" has replaced the idea of "years" as a standard or level of achievement. Foreign language programs can begin at almost any point in the curriculum, and frequently do, therefore the term "year" has become largely meaningless, since it may take much more than one year to complete work which is normally done in one year at the high school level. A level is a standard of achievement, an amount of work, a body of material, which may require varying amounts of time for completion, depending on the grade or age of the students in question.

In simple terms, Level I is the beginning or basic foreign language course which is usually completed in one year by a high school class that meets every day for a full period each week. Book I of most high school textbook series corresponds roughly to Level I, although it has proved difficult to complete the work in one year in the case of certain books. When the program begins in the lower grades, much more time may be required to complete one level of work. While the boundaries between successive levels must be recognized as arbitrary, it is possible to give certain general specifications concerning approximately what should be achieved by the end of each level. A description of competence by levels, however, is best written by the teachers of a particular district for each language in their program. Thus, it is possible to take

into account all of the local factors that might affect the progress of the student. What follows is an example of a general description of expected outcomes according to level.

Level I

Demonstrate control of the sound system in listening and speaking activities.

Understand the language when spoken by a fluent speaker at normal speed within the content scope of this level.

Carry on a simple conversation with a fluent speaker, within the content limits of this level.

Read aloud a familiar text.

Write a familiar text from dictation.

Do orally and in writing exercises that involve limited manipulation of grammatical changes, using topics that have appeared at this level, (gender, tense, command, etc.).

Demonstrate an introductory knowledge of the life customs, geography and culture of the people whose language is being studied.

Level II

Demonstrate continued accurate control of the sound system.

Demonstrate comprehension of the language by appropriate verbal or written response.

Participate with a fluent speaker in a dialogue about any one of perhaps twenty situations.

Recognize and use all of the basic syntactic patterns of speech.

Demonstrate direct reading comprehension by appropriate verbal or written responses to content questions or other comprehension checks.

Be able to write all that can be spoken.

Demonstrate specific knowledge regarding the life, customs, geography, and culture of the foreign people.

Have firsthand knowledge of brief samples of cultural and of contemporary literary prose, and be able to converse in simple terms about them.

Level III

Demonstrate continued accurate control of the sound system.

Attain increasing competence in understanding the foreign language when spoken by a native at normal tempo and on topics within the scope of this level.

Demonstrate the ability to speak with sufficient clarity to be understood by a native, on a variety of topics within the scope of this level.

Demonstrate accurate control of all the basic vocabulary and syntactic patterns of speech appropriate to this level.

Read new material in the foreign language with direct comprehension and with appreciation.

Write the foreign language correctly in brief original compositions, without resorting to translation.

Acquire specific knowledge regarding the geography, history, economic life, and educational and political institutions of the foreign people.

Develop esthetic appreciation through a study of the art, music, literature, and contemporary art forms of the foreign people.

Level IV

Demonstrate continued accurate control of all the basic functions of the language (phonological, morphological, etc.).

Demonstrate competence in understanding the foreign language when spoken by natives on radio, television, news broadcasts, etc.

Converse with a fluent speaker on a topic such as a play seen, a novel read, a trip taken, or any other real-life experience.

Read a text; then, in writing, (a) summarize its contents and (b) comment on the ideas expressed. Write from dictation, passages of literary prose.

Demonstrate increased competence in reading with direct comprehension, selected short stories, plays, novels, and newspaper and magazine articles of moderate difficulty.

Demonstrate increased competence in writing free compositions, letters, summaries, etc.

Show evidence of increasing depth of esthetic appreciation from

study of the art, music, literature, and contemporary art forms of the foreign people.

Show evidence of the ability to comprehend the situations, emotions, ideas and implications expressed in selected literary works of the foreign language.

No description of specific competences for Levels V and VI is being given. At these levels, the basic language skills are maintained and perfected, but emphasis is usually upon the reading of cultural and literary material, with an increase in the amount of free composition writing. Chapter IX contains specific suggestions regarding the possible content of the advanced levels.

PROGRAM SEQUENCES

The Two-Year Sequence

In the first chapter the two-year program was declared to be unsatisfactory insofar as the attainment of objectives beyond a most limited category is concerned. However, the reality of the situation is that the majority of foreign language programs in Montana fall into this group and cannot be ignored. In the fall of 1970, only nine percent of Montana foreign language students in grades seven to twelve were enrolled in classes beyond the second-year level, and longer sequences are to be found only in a handful of schools. It is clear that the two-year program is the standard in this State and merits whatever can be done to improve it. Schools should continue the effort to lengthen the sequence for reasons already stated, but should consider carefully the following recommendations concerning the two-year program, as long as it does exist:

- (1) It should begin in the junior year to allow the second year of the language to coincide with the student's last year in high school.

In this way, those students who continue foreign language study in college would not be faced with a serious "gap," which often means that the student must begin again, or must change to another language. The only reason to start before the junior year is to facilitate a sequence longer than two years.

(2) Some thought should be given to using a textbook of the transitional variety rather than Levels I and II of a completely audio-lingual series. A transitional book is defined as one that attempts to combine certain audio-lingual attributes and techniques with more traditional coverage of vocabulary, grammar, and cultural material. Books being defined as "completely audio-lingual" are usually based on the expectation that the student will be studying the language for more than two years. The active vocabulary is a relatively reduced number of items, cultural coverage is spaced over a longer period, and the student is expected to spend more time practicing the sound system, leaving many other areas to be covered in Levels III and IV. Furthermore, many schools have found it impossible to complete Levels I and II in two years, which all seems to mean that not a great deal of any one skill is well mastered.

Without specifically naming textbooks, transitional materials can usually be recognized by some or all of the following features: vocabulary lists in each lesson, detailed grammar explanations accompanied by many written exercises, separate reading selections beginning with the first lesson, dialogue material that need not be memorized, and relatively lengthy sections treating cultural topics.

The foregoing should by no means be interpreted as a denial of the advantages of introducing the language as an active skill. It is a plea for careful consideration of program objectives within the context

of what is possible in two years, and it is a suggestion that a balanced approach might be better if the student can study the language for only two years. This might mean slightly less emphasis on purely audio-lingual skills, and somewhat more emphasis on reading, grammar analysis, and the acquisition of vocabulary and cultural background. The teacher is urged to make his own decision on this question in the light of his particular situation, and to take into account his experience and skill in supplementing the deficiencies of the textbook.

Three and Four-Year Sequences

It must be stated categorically that any high school in Montana, regardless of size, can have a foreign language program covering at least three years if the school administration supports such a program, and if there is good teaching and good counseling. A few such programs already exist in some schools, but the number remains small. Three-year programs may not complete three full levels of instruction, but can still constitute a good beginning to further work in the language. The last year of any sequence should always coincide with the student's last year in high school, for reasons already stated.

A four-year program that begins in the ninth grade should provide a reasonably complete foundation upon which a student can build for future language achievement. If the ninth grade is part of a junior high school program, great care must be exercised to see that proper coordination exists between schools. There is no reason that ninth grade students should have any problem with the Level I materials that are normally used in the tenth grade, provided that contact hours and quality of teaching remain roughly the same. If the program starts in the eighth grade, however, it is generally considered inadvisable to try to complete

Level I in one year. A few companies have designed materials specifically planned for use in grades seven and eight.

Junior High School Programs

If a school district desires to institute a quality foreign language program with a sequence longer than four years, it means starting in the junior high school at some point before the ninth grade. A common arrangement is to start Level I in the seventh grade and complete it in the eighth. Scheduling will be much simpler if this objective is adhered to and students are in fact ready for Level II when they enter the ninth grade. This means that contact time must be enough to allow this to happen, and it is important to plan this segment of the program very carefully, as a variety of schedules are frequently used in junior high schools, and there is much variation in the amount of time available for language programs. It is difficult to be specific about exactly how much time will be needed to complete a level of work, as there are many factors to consider, and no two situations are exactly alike, but a general rule of thumb is to allot from 125--150 minutes per week to the program. A good schedule would allow a class meeting each day for thirty minutes, which is somewhat better than three times per week for fifty minutes. The sequential nature of foreign languages makes daily meetings very desirable.

If a lesser amount of time must be allotted to the program, the course should be carefully planned to make every effort to complete Level I before the student passes to the ninth grade. Most schools will offer Level I again at the ninth or tenth grades--or both-- and it is extremely important that the students who started the program in the seventh grade continue along a line of planned progression. There is not

much point in finishing Level I in the eighth grade if there is no provision for Level II in the ninth.

It is worth mentioning again that the effectiveness of long-sequence foreign language programs depends upon careful planning and continuous coordination to avoid the discouragement and boredom which students feel if they are subjected to a repetitious series of "beginnings," as often happens in programs that have not been properly planned. Precise realistic benchmarks must be established for each section of the program, and all of the parts must be aware of their relationship to the whole. The question of coordination will again appear in Chapter V during the detailed discussion of FLES programs.

Some of the possible alternatives relative to various sequences appear on the next page in graphic form, but it is well to remember that each district should design a sequence that matches its own program needs. It is neither necessary, nor always possible, to complete levels according to a prescribed plan, but a systematic approach to program planning does minimize problems of coordination.

SUGGESTED SEQUENCES

GRADES

LEVELS I -- VI

3						
4						
5	----- I					
6						
7	----- II	I				
8						
9	----- III	II	I			
10	----- IV	III	II	I		
11	----- V	IV	III	II	I	
12	----- VI	V	IV	III	II	

Chapter IV

METHOD OR TEACHING APPROACH

THE CONCEPT OF METHOD AS A PROBLEM

Foreign language teaching methodology has experienced a considerable revolution in recent years, and one of the most unfortunate aspects of this "revolution" has been the overwhelming quantity of prescriptive and doctrinaire pronouncements concerning methodology. It is difficult to say whether the greater fault lies with those who have made such pronouncements, or with teachers for accepting them--frequently against their better judgment. But the result has been to turn the whole question of method into one of the most persistent problems faced by modern language teachers.

Whether by intent or not, discussions of method invariably have seemed to come across in terms of "wrong" and "right," of "do's" and "don'ts," and of procedural canons which the teacher must guard against breaking. Rules have been laid down about a variety of topics: pre-reading instruction, English in the classroom, the introduction of writing, grammar, inductive learning, etc. Teachers everywhere have appeared to ignore their professional instincts, and a fierce pre-occupation has developed for doing things in a certain way--the so called "right way." In most cases the prescriptions were not coming from the linguistic or psychological scientists whose theories caused the changes in the first place. Rather, they came from others who sought to apply and interpret these ideas without waiting to see if their restrictive

declarations were well founded. There seems to be little doubt that New Key teaching has suffered considerable loss of confidence because of rigid attitudes toward methodology.

RESEARCH AND THE LANGUAGE TEACHER

Foreign language methodology in recent years has been based to a great extent on the investigative work of descriptive linguists and behavioral psychologists. It is as important for the language teacher to understand the contributions which can be made by such scientific groups as it is to be aware of their limitations, insofar as the formulation of systems of methodology is concerned.

Linguistics is a field of study which can offer a body of knowledge on the nature of language in general, or a detailed analysis of one language, all of which is very important to the language teacher's understanding of his subject matter. But linguistics does not say very much about language pedagogy, except indirectly. There is no such thing as a "linguistic method" and there has never been any linguistic basis for some of the dogmatic assertions of certain language extremists. In fact, many changes have taken place both in linguistic theory and in educational psychology which point to a far more flexible view of methodology.

Irving Saltzman of Indiana University, in a telelecture to Oregon foreign language teachers in 1966, put it this way:

No one, not the experienced language teacher, not the erudite linguist, not the experimental psychologist, not the professor of education, not the producer of language-learning records, and not the for-hire native tutor, no one today knows the best way to teach foreign languages. The data upon which decisions about procedural rules could be based have not been collected, or they are inconclusive. Therefore, almost every

single statement that is made today which contains advice as to the proper, or the correct, or the best way to teach foreign languages, regardless of how sensible the statement might appear to be, must be only an unproven assumption or an untested allegation and, therefore, quite possibly wrong.¹

There is no evidence available at the present time which would make the above statement any less true today than it was in 1966.

Educational research involving control groups compared to experimental groups has told us nothing. In one summary of 824 such studies involving a variety of controversial questions, 605 reported the familiar, "no significant difference."² This means simply that research involving questions of pedagogy has not yet become sophisticated enough to control the many variables which surround such areas, and no definitive answer can be given concerning the superiority of one method over another.

But if research cannot tell the teacher which method he should follow, it certainly can provide the information from which he can make that decision for himself. The lack of definitive direction in methodology actually allows the teacher far greater freedom to take what he wants from any system, to put it into his own style, and to use it to attain his particular objectives. In this manner, the language teacher will not accept passively the authority of any "expert." He will examine every pronouncement on its merits, and will subject every idea to his intuitive, competent judgment, based upon experience in the classroom. In short, he will use what works for him and throw out the rest.

CHOOSING A METHOD

A method is a plan, a procedure, or a system which is based upon some philosophy, point of view, or approach to language learning

and teaching. If formal research cannot yet specify positively the "best" method, it can tell us certain things which should help in the selection of a method. For example, we know that learning to speak a language does involve practice. If language learning is not all habit formation and conditioning, a part of it certainly is, and the student must be able to practice the language, if he is to learn to speak it. A method which does not provide for this would be useless as far as learning to speak the language is concerned. We also know that students seem to learn what is emphasized or taught in a language class (speaking, reading, etc.),³ so if they are to master many different skills, then the method must also include their presentation at some point in the process.

In other words, the choice of method or procedure depends upon what is to be accomplished. A clear statement of objectives, describing exactly what the student must learn, or be able to do, is the first step. The selection of a plan or method follows naturally, and will eventually control such factors as textbook selection, general techniques, and the particular strategies by which the method is implemented. The steps in selecting a method can be summarized as follows:

(1) State the philosophy or point of view upon which the program is being built. How is language teaching and learning being approached: as an active communicative skill, as a reading skill, etc.?

(2) State clear, over-all objectives for all components of the program. What is to be accomplished? What is to be emphasized? What is to be learned?

(3) Choose a plan, or set of procedures that will enhance the attainment of the objectives. Avoid inflexibility in selecting methods.

(4) Decide upon appropriate strategies for the implementation of the plan. This will include decisions about such areas as classroom activities, choice of textbook and materials, and all the elements that make up a functioning program.

THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

The revolution in foreign language teaching methodology which began in the fifties and is still continuing, is generally identified by the term "audio-lingual." There have been a few attempts to promote a somewhat less restrictive title, and some have denied the possibility of any such thing as an audio-lingual method,⁴ but foreign language teachers continue to use "audio-lingual" to describe New Key teaching. What it is called is probably not important, as long as some agreement exists about what is meant.

The audio-lingual method is the system of procedures which developed to accommodate new philosophies and points of view concerning the purpose of foreign language study. As soon as the emphasis switched to language study for purposes of active communication, it became necessary to design a method that would lead to that objective. The term "audio-lingual" came into use because of the new emphasis on listening comprehension and on speaking. The system has been variously described by different authors, but most seem to agree on the following characteristics as being generally descriptive of the method:

(1) Language is considered to be speech, not writing, and learning items are usually presented in spoken form before the written form.

(2) Automaticity in the use of carefully prepared structures is attempted by intensive oral practice using dialogues and pattern drills.

(3) Learning items are based on analysis of contrastive situations between two languages.

(4) Language is "behavior" and students are encouraged to "behave," to use the language, with explanations or analysis of structure appearing as generalizations after the behavior has been learned.

(5) Real-life situations must be simulated as closely as possible, and responses must be practiced until "over-learned."

(6) The skills of reading and writing are not omitted, but receive minimal emphasis during the beginning stages of the process.

The above characteristics really represent theories of learning as they came from structural linguists, cultural anthropologists, and behavioral psychologists. The implementation of these ideas required a totally different emphasis within the classroom. The traditional textbooks of previous years were no longer adequate, and language laboratories were designed to meet the demands of increased practice.

After a few years of using the new method, however, foreign language teachers seemed to grow somewhat disenchanted, and dissident voices began to be heard. The new method was not living up to expectations, and seemed to be having trouble performing all the miracles that had been claimed for it. It is important to examine briefly the circumstances behind this disenchantment, and to study the alternatives open to teachers.

Close examination of the problems resulting from audio-lingual teaching leads to the conclusion that supposed weaknesses have not been weaknesses of theory, but of application and practice. This situation has come about because teachers have tried to follow the directives of countless "experts" on audio-lingual procedures who always seemed to find

it necessary to stipulate a number of inflexible rules, many of them extreme. This inflexibility and extremism has been characteristic of the movement, although in most cases no scientific basis existed for such authoritarian declarations. The list that follows represents some of the more obvious results of this rigid attitude on the part of the "experts":

- (1) Far too much dependence on analogy, with insufficient emphasis on analysis.
- (2) Too much time on pre-reading instruction, in some programs.
- (3) Too much delay in the introduction of writing.
- (4) Too much concern about how much English is to be used in the classroom.
- (5) Too much blind, continuous drilling which leads to total boredom.
- (6) Too much reliance on inductive learning of grammar, and on transfer of knowledge.
- (7) Not enough provision for spontaneous practice of free conversation to go beyond controlled situations.

One explanation for the problems of extremism and inflexibility in many audio-lingual programs must be the fact that these traits were also exhibited by most of the new materials available to teachers at the time. Some textbook series contained hardly any material of a cultural nature, and there was an over-abundance of drill material with little or no provision for much of anything else. Some series ignored grammatical analysis completely during the first level, then expected the student to assimilate it all during the second level. The struggle against student boredom was unremitting, and only the most inventive teachers were able to prevail.

THE FUTURE OF AUDIO-LINGUALISM

Let it be stated clearly that the problems cited in the preceding section do not by any means dictate a return to the "good old days" of extremism in a different direction. Language for communication is here to stay, and foreign language teaching has come too far to go back. Furthermore, there are other alternatives open to teachers. There is not much wrong with the basic tenets of audio-lingual theory, provided that teachers realize that balance is necessary, and most important of all, that a variety of methods may be used to attain any particular objective. The only valid criterion of method is results--in terms of objectives.

The following suggestions should help to bring more balance to the audio-lingual class:

(1) Give students clear reasons for every kind of drill activity in which they are asked to participate.

(2) Continue to introduce new structures orally, but give grammatical explanations as soon as the structures have been learned. This will not place quite as much responsibility on a transfer situation that may never happen.

(3) Explain grammar more thoroughly whenever it seems appropriate. Repetition and drill will then have more meaning and will facilitate memory.

(4) Introduce writing early, almost at the very beginning, since its advantage as a memory aid will probably outweigh the disadvantage of interference which will occur anyway, no matter when it is introduced.

(5) Never drill until fatigue or boredom sets in. Use different kinds of activities to change the pace and keep the student interested.

(6) Provide frequent activities involving real-life situations in which the student must use the language to actually communicate. This will help him to make the jump from controlled practice to spontaneous conversation.

(7) Emphasize the cultural context in which the language exists. This will avoid the problem of false impressions of meaning and will enhance the student's ability to communicate with native speakers.

An encouraging factor that may have a great deal to do with the future of audio-lingual teaching is the availability of better materials. Almost every one of the leading textbook series has been revised, and in every case the second efforts have been vastly superior to the first. Authors have profited from experience, and books are less extreme than before. Teachers are also becoming more sophisticated in the practice of audio-lingual techniques, and are learning to rely on their own instincts to a much greater extent, thus avoiding normative and prescriptive rules that only serve to restrict the process. As Dwight Bolinger of Harvard University has said, "If I were required to identify one benefit conferred by audio-lingualism that surpasses all others, I would say that it is the insistence that teachers teach with all their might."⁵

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⁴Nelson Brooks, "Language Learning: The New Approach," Phi Delta Kappan, (March, 1966), pp. 357-359.

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Chapter V

FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

JUSTIFICATION FOR FLES

It would not be necessary to justify the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES) in most areas of the world, but it seems to be necessary in the United States, especially at the present moment. The number of FLES programs increased rapidly during the sixties, but has declined somewhat during the last year or two. The programs that have survived are those that continue to meet the conditions listed in the next section of this chapter.

FLES receives its greatest justification from the fact that it offers enormous benefits to the child, whose welfare should be the central consideration in any educational enterprise. By starting the study of a foreign language at an early age, the child has a good chance to attain true mastery of the language, and to have a more complete understanding of the foreign culture. This is the ideal preparation for the world he will probably encounter as an adult, where human beings from many nations, speaking many languages, will interact with greater frequency, and will literally be encamped on each other's doorsteps. Furthermore, despite the absence of definitive research information on the subject, it is fairly obvious to teachers who have worked with children studying foreign languages that they learn them more rapidly, more accurately and more easily than their elders.

It would be hard to find a more appropriate time to begin foreign language study than during the early elementary years. At this period of their development children have very flexible speech organs, and when this is coupled with their natural love of imitation, they can produce new sounds with little effort. They are rarely troubled with the severe problem of embarrassment which is such a difficult hurdle for older students, and generally do not seem to suffer from many inhibitions, especially in the oral practice of the language. They are naturally enthusiastic about new adventures, curious, and intensely interested in other peoples. The elementary school is clearly the logical place to begin foreign language study, and it is a great pity that it continues to be such a low priority item in the school systems of the United States.

The desirability of beginning foreign language study in the elementary school does not depend entirely on evidence obtained by observation. In fact, educators are on reasonably firm ground if they infer this desirability from the research information which is available--inconclusive as it is. For example, the brain plasticity theory suggests that the young child's brain has a cellular receptivity to language acquisition which appears to decrease with age. There is clinical evidence to support this theory, based on Penfield's observations of accident cases in which speech loss following certain kinds of brain damage could be recovered by children, but not by adults.¹ Penfield suggests that the first decade of the child's life is the period during which the uncommitted cortex must be conditioned for speech activities.²

In a study of Cuban children learning English, Asher and Garcia concluded that the highest probability of near-native sound production occurred when the child came to the United States between one and six

years of age and lived in this country between five and eight years.³ This study also brings out the importance of a long period of exposure to the foreign language.

The ideal goals of second-language mastery and near bilingualism are impossible unless the child can get an early start. Those lucky enough to have this opportunity will also find it easier to acquire a third language, thus making it much more likely that the humanistic goals of language study referred to in Chapter I will be attained.

CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESS OF A FLES PROGRAM

The failure of some FLES programs in recent years has had nothing to do with the ability of children to learn a foreign language. Failure has usually come because one or another of the conditions listed below was not present in the program. These conditions for a successful FLES experience are based upon an examination of many such programs, and are as follows:

(1) Administrative commitment. Foreign language study must be regarded as an integral part of the total elementary curriculum and must be accorded the same status and treatment given to any other subject. If this kind of attitude is lacking, a FLES program has little chance of success. Administrative support is absolutely essential and is the foundation of any good program.

(2) Competent teachers. The ideal FLES teacher is an elementary teacher who has also received training in FLES methodology. Since most class activities at this level are oral, the teacher should have good pronunciation, and good command of the basic structures and vocabulary of the foreign language. Teaching languages to children of elementary

school age is exciting work, but also demanding, and requires a high level of sophistication about the methods and materials which will be effective. A FLES class with an unqualified teacher is doomed to failure, and may cause the program great harm.

(3) **Community support.** Effective FLES programs must have strong endorsement from parents, and all segments of the community including the school board. Many districts have developed special procedures aimed at the active involvement of certain groups such as the PTA, and this has resulted in better understanding of the aims of the program, as well as better financial support from the public.

(4) **Careful planning.** A FLES program should be planned in detail well in advance of its initiation date. Representatives of the total school community should be involved in this effort, and all facets of the local situation should be studied: administrative attitudes, the district's ability to pay for the program, availability of qualified teachers, and any other factors that may have an effect on how the program will be received. It is usually a good idea to secure consultant advice, and to visit other established programs, if at all possible.

(5) **Proper coordination.** The advantages of a FLES program will be wasted unless the sequence is continued from level to level in unbroken continuation. FLES students entering the upper levels should be grouped together, and should not be made to "start over" at various points in the sequence. Each level should continue the work begun in the previous one. The need for careful planning and supervision is urgent, if good coordination is to exist.

(6) **Proper supervision.** The planning and coordination referred to in (5) will not take place unless the responsibility for this function

is clearly assigned to some appropriate member of the staff. The supervising teacher must be carefully chosen, and must be able to work with all the other teachers involved in the program. Frequent meetings are necessary to discuss and share ideas concerning course emphasis and class activities. A successful FLES program is unlikely unless it can be supervised on a regular basis by someone designated to do so by the school administration.

(7) Constant evaluation. All foreign language programs should be evaluated against objectives periodically, but it is especially important to evaluate FLES programs at many points during the sequence, as this will help to produce the team work without which the program cannot be effective. Furthermore, the school administration will be called upon frequently to provide evidence that FLES is a worthwhile investment, and precise information on results will be needed.

TRoublesome Questions

When Should a FLES Program Start?

The third or fourth grade is a good starting point since the child is fairly well established in the school situation by then, is well along in learning to read in his native language, but is still young enough for his age to be a real advantage as far as second language learning is concerned. There is also no existing evidence from which to conclude that learning a second language at this time has any adverse effect on the child's progress in the development of reading skills in English. A large number of FLES programs across the country begin at both of these points, and the critical element seems to be whether the child can continue in an unbroken sequence as he moves through the program. It is well to have an

established program in the senior high school, and in the junior high school before initiating a program in the elementary school.

How Much Time Should Be Allotted to a FLES Program?

If the FLES program begins in grade three or four, every effort should be made to allow enough time for the completion of Level I by the end of grade six, which is the end point of most elementary programs in this State. Grouping and scheduling at the upper levels will be greatly simplified if this can be done, and there is no reason that a well-planned and supervised program should not complete one level of work, if the time allotment is sufficient. Daily meetings are preferable to meeting less often for longer periods of time, but occasionally this is not possible in grades three or four, and many acceptable programs exist that meet three times each week. Daily meetings are recommended especially in grades five and six. A good rule of thumb is to arrange for somewhat more contact time through grade six than normally is given to regular Level I students at the secondary level. Many acceptable time arrangements are possible; a few are shown below:

Plan I

Grades 3--4: 60 minutes per week. (3 20-minute periods).
 Grades 5--6: 100 minutes per week. (5 20-minute periods).

Plan II

Grades 3--4: 45 minutes per week. (3 15-minute periods).
 Grades 5--6: 100 minutes per week. (5 20-minute periods).

Plan III

Grades 3--4: 60 minutes per week. (3 20-minute periods).
 Grades 5--6: 90 minutes per week. (3 30-minute periods).

Should All Children Participate in FLES?

The position that foreign language study should be reserved for the intellectual elite is a doubtful one, and out of step with current views of language study. All elementary students should have an opportunity to study a foreign language, and although all will not progress at the same rate--any more than is the case with students of any other subject--even the less gifted student can profit from this experience. If the language is presented in a direct manner as a skill to be mastered, with a minimum of analytic or abstract material, there is no reason that the program should not be offered to all students. As a matter of fact, foreign language may be the only class where a student who is slow in other areas may enjoy a certain amount of success. As the material advances and becomes more abstract, it may be necessary to individualize instruction by grouping students according to their abilities, but the program should be designed to include all children, and should not be considered as enrichment for a favored few.

What Teaching Techniques are Recommended?

The best techniques for FLES teaching are those that take advantage of the child's natural response to active situations, playing out roles, imitating, and accepting "new" situations without demanding detailed explanations. The audiolingual approach, by its very nature, would seem to have its greatest appeal at this level. FLES teachers will encounter little difficulty in getting students involved in active learning situations: games, songs, dialogues, skits, etc., and enthusiasm for language learning is usually highest at this level.

A word of caution seems necessary, however, with respect to the tendency of some FLES programs to offer nothing but "songs and games."

The subject of FLES should be treated seriously, and the capacity of elementary students should never be underestimated. Most students between grades three and six can learn many foreign language skills, and class activities should be chosen for their value as vehicles of learning, not just as entertainment. Many programs have suffered because the teaching of FLES has been approached too lightly and without seriousness. A good way to avoid wasting time is to write clear objectives for each segment of the program, keeping in mind the ultimate goal: to complete Level I by the end of grade six.

Although more emphasis should be placed on oral work, especially at this level, rigid methodology is not being recommended. There is still no final answer available at the present time concerning such questions as how much reading and writing should be included in a FLES program. Most manuals advise little reading or writing during the early years, but one study of gifted children showed great advantages for the early introduction of reading activities.⁴ Students learn in many different ways and the best techniques, as usual, are those that offer a variety of learning opportunities.

How Should FLES Instruction Be Presented?

Perhaps the most nearly ideal situation is to have an elementary teacher who is also trained in FLES presenting the foreign language in her own classroom. Since this is hardly ever possible except in isolated instances, a variety of other systems are usually used. Many schools have had success with an itinerant FLES specialist who teaches the language in many different classrooms. This system will work well if the teacher is carefully chosen, and if enough allowance is made for her to get from one place to another. Large districts will have many such specialists, whose

activities must then be carefully coordinated. In a few cases, a program began in this manner, then incorporated other interested teachers with a language background to present the FLES program themselves. It must be emphasized, however, that reluctant or unsympathetic teachers can kill FLES interest in a short time, if they are required to teach a foreign language against their will.

It is possible to present FLES lessons via television or film, but the classroom teacher must be prepared to do supportive work, as the visual presentation alone is not enough. This is especially true in the case of commercial television, which is somewhat less flexible than the closed circuit variety. Some schools have combined televised lessons with the work of the itinerant specialist or a trained classroom teacher. In all of these arrangements the need for supervision and cooperation is evident.

Are FLES Materials Available?

A fair supply of sequential materials is available for Spanish and French, somewhat less for German, and almost nothing for languages such as Russian and Italian. If FLES is an integral part of the curriculum, the materials used will be very important to the course, and should be evaluated very carefully before purchase. The publishers listed below are the main sources of FLES materials at the moment, but new materials may appear at any time.

Chilton Books, East Washington Square, 525 Locust St., Phila., Pa. 19106

French: Bonjour Line
German: Deutsch durch Audio-Visuelle Methode
Kinder Lernen Deutsch--Die Familie Schiller

D. C. Heath and Co., 285 Columbus Ave., Boston, 02116

French: Parlons Francais (three levels). Audiolingual-visual.
 Spanish: Una Aventura Española

Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Ave., New York, 10017

French: Introducing French, and others in the series.
 Spanish: Introducing Spanish, and others in the series.
 (Both series sequential through high school)

Houghton Mifflin Co., 2 Park St., Boston, 02107

Spanish: Mi Cuaderno de Español (MacRae). Set up for about one
 year of 15 minute lessons, or 33 weeks of school.

Johnson Publishing Co., 1135 R Street, Lincoln, Nebraska, 68508.

German: German for Children. Two-year FLES handbook.

Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., Columbus, Ohio.

Spanish: Mi Libro de Español: Adelante

Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Manchester Rd., Manchester,
 Mo., 63011.

French: Let's Speak French. A four-level Series.
 Spanish: Let's Speak Spanish.

The problem of selecting proper materials for a FLES program is just as critical as it is for any level of foreign language instruction, although the variety of suitable materials from which to choose is not as great. The teacher is urged to seek consultant advice regarding the suitability of different materials, and to apply the criteria for textbook selection which appears in Chapter VII.

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³James J. Asher and Ramiro Garcia, "The Optimal Age to Learn a Foreign Language," The Modern Language Journal, LIII (May, 1969), 334.

⁴Gladys C. Lipton, "To Read or Not to Read: An Experiment on the FLES Level," Foreign Language Annals, III (December, 1969), 241.

Chapter VI

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

SCOPE AND EFFECTIVENESS

Do language laboratories really work? Do we know any more about them today than we did ten years ago? Can we speak with any certainty about their effectiveness? The answer to every one of these questions is a categorical YES! The language laboratory can and does work if it is used for what it can do best--if it is used properly by a trained teacher working with good materials. There has been a great deal of nonsense written about language labs, but it is well to remember that many successful teachers find it an invaluable tool, a fact which ultimately is the only valid testimonial.

The research on the effectiveness of the lab is most confusing, and has served only to plunge the profession into protracted controversy. Research data exists both for and against language labs as an aid to foreign language learning, and teachers would be well advised to follow their own experience in the matter, remembering how rarely educational research comparing any two systems has ever yielded conclusive results. The two most widely publicized studies--both negative--have been heavily criticized for various omissions or other procedural weaknesses. The first of these, the Raymond Keating Report,¹ was subjected to a critique in the form of a symposium, the details of which have been published in the Modern Language Journal.² The second, commonly known as the Pennsylvania Project, was evaluated in a similar manner and also reported

in the same journal.³ Judging from the unfavorable nature of the critiques, it seems safe to say that no general conclusions can be made about the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the language lab, as far as these two studies are concerned.

Another study which has been received much more favorably by the critics, is the Sara Lorge Study, conducted under the auspices of the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction of the City of New York.⁴ This study was somewhat more restricted in scope, which apparently made it easier to control the many variables and to arrive at meaningful conclusions. A brief summary of the findings of this study is as follows:

(1) Students using the laboratory were significantly better in speech and in listening comprehension.

(2) Greatest gains were made by ninth-graders who were just starting the language.

(3) Type of equipment used was important. Recording-playback equipment produced the best results.

(4) Daily use of the lab was superior to any other schedule. When the lab was used only once per week, it seemed to become a liability, and in some cases produced worse results.

(5) Students using the laboratory were motivated to continue voluntarily in language study by impressive percentages.

(6) Students at higher levels showed little or no significant difference between laboratory and control groups.

The Lorge Report, at least, strongly supports the idea that the language laboratory can be an effective tool in the hands of a teacher who knows what it can do, and how it should be used. At this point, it may be appropriate to discuss the laboratory in more specific terms and to examine its capabilities in detail.

What Is A Language Laboratory?

A language laboratory is an installation of electro-mechanical equipment which provides the student with an opportunity to practice the audiolingual aspects of language learning. There are many types of language laboratories, and all are regarded as aids to the teacher. This means that the teacher is clearly thought of as the central figure in the classroom. The laboratory is not the central component of teaching, and laboratory materials are designed to supplement classwork selectively. Any suggestion that the laboratory might replace the teacher is an absurdity. The fact is that laboratories require better prepared teachers who can put the new equipment and technique to good use as well as conduct a class.

What Can a Language Laboratory Really Do?

How much a foreign language laboratory actually accomplishes is directly related to the goals of the course. That is, if understanding and speaking a foreign language are basic objectives, then the laboratory will make a significant contribution. If, on the other hand, the listening and speaking skills are not among the primary objectives of the program, there will be little need to consider the acquisition of such facilities. The language laboratory is uniquely capable of providing efficient practice facilities for listening and speaking that will reinforce and consolidate what has been learned in the classroom. The list that follows describes certain functions that are the special province of the language laboratory.⁵

(1) In a language laboratory all students can practice aloud simultaneously yet individually. In a class of thirty students, twenty-nine are not idle while one is busy.

(2) The teacher can concentrate on an individual student's

performance without interrupting the work of the group.

(3) Instruction can be individualized through the use of more than one activity in the lab at the same time.

(4) The language laboratory provides authentic, consistent, untiring models of speech for imitation.

(5) The use of headphones gives a sense of isolation, intimate contact with the language, equal clarity of sound to all students, and facilitates complete concentration.

(6) The student can be exposed to many native voices. Without such variety the teacher's voice may be the only one to which the student listens.

(7) The laboratory facilitates testing for listening comprehension and for oral performance in general.

(8) The laboratory can make up for possible deficiencies on the part of the teacher with respect to accent and ability to pronounce the target language correctly.

(9) If recording facilities are available the student can learn to evaluate his own performance.

It is clear from the above that the language laboratory should be a valuable aid to any foreign language teacher whose objectives include oral mastery of the language. It should add great flexibility and variety to the activities in which a student must engage if he is to learn to speak a second language. The greatest contribution of the laboratory will be as a drill-master, although there are other specialized uses to which it can be put, such as in the teaching of reading and for certain activities associated with advanced classes. These items are discussed elsewhere in this Handbook. The real question is not whether the language laboratory

possesses the capability of providing critical assistance to teacher and student. This capability exists in abundance. The question is whether the laboratory will be used in such a manner that it can in fact make this contribution.

THE USE OF THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

Preparation and Orientation of Students

Before taking any students into the laboratory the teacher should be sure that they understand the purpose of the equipment and the part that it should play in language learning. Each laboratory exercise should be clearly explained before the session begins. A good practice is to devote two or three minutes before each laboratory period to explain the exercises and perhaps to give a preview of the tape drills. If the practice exercises cover material that has already been discussed in the regular class, the lab exercise will form a natural sequence. What the student does in the laboratory should be closely integrated with his work in the classroom, and on no account should he be asked to engage in lab activities for which no adequate explanation or reason has been given.

Frequency of Use

Perhaps the most important single factor affecting the success of a language laboratory is frequency of use. A large number of laboratories are ineffective simply because they are not used often enough. School administrators should insist that laboratories be utilized with sufficient frequency to allow students to get the benefits to which they are entitled. If this cannot be accomplished, the investment to purchase a laboratory will be wasted.

Research indicates that optimum use of the laboratory would be

once each class day,⁶ but this is not always feasible unless the equipment is located in the regular classroom and easily accessible. In that case, teachers should try to take their beginning classes (Levels I and II) into the laboratory three times per week for no more than twenty to twenty-five minutes each time. Less time than that for classes at the starting level is not productive, and once per week can cause undesirable results, as was shown in the Lorge Study. The amount of time spent in the laboratory by advanced classes depends somewhat on the design of the course, and upon the specific objectives being used.

The laboratory should also be open during some unscheduled periods or perhaps after school, not only for make-up work but also for those students who desire to do extra practice or to work on special projects. If the time situation is difficult for the teacher, it is a simple matter to train one or two students to work as laboratory assistants. Some schools offer these students one-half credit per semester for this kind of work, on the same basis as for other students who receive credit for working in the various offices of the average high school.

The Importance of Monitoring

In the secondary school the laboratory can be used as a direct teaching aid because the teacher is usually present and can control what transpires. This is a real advantage and can be the basis for a very effective laboratory experience. A typical sequence of events might occur as follows: The students are familiar with the structures to be practiced from regular classroom work; the teacher prepares for the laboratory exercise by explaining exactly what is to be practiced, and what results should be expected; a few sample drills are practiced; students perform the lab exercise using no printed materials; while they are practicing the

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teacher monitors certain students according to a chart which has been designed for the purpose; the teacher rarely interrupts a student while he is practicing, but makes notes for future use; if monitoring indicates that more practice is needed at any given point, the teacher stops the tape and announces over the all-call that the drill is being repeated; many repetitions may be necessary for certain problems, and this technique allows it to be done at the discretion of the teacher. At times the teacher may ask the class if they are satisfied with their performance, or if they would like to repeat an exercise.

Monitoring is indispensable to effective laboratory usage, and no school should invest in equipment that does not offer that function. By using the laboratory as described above, the teacher can diagnose the special needs of every student, prescribe different drills according to student needs, and allow the laboratory to assist in the work of individualizing instruction. Many schools use prepared forms upon which the teacher may rapidly check certain items as he passes from student to student during drill sessions. It is usually advisable to check for only one item at a time, such as the pronunciation of certain vowels, for example. The entire process of monitoring imparts an air of seriousness to the work done in the laboratory, and the student soon realizes that drill sessions are an integral part of the process of language learning.

Testing in the Laboratory

If the major part of the time in Level I is devoted to the development of the oral skills, the student should be tested over this area in the same proportion. Many of the varieties of oral tests can be given in the laboratory, and it is especially useful for make-up tests. If it is used in this manner, the teacher must be sure that all the equipment

is functioning properly and that instructions are clearly understood.

The laboratory can be used very effectively to test all of the language skills, but it is especially adaptable to testing for listening comprehension and speaking. In most listening tests the student is required to react in some manner to recorded material. He may have to demonstrate comprehension by selecting the correct answer from a multiple choice list, indicating whether what he hears is false or true, responding correctly to certain commands, or he may listen to a story and then answer questions about it. Many different combinations are possible and the teacher is limited here only by his own imagination.

Most speaking tests involve recording of the student's voice, and the laboratory allows the entire class to record at the same time or consecutively, depending upon the type of equipment, and the teacher can examine the recordings at some later time. Tests covering various aspects of a student's ability to reproduce the sounds of the language, should usually be short and should concentrate upon one aspect at a time. For example, if intonation is the aspect being examined, it would be confusing to try to keep a record of errors of pronunciation at the same time.

Whatever system is followed, using the laboratory for purposes of testing the student's performance reinforces the idea of its importance as a regular component of audiolingual instruction, and tends to enhance the likelihood of its success as a useful aid to the teacher.

The Laboratory in Advanced Classes

The language laboratory can be used very effectively in classes above the second level even though it probably will make its greatest contribution while the student is in the process of mastering the basic

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The Laboratory in Advanced Classes

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elements of the sound system. Continuous practice with various forms of listening and speaking exercises will reinforce the work accomplished in the first two levels, and the laboratory should not be ignored as the student advances beyond the beginning stages. A wide variety of taped materials can be presented with various objectives in mind, since the student will not be spending as much time on routine drill exercises. Many schools use this time for concentrated practice in listening comprehension based primarily on cultural or literary topics, or on material dealing with current events.

It is not as easy to obtain materials for laboratory use covering topics of current events as it is for the literary or cultural areas. A short-wave receiver used in conjunction with the laboratory is an ideal solution to this problem, and need not be an expensive project, although good reception does depend to some extent on the quality of the equipment being used. Consultation with local specialists is recommended. Some schools have been able to involve vocational classes in building the receiver from relatively inexpensive kit material. This type of equipment is also eligible for reimbursement of funds under NDEA as long as financial aid of this kind continues to be available. If the school is unable to purchase the equipment, it should not be difficult to find a student who is already involved with amateur radio work, and who would be happy to tape certain programs from time to time for classroom purposes.

Short-wave broadcasts have high interest value for students, and can provide a constant source of real-life material on current topics of interest. They can be the basis for listening practice, but can also be used as background material for class discussions and oral practice of many kinds. Above all, the student can be exposed to the language as it

really is, while it is actually being used by natives to communicate, and he will be encouraged by the feeling of real accomplishment even if his understanding is minimal at first. News broadcasts are good places to start as the context will help in understanding the news in a foreign language. In any event, the ability to understand develops rapidly, and interest continues to increase at the same time, thus providing a powerful motivational force.

Information concerning program schedules and broadcast times can easily be obtained from ham radio organizations which exist in many communities, but it is also possible to get complete schedules of programs as well as free bulletins and pamphlets from the following addresses:

Voice of America, Foreign Language Division,
224 W. 57th St., New York, N. Y. 10019.

World Wide Broadcasting Foundation
133 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass. 02116.

The United Nations, Department of Public Information
Lake Success, N. Y. 11040

SPECIAL LABORATORY PROBLEMS

Equipment Failure

A laboratory that suffers frequent breakdowns and is in constant need of repairs is a great nuisance to the teacher, who may eventually give up trying to use it. The best insurance against equipment failure is to insist on quality in the first place, and to have a repair arrangement with a local serviceman. Many companies involve the serviceman in the installation of the equipment, and this familiarity facilitates good maintenance on a permanent basis. Before purchasing any laboratory equipment, it is important to check the local facilities of the company involved. Find out if a laboratory specialist is available, and what help

the company will provide in case of a serious technical problem that occurs after the guarantee period. It is usually more difficult to get service of this kind from a company that does not have a local outlet or representative.

Another way to minimize breakdown problems is to have on hand a supply of extra components such as headphones and microphones (if separate). Large installations should have at least one extra tape deck for emergency situations.

Design Problems

Most design problems can be solved by more careful planning before purchasing a laboratory. This includes securing consultant help prior to making important decisions concerning the design of the laboratory. It is also a very good idea to study the experience of other schools, thus avoiding a repetition of their mistakes. Design problems include the following:

(1) Insufficient laboratory stations. The laboratory should be able to accommodate the largest class that must use it. The teacher may conclude that the laboratory is more trouble than it is worth, if every activity must be performed twice.

(2) No provision for visual activities. The laboratory should be designed so that audiovisual presentations are possible, since they can frequently be combined with regular drill activities.

(3) Poor choice of equipment. A good example of this is the use of portable equipment in large-school situations. This type of machinery is designed for small classes, and is not recommended for a classroom containing over ten or twelve students. Portable laboratories involve a series of preparatory activities before the class can start: distributing

and plugging in headphones, laying out the trunk-line power source, etc. This must all be done in reverse at the end of the period, and while it is not a serious problem with small classes, it becomes a great time waster with larger classes, and teachers in this situation tend not to use the laboratory at all, considering it not worth the trouble.

(4) Omission of important functions. Every language laboratory should provide for monitoring of students, and some arrangement should exist to allow for the recording of students' voices. Full recording at each position is not necessary, but recording at the console should be possible and is a reasonable substitute. Some schools equip a few positions with full recording facilities, but this usually depends upon the availability of funds in the district.

It should also be possible to utilize a record-playing device in the laboratory. Many laboratories have specially designed turntables which allow the teacher to "dial" the exact spot on a record at which the program should begin. It is more important that a laboratory have these capabilities than it is to have a large number of program sources. One teacher can hardly manage more than two or three sources at any one time.

Inferior Tapes

The recorded materials used in the laboratory should be of the best quality available. The student will not profit from tapes that are noisy, that have been recorded under questionable conditions, or that do not satisfy the objectives of the laboratory program. When new textbooks are considered for adoption, an examination of the taped materials that accompany the course should be an integral part of the process. (See Chapter VII).

Scheduling

If many classes use one central laboratory, it is best to follow a prearranged schedule. While this arrangement is not as flexible as might be desired, it should not be difficult for teachers to arrange among themselves for minor deviations from the schedule whenever the need arises. Normally, the first two levels should be scheduled into the laboratory at least three times per week, and where many teachers are involved, cooperation is a necessity if things are to move smoothly.

Excessive "migration" becomes a problem if the central laboratory is located very far from any of the classes that must use it. All language classrooms should be located in the immediate vicinity of the laboratory, in order to minimize problems arising from moving students from one place to another during the period.

The central laboratory situation also points up the importance of having a specific individual who has been assigned administrative responsibility for supervision of the foreign language program.

Laboratory Discipline

Some laboratories have been plagued by poor discipline and excessive vandalism which have produced a most destructive situation. The laboratory should not present any greater discipline problem than any other teaching situation, and may actually be easier to manage than a regular classroom if lessons are well planned and interesting, and if the student is properly prepared for the drill exercises.

One simple way to avoid destruction of laboratory equipment by students is to assign specific seats to everyone in the class, and to conduct an equipment check at the beginning of each session. This check should cover the functioning of basic components, (headphones, microphone,

controls, etc.), but should also include a check for new pencil markings and other signs of defacement. Thus, it is easy to fix responsibility for vandalism as no student wants to be charged with a misdemeanor committed by the previous occupant of the seat. Some schools levy fines for the destruction of equipment, and the parents are informed beforehand of this system.

Teacher Attitudes

One of the unfailing axioms applicable to the language laboratory is that students will not "like" the laboratory if the teacher does not have a positive attitude towards it. Laboratory success is impossible in situations where the teacher feels that it is a "waste of time," and only uses it because he is expected to do so. This attitude ordinarily comes from lack of training or lack of knowledge concerning the purpose of a laboratory.

This opinion has been corroborated by Elton Hocking of Purdue University in a case study of the language laboratory in a large suburban school district. Department chairmen and supervisors were unanimous in declaring that a teacher's dislike of the laboratory was reflected in the attitudes of the students.⁷

The language laboratory may not perform miracles, but it can be of significant assistance to those teachers who understand its capabilities, who know how to use it, and whose attitudes do not inhibit the student's acceptance of it.

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Chapter VII

GUIDELINES FOR TEXTBOOK SELECTION

EXPLANATION AND INSTRUCTIONS

There are many textbooks now available to foreign language teachers, and the problem of making the best selection is one of the most serious decisions which the teacher must make. In the first place, most school districts cannot afford to change books very often and must use the books for four or five years at the very least. Then, the cost of supplementary materials, such as tapes and visuals, increases the total expense and causes what amounts to a sizable expenditure. The problem is compounded by the fact that books are being revised constantly, and the teacher is hard put to keep up with the changes.

The problem cannot be solved by merely utilizing a list of criteria for the selection of textbooks. Many such lists abound, and they have a place in the process, but only if used in combination with certain other activities which are designed to produce a more systematic approach. This chapter represents an effort to describe such a system, and to suggest the activities which should precede the use of criteria.

The system consists of certain procedural steps which must be taken as a preliminary exercise before books are actually examined. The examination of textbooks is performed by assigning certain categories to individual teachers who will study the books only from the standpoint of the assigned categories. The categories are given a rating, and

when the examination is completed, all of the ratings are summarized with final adjustments to produce a clear choice based upon specific considerations. All of the components of the system are important and omissions will serve only to make the process less effective than it should be.

Small schools are urged to follow the general approach of checking one category at a time, but consultant help or any other outside participation will simplify the task. If other categories need to be added, this can be done without affecting the results in any unfavorable way.

PROCEDURAL STEPS

A. Preliminary Activities

1. Create book selection committee.
2. Arrange for securing book and tape samples.
 - a. Use list of companies in Montana Education Directory.
 - b. Call the State Language Coordinator.
3. Arrange for background information on trends.
 - a. "Trend" articles in professional journals.
 - b. Book reviews in professional journals.
 - c. Get consultant help (State, University, etc.).
4. Write consensus statements of broad program goals.
 - a. What is the underlying philosophy of the program?
 - b. Can program emphasis be clearly identified?
 - c. What should the program do for the student?
 - d. Can expected skills, behaviors, or attitudes be identified?
5. Take an inventory of the local situation.
 - a. Teaching staff--strengths or weaknesses in terms of training, background, experience, or special abilities.

- b. Equipment, materials, and facilities as presently available, and how they might affect the program.
- c. Administrative attitudes and budget commitment.
- d. Any district factors that could have an effect on the program.

B. Book Examination Procedure

1. Distribute and discuss accompanying Criteria Sheet.
 - a. Revise, if necessary.
 - b. Add other categories, if it seems necessary.
2. Assign categories for in-depth examination of books.
 - a. Work singly or in pairs, depending on size of group.
 - b. Work in any number of categories.
3. Check each book against the criteria.
 - a. Each person checks all books for one category at a time.
 - b. Example: Each person checks presentation of cultural material in four sample texts.
4. Assign a rating to each category of each book.
 - a. Use the following rating scale:
 - 4--Excellent
 - 3--Acceptable
 - 2--Poor
 - 1--Unacceptable
 - b. Accompany each rating with a brief explanation giving reasons for the rating of any particular category.
5. Summarize the ratings, one book at a time.
 - a. Each category used must be rated.
 - b. Total all the ratings for each book.
6. Rank books according to total ratings.
7. Select by consensus from among top choices.
 - a. Discussion is necessary at this point.
 - b. Top choices must be adjusted in terms of local realities.
 - c. See A, #5 of this section for suggestions.

TEXTBOOK CATEGORIES TO BE EVALUATED

- A. Book orientation vs. program objectives.
1. What is the "method" or approach used?
 2. Is it carried out satisfactorily throughout the entire book, or series?
 3. Does the approach fit stated program objectives?
- B. Organization of material.
1. Is the arrangement and sequence of topics satisfactory (dialogues, drills, exercises, reading selections, etc.)?
 2. Is the number and length of lessons about right for course needs?
 3. Is there a series covering many levels?
 4. Is the transition smooth from level to level?
 5. Is the emphasis of each book in a series appropriate for the level?
- C. Inventory of general items. Do the books contain most of the following?
1. Reference dictionary and grammar charts?
 2. Review lessons at reasonable intervals?
 3. Tape loan for duplication policy?
 4. Has the series been recently revised?
 5. Is the price reasonable?
- D. Teacher's manual.
1. Does it provide useful suggestions on how to use the book?
 2. Is it clear, concise, and easy to use?
 3. Does it provide for such activities as games, songs, etc.?
 4. Does it offer help with the presentation of culture?
 5. Is there a laboratory manual, or book of instructions?
- E. Supplementary materials.
1. Is the quantity available satisfactory?

- a. Tapes or records.
- b. Films, slides, flashcards, or other visuals
- c. Unit tests, workbooks, maps, etc.
- d. Other variety materials.

2. Is the quality generally satisfactory, especially of taped materials?
3. How much supplementary material is supplied with the book, and are prices reasonable for extra items?
4. Are supplementary items such as films coordinated with the lessons?

F. Presentation of material for the oral skills.

1. Does design allow for systematic and sufficient practice in listening comprehension and speaking?
2. Is new work introduced orally first?
3. Are dialogues satisfactory in most respects?
 - a. Complete but short.
 - b. Accurate linguistically, and authentic culturally.
 - c. Appropriate interest level for the age group.
4. Are provisions made for moving the student from controlled and guided situations into free and spontaneous areas?

G. Presentation of material for reading.

1. Does the reading material provide for systematic development of the reading skill?
2. Does the emphasis given to reading seem appropriate to the various levels?
3. Is the material interesting and contemporary?
4. Does the material tend to consolidate language skills before developing literary concepts?
5. Is the range of difficulty about right for each level?

H. Presentation of material for writing.

1. Is the writing skill developed systematically from level to level?
2. Is the progress from simple transcription to free composition a planned procedure?
3. Is writing introduced early enough? (Simultaneously, or later?)

I. Treatment of grammar.

1. Is grammar presented through structure practice aimed at one problem at a time?
2. Is grammar summarized in each lesson as well as in the back of the book?
3. Do the number and variety of grammar exercises reflect the levels of difficulty represented by different structures?
4. Are grammar explanations linguistically sound?
5. Does grammar receive enough attention in the series?

J. Treatment of vocabulary.

1. Is new vocabulary introduced in context?
2. Are words reused often enough to allow for sufficient practice?
3. Is the quantity of new expressions in each lesson about right?
4. Are you satisfied with vocabulary summaries--in each lesson, or at the back of the book?
5. Does the author describe the system used to choose items?

K. Treatment of pronunciation.

1. Does it receive enough attention in the book or series?
2. Is it handled progressively from lesson to lesson?
3. Are specific exercises provided for improvement of pronunciation?
4. Are linguistic realities observed?
 - a. Hierarchy of difficulty.
 - b. Native language interference.

L. Treatment of culture.

1. Do the dialogues and reading selections present an authentic variety of life situations in the foreign country?
2. Is conversational vocabulary typical?
3. Does the material bring out points of difference between the two cultures?
4. Does the series treat the deeper aspects of culture as well as the superficial?
5. Is the material supported by pictures, maps, or other such devices?

6. Do some exercises or activities involve a mainly cultural objective?

M. Exercises.

1. Are there enough oral and written exercises?
2. Is the variety of exercises satisfactory?
 - a. Controlled or guided practice material.
 - b. Free or spontaneous practice material.
3. Is there an increase of exercise material for more difficult structural problems?
4. Are the exercises appropriate to the levels for which they are presented?

N. General appearance and layout.

1. Is the book or series attractively illustrated?
2. Is the type easy to read?
3. Is it easy to find things?
4. Does each book in the series seem "right" for the level?
5. Is it possible to anticipate that students will enjoy using the book?

O. Advanced level checklist. (Above the second level).

1. Do the books provide for continuing oral practice even though the main emphasis may have changed to reading and writing?
2. Are materials used that emphasize the "civilization and culture" approach, and not only the literary approach?
3. Do literary selections avoid distortions or extreme examples of the foreign culture?
4. Are literary selections used to present aspects of the language other than the purely esthetic?
5. Does the material appear to have been chosen with the interest level of the student in mind?

Chapter VIII

TESTING

It is most important that a foreign language testing program reflect the areas that have been emphasized in classwork. If students have spent most of the time at the beginning levels learning to understand and speak the language, then these skills should be tested accordingly. It is somewhat more involved to devise valid tests for listening comprehension and speaking than it is for reading or writing, and during the early years of audiolingual teaching, much of the testing did not conform to the changed emphasis. This was true even of some of the early varieties of standardized tests. At the present time, most textbook series offer a testing sequence of some kind that more nearly represents the focus of the program, but the classroom teacher will inevitably find it necessary to make many tests of his own to fulfill all of the requirements of a good system of evaluation.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

(1) No meaningful testing program is possible in the absence of clear program objectives. The teacher must know exactly what the student is to learn, or what he should be able to do, before testing to find out if the expected achievement did in fact take place.

(2) Testing should be regarded as a learning situation for both student and teacher, and should be another basis from which to provide help to the student.

(3) Different kinds of tests should be given to serve different needs: diagnosis, progress, proficiency, placement, etc.

(4) Each test should be examined carefully to establish the extent to which it seems to be valid. Validity in testing means that a test must measure what it purports to measure, and not something else.

(5) All test instructions should be in simple, clear language, with examples given where necessary.

(6) It is best to avoid presenting the student with incorrect forms.

The following sections contain suggestions for the testing of language skills, but the possibilities of variation are almost limitless, and teachers are urged to consult a more complete work on the subject such as the excellent handbook produced by Rebecca Valette.¹

TESTING THE LISTENING SKILL

In testing the degree to which students comprehend the foreign language when they hear it, it is well to remember that a number of proficiencies are actually involved. Comprehension takes place only if the student is able to discriminate between phonemes, and to recognize stress and intonation patterns. He also must remember what he has heard, and must be able to apply his knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Most of the time all of these areas may be tested collectively, but it is also necessary at times to test each area separately, especially during the early levels of instruction.

Most tests of listening comprehension are based on situations where the student is required to react in some manner to material which he hears. Some examples of this type of test are shown below:

(1) Sound discrimination tests. The student must recognize phonemic distinctions in minimal pairs, (peak, pick, in English). Discrimination tests can be directed towards other areas such as vocabulary or structure with sound discrimination being the only element determining the choice.

(2) The student listens to various statements, and marks whether they are true or false.

(3) The student listens to an incomplete statement and completes it with the correct word chosen from three words or expressions.

(4) The student listens to a question and picks the correct answer from a multiple group.

(5) The student is given a command involving bodily movement and demonstrates comprehension by complying correctly with the command.

(6) The student looks at a picture, (slide, filmstrip, etc.), listens to various descriptions of the scene, then indicates which description most accurately depicts the situation.

(7) The student listens to a story which is read twice at normal conversational speed. He then answers questions about the content of the story--in English at beginning levels, and in the foreign language at more advanced levels. Questions must be simple, and should test comprehension rather than retention of facts.

(8) Advanced students may listen to recorded conversations between natives, and comprehension can be tested by any of the devices described above. A short-wave radio is a good source of material for this exercise.

(9) Dictation may be used as a test by assigning a point value to each word, which will make scoring easier.

TESTING THE SPEAKING SKILL

Almost all of the reform movements which have developed in foreign language circles in recent years have been directed at improving the teaching of the speaking skill. At the same time, this area has been frequently ignored as far as testing is concerned. The explanation for this situation probably has to do with the nature of oral testing in general. Most oral tests are time consuming. They often involve subjective judgments, and are considered unfair by some teachers because natural ability can influence the results in so many ways. On the other hand, an oral testing program is an absolute essential since so much time is allocated to this area in many classes, and since every testing program should reflect course emphasis. Some of the suggestions included in this section contain procedures that should minimize the problems of testing the speaking skill.

In order for speaking tests to be effective, many facets must be included. Progress must be recorded for such areas as pronunciation, intonation, stress, and general fluency. This means that oral testing must take place frequently, and must cover a wide range of topics. It is not necessary to give major tests that require a great deal of time more than once or twice per semester, but almost daily evaluation of oral work is necessary to provide a complete picture. To do this the teacher needs a system that can be scored rapidly, and that can be applied at any time: during the monitoring of a laboratory exercise, or during any oral exercise in which students participate.

Rapid scoring can be facilitated by having evaluation sheets prepared beforehand. These sheets will have spaces in which the names of

students have been entered, followed by columns in which the items to be tested are written, (for example, the pronunciation of one vowel), and a column for the rating which the student receives. Most testing experts advise that a rating with four or five categories is sufficient, and not too difficult to use.² A typical five-category rating system would go from A to E, with A equal to superior and D equal to poor. E is used for no response. Some teachers prefer to use numbers in place of letters.

A scoring system of the type described above allows the teacher to compile many samples of the student's work. The use of a rating scale minimizes the subjective aspects of oral tests, and testing one aspect at a time enables the teacher to get an accurate picture of progress in various areas.

Almost any situation in which the student is required to perform orally can be adapted for testing purposes. A few of the more common devices that may be used for this purpose are shown below:

- (1) The student records a list of sentences designed to demonstrate the pronunciation of selected sounds.
- (2) The student repeats short sentences after the native voice.
- (3) The student reads aloud, but only certain aspects are noted for evaluation. The words containing the problem sounds are underlined in the teacher's list.
- (4) In less controlled situations, the student may be asked to look at a picture, then to describe what is depicted there. He may be allowed a few minutes to prepare an answer.
- (5) The student may be asked to carry on an unprepared conversation with the teacher. The topic should be familiar, and evaluation might cover different aspects such as fluency, pronunciation, intonation, etc.

(6) The student answers questions. This may be done in different ways, and for different purposes. For example, he may be directed to answer in the negative, or to give a restricted answer of some sort. Or he may be allowed to answer in any way he pleased.

Many variations are possible in oral testing, and the teacher is urged to consult the bibliography for references of works containing more detailed analyses of the subject.

TESTING THE READING SKILL

Reading, as the term is used in audiolingual circles, does not refer to verbatim translation, but rather to total comprehension without recourse to English. This is more likely to take place if the student first reads what he has already learned orally, and if he reads sentences in context, rather than individual words. In order to read with understanding, the student must have a good knowledge of structure and vocabulary.

Most of the ideas suggested for testing listening comprehension can be adapted for reading tests. The student can read a selection and react to it by using the same devices: false and true statements, multiple-choice items based on the selection, questions to be answered about it, retelling what he has read in his own words, etc. A good test of reading comprehension will be more dependent upon the student's comprehension of an entire idea, rather than upon his knowledge of a single word. Translation is frequently utilized as a testing device, but may reinforce the student's misconception of the two languages as existing in a one to one relationship. This results in decoding rather than in learning to deal with meaning, and may cause great harm to the student. Occasional use of translation will probably cause no great harm as long as it is used

carefully.

TESTING THE WRITING SKILL

Using the written word for communication demands a high level of proficiency from the writer if it is to be effective. Before the foreign language student can be concerned with fluency and style, he must have mastered the mechanics: vocabulary, spelling, grammar, etc. This is a slow and continuous process and involves a great deal of practice. In many audiolingual classes the first writing done is simple copying, and the student progresses from this point until he can write free compositions involving the use of more sophisticated structures. Tests of writing must reflect this gradual development of skill on the part of the student, and practice is the most important element in helping the student to acquire writing skill. Writing tests can be given frequently, if they are carefully planned so that they can be scored rapidly. This usually means short tests that are designed to test only one or two items at a time. More complete writing tests may be given two or three times each semester.

For many years almost all foreign language testing was done by means of written tests, and most teachers are undoubtedly familiar with many varieties of such tests. This handbook will not attempt to list the many kinds of tests of writing ability that are possible, but it is worth emphasizing that any test will be more effective as a diagnostic tool, and as a measure of student progress if careful planning is exercised in coordinating the test with specific objectives.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

At the present time there are relatively few standardized tests

being used in secondary schools that have any bearing on foreign languages. The reasons are probably unimportant, but foreign language teachers should be aware that many excellent tests are available covering many aspects of foreign language learning. The most widely used of these are listed below, and teachers are encouraged to write to the publishers for more information, and for sample copies of the tests. Certain kinds of foreign language problems can be solved by the use of standardized tests, such as problems of aptitude and prediction, placement, proficiency in specific skills, etc. New tests are constantly being developed for different purposes, and all teachers should be more aware of the possible applications to local problem situations.

Prognostic Tests

Carroll-Sapon Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT)
The Psychological Corporation
304 East 45th Street
New York, N. Y. 10017

Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery
Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.
757 Third Avenue
New York, N. Y. 10017

Achievement Tests

MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N. J. 08540

Pimsleur Modern Language Proficiency Tests
Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.
757 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

AATG German Tests
Adolph Wegener, Secretary-Treasurer, AATG
Muhlenberg College, Box 43
Allentown, Pa. 18104

Cooperative French Listening Comprehension Test
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J. 08540

College Board Achievement Tests
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J. 08540

Proficiency Tests

MLA Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J. 08540

College Board Advanced Placement Tests
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J. 08540

REFERENCES, Chapter VIII

¹Rebecca M. Valette, Modern Language Testing: A Handbook,
New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1967.

²Ibid., p. 83.

Chapter IX

COMMON TEACHING PROBLEMS - SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

UPPER LEVEL COURSES

Any foreign language course above the second level is defined as "upper level," as far as this Handbook is concerned. The first difficulty the teacher will encounter with this level is the small enrollment compared to Levels I and II. This is a problem faced by all advanced classes--not only foreign languages--and many schools disallow these courses on grounds of insufficient numbers. Some districts use an arbitrary number as a point below which the class will not be allowed to exist, and this number may change from one year to another, depending on the availability of funds. But most schools will allow advanced classes if sufficient numbers of students elect to take them. Experience in this State has shown that large districts tend to require roughly ten students in almost any class, and smaller schools usually about four or five.

One of the obvious solutions to the problem of competition for the student's time is to make the course so attractive that he will want to continue. But, at times, this is not as simple as it sounds, and keeping the course may require other supportive action on the part of the teacher. For example, in addition to conducting good beginning-level classes, the teacher may have to actively enlist the aid of counsellors and administrative people in advising students on the importance of long sequences in foreign language study. He may have to spearhead changes in

the school schedule which will favor the flexibility necessary for the existence of advanced classes. Generally speaking, schedules that provide more than six or seven periods in a school day will allow this flexibility. Above all, the teacher must be prepared to "sell" students and administrators alike on the desirability of the long sequence. Conducting more than one level at the same time (during the same period) is an emergency solution at best, and is not recommended.

As far as the content of advanced-level courses is concerned, the teacher has at least two choices. He may simply continue using the textbook series into the upper levels, if books are available, or he may design a more flexible course which may change from year to year.

There is nothing wrong with using one series from beginning to end, especially if supplementary materials are added where needed. But some teachers prefer a more open course design which can be adjusted more easily to fit the needs of specific students. For example, the first two days of each week might be used for grammar review, using a book of the summary variety, with appropriate written exercises. The next two days might consist of reading and discussion, the reading covering a variety of subjects throughout the year, with special emphasis on materials of a cultural or literary nature. Many schools place the emphasis first on topics of culture and civilization, ending the sequence with literature. The last day of each week can be used for advanced laboratory drill practice, or for special projects that may be assigned as a part of speaking practice. The point is that a flexible approach offers many opportunities to match the program to the needs of the student, and many variations and combinations are possible.

It is important to keep in mind that control of the basic

functions of the language is the broad goal of the secondary program, and attainment of this objective should be the criterion that determines the choice of materials as well as activities. The student should not be rushed into reading literary selections as an esthetic exercise until he has attained sufficient mastery of the language to make this feasible. At the same time, there is nothing wrong with using a literary selection as a medium through which to present other aspects of the language such as structure or culture.

Upper-level classes present a golden opportunity for the imaginative teacher to offer a course that is more directly relevant to the lives of his students. Classroom material can come from a wide range of contemporary sources: newspapers, magazines, radio, television, short-wave radio (See Chapter VI), etc. More flexibility is possible because classes are usually smaller, and most of the students who elect these courses have high interest in foreign language study. Furthermore, they are in command of the basic patterns of the language which allows the use of more varied materials. The advanced course should permit the student to perfect the language in a meaningful and practical context, as well as in an intellectual and literary one.

TEACHING THE TARGET CULTURE

Effective foreign language learning can only occur if the language is presented as an inseparable component of the culture in which it exists. Every authentic language situation--reading an original selection, listening to the speech of a native--involves cultural elements which the student must comprehend if the situation is to have true meaning for him. From the standpoint of the language teacher, the teaching of culture has been a relatively neglected area, and many foreign language

teachers have received little preparation for this aspect of their work. A great deal has been written about the subject, but often at a level that is difficult to apply to the usual school situation.

The problem begins with the definition of the term culture. There are many definitions, usually offered by the discipline defining the term at a given moment. But the language teacher can use such specialized viewpoints only as background information. For his purposes, culture must be defined in broader terms, because a well-planned foreign language sequence will cover many of the different areas represented by the more specialized points of view. A typical teacher's definition of the word culture might be the following: The sum total of ways of living of a given people. This includes especially the system of values which determines how they think, what is important to them, what makes them the unique way they really are.

To many teachers, the responsibility of teaching the "ways of living" of a given people might appear an impossible task at first glance. How should material be organized to convey to the student a true idea of what the foreign language means to the people whose native language it is? How to help him capture the meanings which the native attaches to the words and phrases he uses? The answer may lie in a relatively simple approach to the problem of teaching culture, which seems to be within the capability of most teachers.

The central element of this approach is the dialogue, which is a common feature of most classroom materials in current usage, especially during the early stages of language instruction. In a good textbook the dialogue is a capsule presentation of a culturally authentic situation which accurately reflects the value system as far as that

situation is concerned. The teacher can begin by examining each dialogue for those cultural differences which are especially difficult for an outsider to understand on the basis of his own life experiences. The next step is to call attention to these differences, to explain them sympathetically, and perhaps to offer the student a chance to personalize the experience by some activity such as role playing. In this manner the student may get a somewhat clearer idea of what it is really like to be French, Russian, etc., at least as far as one particular situation is concerned. Dialogues offer access to a wide variety of familiar situations involving cultural problems which can be handled in this way at almost any level.

If this approach is used, a few points are important enough to merit special emphasis: First, the cultural differences referred to must be identified and explained, which should prevent false conclusions or no conclusions at all on the part of the student. Then, a special effort must be made to avoid stereotypes as easy explanations for behavior that is different. Third, stress behavior that is typical, rather than unusual or quaint. Fourth, remember that cultural facts (geography, history, etc.), mean very little until they are associated with the human beings who relate to them.

There are many levels of culture that are pertinent to the work of the classroom teacher, and after the learner's competence increases, many of these specialized areas can be treated more formally. This includes such areas as history, folklore, economics, sociology, literature, and the fine arts. Regardless of the level of culture which is being presented, the teacher can profit from the following suggestions:

- (1) Use visual materials to reinforce the presentation of

of cultural information. This includes films, filmstrips, slides, pictures, charts, and almost any materials of this type which are appropriate to the topic at hand.

(2) Develop a collection of realia which will help to bring students into close contact with the foreign culture. This might be anything that fits the purpose: postcards, musical instruments, ceremonial costumes, masks, flags, sports equipment, etc.

(3) Use foreign newspapers and magazines to add an authentic foreign viewpoint to well-known news events.

(4) Involve classes with the music and art of the foreign country.

(5) Plan many situations in which students can assume roles appropriate to the foreign culture.

(6) Present cultural information in a variety of ways. Some teachers give a five or ten minute talk on some aspect of culture at the beginning of every class period. These presentations are usually short, given in the foreign language, and frequently accompanied by visual materials. Other teachers use a more formal device called the "culture capsule." This is a short, prepared "capsule" of cultural information which may be presented in many different ways: short lecture, films or transparencies, student research, etc. The materials needed for each of these presentations is carefully collected and stored. The same basic "capsule" may be utilized for different levels, with appropriate changes. If a teacher begins a collection of such "capsules" covering various topics, it is a simple matter to add to it as new material is acquired, and to eventually develop a large file of cultural information which is ready to use and up to date.

To present cultural information in a consistently authentic manner requires a good deal of reading and preparation on the part of the teacher. The bibliography for this chapter contains many such selections which are highly recommended.

TEACHING CONVERSATION

Every student of a foreign language needs many opportunities to practice the new language in natural situations if he is to feel at home with it. The process begins with the early drills which are completely controlled, and should gradually move into areas of spontaneous expression. The most difficult task of the teacher in this area is to guide the student into this "free" kind of expression. It is hoped that the following suggestions will help to make the transition easier:

(1) As soon as the student has learned the appropriate responses to dialogue material, adapt the statements or questions to the student's personal life. He must then choose his answer on the basis of a real communicative situation.

(2) Regardless of the level, arrange for constant practice in listening comprehension. This kind of practice will greatly facilitate the speaking skill.

(3) Use dictation frequently to aid in comprehension practice.

(4) Avoid interrupting a student to make corrections. It is better to do this later and in a general way, perhaps by going over mistakes that involve the entire class, rather than concentrating on one student.

(5) As the student gains facility in the use of the language, assign short oral reports to be given to the entire class.

(6) Assign skits which require the students to assume roles.

At first, these can be prepared carefully so as to be almost memorized. Later on, the only preparation necessary may be the topic which can be announced beforehand. Assuming a role helps the student to personalize the language, and if the presentations are given to the entire class, they will usually generate a lot of interest and enthusiasm.

(7) Films, pictures, or other visual materials can be used as subjects for conversation and group discussions.

(8) Assign topics and ask students to spend the period discussing them with classmates. The size of the class will determine how useful this idea may be.

(9) Help students start a foreign language club. Students are usually motivated by activities which they themselves design, and will usually approach such projects with enthusiasm.

(10) In more advanced classes, small group practice can come from reading, or from any other source. For variety, students may be asked to participate in panel discussions and may be assigned to both sides of a given question.

Regardless of what kinds of activities students engage in to practice conversation, it is clear that practice they must if speaking the language is a goal. It is the responsibility of the teacher to create an atmosphere which will encourage the student to use the foreign language freely and without embarrassment. A great deal of tact and patience is required, and the teacher must learn to adjust to differences in aptitude and ability.

INTEREST ACTIVITIES

Successful foreign language teachers know that regular class-work must be supplemented with a variety of interest activities if student boredom is to be avoided. A great deal of the activity which is the focus of an audio-lingual class is repetitious and can produce the boredom referred to above unless the teacher plans carefully to change the pace from time to time. If the activities which are used for this purpose also provide a learning experience, the gains can be impressive, and students will be motivated toward more meaningful language work.

Teachers use many devices to provide supplemental activities and they cover a variety of topics, according to the special interests and backgrounds of the teachers. A few of the most common categories of interest activities are shown below:

Music

Art

Pen-pal correspondence

Games

Festivals, celebrations, etc.

Plays

Proverbs

Foreign language clubs

Literary selections

Short stories

Newspapers and magazines

The problem that every teacher faces when he considers an activity involving some of the areas listed above is where to get materials

covering the subjects of interest. The publishers listed below are good sources for such materials, and while the list is by no means complete, the teacher is encouraged to write for catalogs and information. Once on the mailing list, it will not be difficult to keep up to date on new items.

Audiovisual Sources

- Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Avenue, Hollywood, California 90028
- Coronet Films, Coronet Bldg., 65 East South Water Street, Chicago, Ill. 60601
- Encyclopedia Britanica Films, Deseret Book Co., Salt Lake City, Utah
- Film Associates of California, 11559 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90025
- Folkways/Scholastic Records, 50 West 44th Street, New York, New York 10036
- French Film Library, 740 Taylor Street, San Francisco, California
- Gateway to Russian, Frederick D. Eddy, Ottenheimer Publications, Baltimore, Maryland
- Gessler Publishing Co., 131 East 23rd Street, New York, New York 10010
- Goldsmith's Music Shop, Inc., Language Department, 401 West 42nd Street, New York, New York 10036
- Idyllwild Record Co., Idyllwild, California
- International Film Bureau, Inc., 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60604
- Lorraine Music Co., P. O. Box 4131, Long Island City, New York 11104
- National Textbook Corporation, 8259 Niles Center Road, Skokie, Ill. 60076
- Sigma Educational Films, P. O. Box 1235, Studio City, California 91604
- Spanish Visual Aids, Spanish American Service and Educational Aids Society, Cultural Relations Office, Embassy of Spain, 1477 Girard Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.
- Wible Language Institute, 24 South Eighth Street, Allentown, Pennsylvania 18105

Cultural Aids

Esso Tourist Service, Foreign Department, 15 West 51st Street, New York, New York

FACSEA (French American Cultural Services and Educational Aids), 972 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10021

French Government Tourist Office, French National Railroads, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York

German Information Center, 410 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10022

German Service Bureau, University Extension, 732 North Lake Street, Madison, Wisconsin 53706

German Tourist Information Office, Association Films, Inc., 25358 Cypress Avenue, Hayward, California

Lufthansa German Air Lines, 410 Park Avenue, New York, New York

Mexican Government Tourist Department, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10020

National Foreign Language Week Posters, Professor James Fonesca, California Lutheran College, Thousand Oaks, California 91360

Spanish Consulate, 5526 Wilshire Boulevard, Los Angeles, California

Magazines

Scholastic Magazines and Book Services, 902 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 17632

News Bulletin, The Russian Studies Center for Secondary Schools, The Andrew Mellon Library, The Choate School, Wallingford, Conn. 06492

Games

Lee, W.R. Language Teaching Games and Contests (\$1.00), Oxford University Press, 200 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10016

Wagner, Rudolph. Lingua Games, J. Weston Walch, Publisher, Box 1075, Portland, Maine 04101

Displays, Posters, etc.

Games and Ideas for Teaching Spanish, Fearon Publishers, 2165 Park Blvd., Palo Alto, California 94036

Posters of French scenes, French National Railroads, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York

German Service Bureau, University Extension Division, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Posters of Italy, Italian State Tourist Office, 626 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10020

Posters of Spain, Spanish National Tourist Office, 589 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10020

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CONCLUSION

This Handbook has attempted to identify and answer some of the most common questions which are raised from time to time by foreign language teachers and by school administrators who have responsibility for program planning and curriculum development.

There is no doubt that other problems exist that have not been discussed in this work, but the questions that have been covered here are undoubtedly of high interest at the moment. It is hoped that it will be possible to devise a system whereby the Handbook can be brought up to date periodically, and new questions included as they arise.

Only time will tell whether this design for a Curriculum Handbook will prove more usable than the curriculum guides that are more prescriptive and that emphasize scope and sequence. The best reason for investigating another pattern seemed to be the fact that most scope and sequence guides receive little use, and are usually left on the shelf. Foreign language teachers and school administrators ask many of the same questions of state language consultants, and this Handbook represents an effort to provide a few answers to some of the most pressing problems.

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