A STUDY OF THE OBJECTIVES, METHODS, AND VALUES OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR THE PURPOSE OF ENRICHING THE PROGRAM

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. METHODS AND OBJECTIVES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. INTER-CULTURAL AND OTHER CORRELATIVE OPPORTUNITIES</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. REALIA AND AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

There has been a steady decline in the study of foreign languages in many secondary schools and colleges throughout the United States due to indefinite goals and objectives and to the increasing demand of special training for vocations and for courses in general education. Many educators with little training in languages and linguistic background have condemned the inclusion of foreign languages in the curricula, maintaining that subjects which require training in a particular field of subject matter should give way to a program of general education which introduces the student to a variety of subjects but does not provide for competence in any particular one.

The present world is one of communication where languages are an essential part of society and of the educational system. Not only does foreign language study contribute to the humanizing influence of a liberal education but it also enables the student to have a knowledge of the culture and science of at least one foreign country and prepares him to make direct contact with the people who live in it. The only way to understand language, English or any other, is through a foreign medium. No one can know the characteristics and qualities of his own language without understanding another tongue. Qualities exist only in comparison with something else, and a foreign language furnishes a term of comparison.
Foreign language study can be saved if a definite purpose and
definite objectives are clearly announced and if the particular methods
are related to that purpose and those objectives. A definite program has
never been followed consistently and naturally this has elicited criticism.
In order to solve this problem it is necessary to establish a basic purpose
with a logical sequence of secondary purposes or objectives and to co-
ordinate the methods to fit the objectives thereby unifying the program.

The conscious purpose of foreign language study is to equip the
student with the necessary fundamentals of the language through daily
practice in reading, writing, listening, and speaking to enable him to
make practical use of the language later in life, and to give him an under-
standing and appreciation of the foreign land and its peoples.

Objectives

After the purpose of foreign language study has been clearly de-
dined, the question is asked, "What are the objectives of foreign languages?"
Two distinct objectives come immediately to mind: the cultural and the
practical objective. As cultural subjects the languages make an enormous
contribution. Not only are the languages the instruments of cultural
transmission but they "cause the world to realize the ideal of unity."¹
The literatures of every language are the expression of the culture of the
people. Language creates a better understanding among the various peoples
and this is of major importance in any cultural development. The study of
language awakens interest in the civilization of the country which it

¹Bryn J. Hovde, "Foreign Language: A Tool or a Cultural Subject,"
Modern Language Teaching, ed. by Maxim Newmark (New York: The Philosophical
represents. "It is never possible, however, to enter fully into the spirit of another nation except through its language."

There is no adequate substitute for actually knowing the language and reading the literature in that language. Culture manifests itself not so much in language as through language. To depend on translations is like knowing a man through a picture rather than knowing him by living with him. To know the intimate culture of any people, one must know its language and use it frequently.

There are two kinds of travel, that which is done by actual physical travel and that which is done by reading the books of the country. The latter may easily be the superior of the two methods. Whatever a nation really stands for, its life and its civilization, does not reach consciousness in the minds of most travelers. To find what a civilization really stands for, one must look for those who represent it and this kind of traveling is afforded by the study of foreign literature. The literature of a country represents the intimate life of that country. It expresses what is valued and what is not valued, the moralities and immoralities, and the thought and ideals of the best minds. To understand the world there must be knowledge of the values of other countries and of other ages.

This cultural objective of foreign language study contributes to:

1. Sympathetic understanding and fair treatment of fellow citizens of foreign birth or descent.

2. Realization of the oneness of human nature and the right of every human being to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

3. Open-mindedness in human relations, especially international relations.

4. Comparison of the American way of life with that of other nations.

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5. Increased ability to understand languages, standards, and customs that are different from one's own.

6. Insight into interrelationships between the physical, social, and political environments as revealed in the life of a foreign people.

7. Increased ability to understand the significance of education, literacy, and unity in language and cultural traditions for individual and group welfare insofar as the influence of these factors is revealed in the life of a foreign people.

Languages are worthwhile to study not only from the cultural viewpoint of enriching lives and helping in the better understanding of other people but also from the practical viewpoint because they are potentially useful in a wide variety of occupations and contribute to the intelligent and profitable use of leisure time activities. The languages should be studied with the understanding that, if accompanied by other special training, knowledge of one of the languages is often a vocational advantage. The only jobs where the knowledge of a language is the major requirement, with the exception of language teaching, are those of a translator or an interpreter. These call for an intimate knowledge of the foreign language, with long years of experience in its use as well as an excellent knowledge of the English language. Only superior students with unusually good training can qualify for these positions but other students can qualify for positions in government or private industry which require a more limited knowledge of languages in addition to other skills.

The practical objective of foreign language study is seen in the following outcomes:

1. Linguistic abilities highly desirable in vocations involving frequent contacts with foreign languages:
   a) Foreign commerce.
   b) Foreign (news) correspondence.
   c) Foreign travel service.
   d) Foreign consular, diplomatic, and secret service.
5

e) Scientific research and foreign expeditions.
f) Foreign propaganda agencies.
g) Singing: concert, opera, radio.
h) Miscellaneous occupations: social service work; service on board international steamships, railway, or airlines; service in large metropolitan hotels; customs inspection; teaching Americanization classes, English to foreigners and children of the foreign-born.

2. Linguistic abilities required by vocations in which work with foreign languages is the major responsibility:
a) Professional translation and interpretation.
b) Teaching of foreign languages and literatures.

3. Travel:
a) Enjoyment of books and magazines on foreign countries.
b) Enjoyment of travel films.
c) Actual travel abroad.

4. Foreign literature, plays by foreign dramatists, and others.

5. Foreign correspondence.

6. Radio programs, songs, and operas broadcast in whole or in part in a foreign language.

7. Enjoyment of concerts, recitals, or exhibits by foreign musicians and artists.

8. Enjoyment of "fiesta" programs and celebrations staged by local foreign colonies.
CHAPTER II

METHODS AND OBJECTIVES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Methods

Hanschini states that the first step toward effective teaching is to decide on the purpose and objectives. The second is to decide on the best methods of attaining these. An attempt will be made here to list and to explain the various methods of approach common in high schools and colleges and the emphases that each one makes. The lack of unified methods in the schools is a serious problem and lessens the effectiveness of language teaching.

"In dealing with methods everything is contingent." While a plan may be good for one teacher, it might be bad for another, just as a method may be good for one pupil and not for another. The quarrel over methods involves mainly "speaking knowledge" versus "reading knowledge." This question has been settled to some extent by the Herman, Mackenzie, and Coleman reports which have recommended a "reading knowledge" as the aim of required courses in schools. If this recommendation were strictly followed, the foreign language problem in American schools would be greatly simplified. But there is still much confusion as both methods have always claimed everything.


2Huss, op. cit., p. 66.
The method to be chosen by an individual teacher will depend upon the objectives he sets up for language study, his own capabilities as a teacher, the requirements and peculiarities of his school and its surrounding territory and student body.¹

The main objectives of language study are largely the same for most students, with the maximum period of study in secondary schools being only two years. The single skill then that is most likely to be achieved and to be used is competence in reading. While the speaking knowledge is a skill that interests students to a great degree and one which contributes to language learning, it will be used less, outside the classroom, than reading. Translation from English into a foreign language is another skill that is valuable because it employs all the uses of the rules, but it is likewise used less frequently later than is reading. Ability to understand the spoken language is also used to a lesser degree. These four immediate objectives, reading, speaking, writing, and listening, are the bases of worthwhile teaching although all are not equally useful.

All four of the above-mentioned skills are needed for all-around language ability. The actual amount of time to be devoted to each skill and the stress to be placed upon it may vary. The degree of skill to be achieved in each of the four main areas must be scaled to the length of the course and complete command can seldom be achieved.

In addition to the four primary objectives, it has been proposed that students be trained for increased ability in the handling of English. Development of a feeling for correct speech, etymological relationships of English and foreign words and English and foreign syntax should all be part of the training received in the study of a modern foreign language.

These objectives cannot be reached successfully by all teachers and each teacher must vary the proportion of each to fit his own capabilities and training. The teacher must select a method which does not stress the skill in which he is weakest. One who is weak in grammar should not try to use a formal grammar. One who is not proficient in speaking the foreign languages should not select a direct-method text or try to teach by the oral method. Nor should a teacher who is unimaginative in handling reading material and who cannot conduct a stimulating discussion of a text choose a reading-method book nor try to teach through extensive reading. For these reasons the teacher should consider all the possible methods and decide upon the one which best suits his training and capabilities.

Gullette et al.² maintain that choice of method is also determined by the type of school, the locality of the school, and the characteristics of the individuals comprising the classes. In the same region there may be a great difference in the work that can be accomplished in completely different types of schools. The public school in an industrial section and the private school in the same city have differing aims and levels of achievement and need to follow varying methods. With these differences in teacher training and types of schools, there is no ideal method. A teacher should make a choice of method only after careful consideration of all the involved factors.

"Method was inquired into by Gosling through a questionnaire listing three general classifications of method--direct, grammatical, and mixed."² Direct method is one in which the mother tongue is completely banished from

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¹Ibid., pp. 29-30.
²Händschin, "General Method," op. cit., p. 316.
the classroom; the grammatical method is a process of translating and studying grammatical rules and principles; and the mixed method is a compromise of the direct and the grammatical methods and is more commonly referred to as "eclectic." There are also several subclassifications which will be briefly explained later.

The Gosling survey found thirteen of the cities canvassed to be using the direct, and nineteen, a mixed method. This preference for the mixed method involved a definite shift from, and an enriching of, the older grammar-translation method that had for long held sway, and marked great progress in the reform of language teaching in general. . .

In a study made by Douglass in 1936 an eclectic method was again found to predominate. The direct method was found used in modern language courses in nine cases; a modified direct method—that is, an eclectic method—in forty-five; and the grammar-translation method only once. This study shows the field to be divided, as the Gosling report showed it, between the direct and the eclectic methods, with the latter predominating. Syllabi of junior high schools from various large cities and all parts of the country indicate this situation to maintain generally.

The Modern Foreign Language Study in 1929 issued to a selected list of superior schools a questionnaire regarding method. It was shown by the answers that in these schools the majority of teachers were using in the first two years either a direct or an eclectic method. The commonly employed method throughout the language courses was a direct-eclectic one or a grammar-translation plan enriched by various devices from the direct-eclectic method. This situation did not prevail, however, in the common run of schools throughout the country. If one visited schools widely or examined pupils from secondary schools—particularly on such a scale as the College Entrance Examination Board did—inspected teacher-training courses in colleges, visited college beginners' classes, studied syllabi or school programs, or noted the large scales of grammar-translation method textbooks, one saw that in practice we were far removed from the direct method.1

Direct Method

As previously stated, the direct method means interpreting without the use of the mother tongue. This method proceeds from the theory that students can be taught at the beginning to think in the foreign language

1Ibid., pp. 316-317.
by associating objects and ideas directly with the new word or idiom without resorting to any intermediary English. If a speaking knowledge and an intimate acquaintance with the language are desired, this is the best method because there is a set of habits peculiar to each language, thought, intonation, position, and words, which taken together make up the genius of the language. It is impossible for a foreigner to understand fully a whole sentence in another language even though he knows the meaning of all the individual words because the set of habits expressed in one language is so different from the corresponding set of habits expressed in another language.

It is impossible to get this set of habits which makes up the genius of a foreign language by a method which alternates the two sets of habits of the foreign and the native language. New habits cannot be formed under these circumstances but can be formed only if there is a complete break with the old habits and a substitution of the new. This, therefore, is the primary justification for the use of the direct method. And it is also the reason for the failure of translation methods to impart a feeling for the language and to establish new linguistic habits.

There are several reasons for failure to adopt a direct method. In America the majority of teachers are not trained well enough to use the direct method, since they can only speak the foreign language in an imperfect manner. Another difficulty encountered in the use of the direct method is the fact that too much is attempted in a limited time and the courses are too short for this method to function effectively. In certain European schools where students begin their study of foreign languages in the grades and continue them for many years, the results of teaching by the direct methods have been practical.
To rely upon certain objects and upon actions that can be demonstrated by gesture language causes a limitation in the vocabulary used in the classroom. Everything, such as pens, pencils, books, chairs, and tables may be covered but relatively little else. The attainment of this speaking ability is seldom possible under the conditions prevailing in the schools and the insistence upon using the foreign language exclusively can lead to a waste of time. Moreover, the spoken language is much more difficult to learn than the written language and for the average student much time and energy are required in order to attain skills that have little or no importance to him.

Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method is based on the indirect principle approach through the vernacular. It is characterized by the learning of rules of grammar with examples, the analysis of short reading selections which illustrate the grammatical principles involved, and the translation from English into the foreign language of sentences which provide drill on the application of the rules. No stress is laid on pronunciation or on a knowledge of the foreign civilization. Explanation and discussion are in English and no attempt is made to acquire a speaking knowledge of the foreign language.

The general aim of the grammar-translation method is vague. Students do acquire some reading ability and much mental discipline, but there is doubt if anyone has ever learned to speak by rule. However, the instructors gain satisfaction in using this method because they do not need to be able to speak the foreign language fluently and they can make up for
this inferiority by knowing more rules of grammar. Moreover, the study is organized. It involves an intellectual discipline and explanations take up a large part of the class period. It is not concerned with skills alone but with the principles behind the skills. The student is expected to go from one language to the other word by word with the aid of rules and idioms.

This method has fallen into discredit; and while it is not yet entirely banished from classical instruction, it can scarcely be found, in its original purity, among the modern language courses of any civilized region.1

The objections to the method are: the majority of students are uninterested in the structural side of language and see no use in learning the rules; it neglects the broadening of the mind through contact with the life, the ideas, and the forms of thought and expression of different countries, and the appreciative study of literary masterpieces; the attempt to apply a large number of grammatical principles inhibits the student in expressing himself; and it may employ disconnected, unnatural sentences for drill.

The old grammar methods are often a bore and not only destroy interest but awaken a bitter hostility. The direct methods intend to correct this by going to another extreme. Here is the living language. But something new through constant familiarity also becomes old and dull, so it must not be forgotten that the old-fashioned way also has its good features.

Mixed or Eclectic Method

The method which the majority of language teachers adopt is known as the eclectic method. This method consists of a selection of the most

advantageous parts of all methods. In reality the eclectic method is the teacher's own method. It is a method which changes with every advance in educational psychology and with every addition to the teacher's knowledge, skill, and experience. The eclectic method is characterized by the chief distinctions of both the direct method and the grammatical method, namely, that of barring the mother tongue from the classroom during the language class and of translating and studying grammatical principles and rules.

Handschin says that in practice the eclectic method is characterized by the following kinds of work:

1. Great care in teaching pronunciation, especially the first days and even the first weeks of the course.

2. Oral treatment of texts before they are presented to the eye, although reading later becomes the center of instruction.

3. Exclusion of the mother tongue from the classroom as far as possible.

4. Grammar taught inductively in connection with oral work.

5. Much free composition on matter that has previously been learned by hearing and speaking it.

6. Translation reduced to a minimum and barred from elementary instruction altogether.

7. Use of realia and texts to teach the foreign civilization.1

The Army Specialized Training Program, more commonly referred to as ASTP, is very intensive in character. The direct-eclectic or mixed method is very similar to the one used by the ASTP. The chief characteristics of the ASTP method are as follows:

1. The drillmaster, on the very first day of the class, reads a dialogue of twenty to thirty questions and answers. He dramatizes these by gestures, intonation, and facial expression while reading.

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2. The printed questions and answers are then passed out to the students, and they begin to read in chorus what they have been repeating after the drillmaster several times.

3. The class is divided into groups of five and each one in the group puts these questions to the other members of his group. Each group ignores the other group. Any mispronunciation is corrected by the others in the group.

4. Midway between these dialogues key words are erased from the board because by this time the words should have been memorized.

5. The following day the grammar and grammatical constructions used in these sentences are explained.

6. Short readings are next introduced.

7. These readings lead to dramatic skits in which the phrases and key words are used.

8. Motion pictures are introduced using the printed phrases and vocabulary with which the class is familiar.

9. Oral composition or speech is next introduced on subjects including economics and politics. Frequently speakers in the foreign language conduct lectures and discussions.

10. Writing is forbidden in most institutions and is at a minimum in others.

11. Translation as such is avoided in most of the language courses.

As previously stated, the direct-eclectic method is very similar to the method used by ASTP. In the eclectic method pronunciation is taught very carefully the first few days and even weeks; the ASTP program provides for the learning of pronunciation by means of imitation and memorization.

The eclectic method takes oral treatment of texts before they are presented to the eye, although reading later becomes the center of instruction. The teachers of the ASTP present questions and answers orally before the printed forms are introduced. The eclectic method endeavors to exclude the mother tongue as far as possible. In ASTP the mother tongue
is never used except to explain certain points of grammar. The eclectic method teaches grammar inductively in connection with oral work. One of the most popular ways of presenting grammar in ASTP is by the inductive method, together with a careful analysis of carefully prepared drill sentences.

There is in the eclectic course much free composition on matter and grammar that has been previously learned. Writing, after a demand by some of the trainees, has been introduced into ASTP. However, it is forbidden in some institutions and in many it is held at a minimum. Oral composition holds a large place since one of the main objectives of this program is to enable the trainees to speak the language fluently. In the eclectic method translation is reduced to a minimum and barred from elementary instruction altogether. In ASTP reading means reading for ideas in the text not translation. Yet there is considerable translation in the program. It is used freely in most classes when the limitations of time and the need for clarity seem to demand it.

The use of realsia and texts to teach the foreign civilization is a must in the eclectic method of teaching. Along with the texts used by the trainees in ASTP, phonograph records and movies hold a prominent place. Language tables are formed in some instances. There are skits, singing sessions are organized, and in several institutions the students edit a newspaper in the foreign language.

Perhaps students would profit most from a course if there were the adoption of the three basic tendencies of the foreign language course given by ASTP:

1. To speak the foreign language in class from the very first day.
2. To eliminate or postpone consideration of low-frequency constructions, tenses, and moods in the interest of expediting efforts to speak.

3. To avoid translation from the foreign language into English.

Natural Method

The natural method aims at imitating the process by which a child learns his mother tongue; the use of English is barred. By means of monologues with gesticulation, pantomime, repetition, and an exchange of questions and answers, the teacher's speech is understood and imitated. With the aid of this gesticulation and by attentive listening and much repetition, the beginning student is able to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of sound and finally reaches the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases. Vocabulary is acquired in the course of daily activities. When a considerable familiarity with the spoken language has been attained, the student begins reading; grammar is introduced only after the two other abilities have been developed to a certain degree. This method arouses enthusiasm because the pupils are actually engaged in communication and are acquiring a practical use of the language.

Young children learn well by this method, but an older person cannot learn in a manner similar to the child's. The older student does not imitate the teacher but substitutes for the strange vowels and consonants the English sounds which the foreign ones happen to suggest to him. The conditions under which the mother tongue is acquired cannot be reproduced in the classroom, because the pattern of speech already acquired through the mother tongue conditions the learning of a second language.
This method also sacrifices "the artistic interest of language study to a so-called practical one."

Psychological Method

The psychological method is based on the principles of the association of ideas and mental visualization. The student is to imprint foreign words in his mind through his impression of objects, pictures, and gestures, and then attach the foreign word to this image. According to this method, the vocabulary is learned in the form of sentences which are divided into subject groups. One group forms a lesson. These lessons are gathered together in chapters, each of which treats of one general topic; several of these chapters make a series. When a student has gone through all the series, he is supposed to have mastered the whole spoken language. Instruction in grammar accompanies the series and English explanations are allowed, but the emphasis is upon thought and speaking in the foreign language.

This method very definitely trains the memory; it fascinates the student and commands his attention; and in a short time it gives the student a larger vocabulary dealing with the objects and actions of everyday life. As to its defects, this method neglects literary and cultural values and gives an unsatisfactory treatment of pronunciation.

Phonetic Method

The phonetic method resembles the natural and psychological methods in that it emphasizes oral practice and uses, as far as possible, the

foreign language itself as a medium of communication. However, unlike
the natural and the psychological methods it is very systematically
constructed and approaches the problem of pronunciation in a scientific
way. It begins with a study of the vocal organs and the training of the
ear, with the students thoroughly drilled in the vowels and consonants
of the strange tongue. They study enunciation, intonation, and quality
of voice and they learn to read and to write a phonetic alphabet. The
ordinary spelling is kept from the student during the elementary period
because transition from sound symbols to standard orthography is not
supposed to present any serious difficulty. Laboratory speech apparatus,
phonograph records, dictation, radio, and individualized corrective work
are some of the aids to aural comprehension and oral proficiency. Objects,
pictures, and maps are displayed in an effort to familiarize the students
with the character, thought, and surroundings of the people whose language
they are studying. The new language is regularly used in the classroom
although the use of the vernacular is permissible for explanations.
Little translation is attempted at the beginning and presentation of
grammar is also reserved for a later stage.

This method places emphasis upon good pronunciation and a ready,
accurate command of the spoken language. The training it gives improves
the quality of the student's voice and his enunciation of his mother
tongue. The attempt to give students, by ear and eye, by the use of
objects and pictures, a correct and vivid idea of foreign life has been
carried further by the phonetic method than by any other method. It is
evident, however, that this method requires a special preparation on the
part of the teacher. It is almost imperative that the teacher should be
a competent phonetician.
While oral work such as this is valuable for its own sake, what is its value from the point of view of teaching by this method in the American high schools? Like other oral methods it tends to overlook the importance of literary education, postponing the reading of books of literary worth to a stage that is beyond the secondary school level, and the majority of pupils will not continue their education beyond this secondary level.

Reading Method

The reading method consists of an extensive reading of an appropriate collection of materials both in and out of class. Grammar and composition are given only a minimum of attention and are regarded merely as a help in reading. Pronunciation is given little attention as there is little or no oral exercise. In the preparation of teaching material, research and experimentation in foreign language teaching receive consideration in the following ways: the study of eye movements in connection with improving speed and comprehension; the selection of vocabulary, idioms, and syntax on the bases of frequency counts; the regulation of the rate at which new words are introduced; and the construction and standardization of tests.

Class reading is done under supervision and with directions on how to study. In the outside reading program allowance is made in the assignment for individual differences, but a transition is made as soon as possible from simplified material to the original writings of the foreign authors.

This method has been used extensively recently in the secondary schools and colleges, especially in those that have large classes, a short
course, and an American teacher. Its great advantage is that it enables the student to read literature quickly, not with the complete appreciation that an all-around command of the language can give but with intelligence and enjoyment. The disadvantages of the reading method are that it deals with only one aspect of language and it gives little stimulus for attention.

With the publication of the "Coleman Report" in the Modern Foreign Language Study of 1929 a new emphasis, differing from that of reading-translation recommended by the Committee of Twelve in 1898, was given to reading as a primary objective. Coleman states as the immediate objectives the progressive development of:

1. The ability to read books, newspapers, and magazines in the modern language within the scope of the student's interests and intellectual powers.

2. Such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for reading with comprehension.

3. The ability to pronounce correctly within the limits of class materials.

4. A knowledge of the foreign country, past and present, and of a special interest in the life and characteristics of its people.

5. Increased knowledge of the derivation and meanings of English words, of the principles and leading facts of English grammar, of the principles and leading facts of English words, and of the relationship between the foreign language and English.1

Surveys showed that the majority of high school students studied a foreign language for only two years and this led to the conclusion that the four basic aims of language study could not all be achieved in so short a time. Therefore, reading was considered to be the most worthwhile objective for future use. The reading approach does not ignore the other

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aspects of language training, but its basic aim is to achieve reading ability. When one can read a language easily, a speaking knowledge of that language is very close.

In any case, the reading objective is about the only one that can now be countenanced for all students, and it remains for textbook writers and teachers to show how efficiently that aim can be accomplished.¹

Objectives

Pronunciation

One of the essential parts of learning a new language is to acquire a good pronunciation.

Although ability to pronounce the foreign language is ultimately essential to a satisfactory realization of the ability to read, write, or speak it, this fact does not necessarily mean that practice in pronunciation should be the exclusive concern of the teacher and student during the first few days of the beginning course.²

It is important that the natural interest of the pupils be maintained by a continuing sense of progress in the use of the language and never dulled by an overabundance of technical work.

In the approach to the actual study of a living language, especially when the matter of new sounds is to be considered, psychologists and linguistic authorities (Hanschlin, Palmer, Judd, Sweet, Jespersen) are agreed that the learning process becomes most effective when the various steps are taken up in the following order: through the ear by the reception of aural impressions; through speech by imitation and reproduction of what has been heard; through the eye by recognition of graphic equivalents of what has been heard or uttered; through the muscular sense in writing.³

¹Euse, op. cit., p. 83.
Until the beginner has had an opportunity to hear the language correctly in context that is meaningful, it is doubtful that he will be able to imitate or reproduce its sounds.

To accomplish this, it is necessary that there should be periods of receptivity on the part of the pupil, during which, within the recitation or series of recitations he registers and becomes fully familiar with new aural impressions before attempting to reproduce them orally.¹

Oral training follows the aural impressions and the pupil begins to reproduce the sound symbols that have become familiar to him. Class exercise should precede individual practice and absolute mimicry is very important. When the pupils have become accustomed to foreign sounds, both in comprehending and in reproducing them orally, the coordination of eye with ear and with utterance may be introduced. Graphic equivalents of the different sounds of the language should be perfectly familiar to the pupil's eye before beginning actual reading in a textbook.

Oral spelling and writing from dictation of sounds, syllables, words, and word groups are a helpful means of establishing an accurate sense of the values of letters to represent sounds, and should be a natural introductory step to formal reading.²

Training in pronunciation is closely interrelated with the initial steps of language learning. If accuracy of pronunciation is to be attained, concentration on the proper use of the organs of speech should begin during the oral period. Demonstrations of their use by the teacher are essential and constant vigilance on the teacher's part is necessary to prevent the acquisition of bad habits. "Matters of pronunciation cannot be left to automatic habit, as in our native language the motions of our lips, tongue, and jaws are habitual."³ Continuous drill beginning with the simplest

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 305.
known sounds and proceeding slowly to the more difficult unknown sounds is most important in the early stages.

Hankschin says that in teaching pronunciation to a beginner the following outline should be employed:

First Day.
1. Draw a picture or produce a chart of the vocal organs.
   a) From the chart explain the differences in the position of lips and tongue in relation to teeth and mouth.
   b) It is well to demonstrate by saying words to illustrate.
2. Draw the vowel triangle on the board.
   a) Contrast the pure vowels of the foreign language with the diphthongal glide of English words.
   b) Demonstrate by use of both English and foreign words.
   c) Have pupils pronounce foreign vowels after you have produced them.
   d) Drill them in method of placing vowel organs correctly so as to produce the proper sound.
   e) Demonstrate open and closed vowels.

Second Day.
1. Review what has been explained the first day.
2. Drill voiced and voiceless labial, or lip consonants.
3. After presenting them in isolation, say them with a consonant followed by a vowel.
4. Then drill on voiced and voiceless alternately.

Third Day.
1. Review by lecture and illustration the lessons of the first two days.
2. Illustrate today the production of dental and labiodental consonants, also of interdentals.
3. Present in isolation and then in use with vowels.
4. Introduce today also the palatals, velars, and alveolars.
5. Be sure students know the location of such positions as regards position of tongue to palate.

Fourth Day.
1. Review all the above.
2. Practice pronunciation in words, individually and in chorus.
3. Practice as above in sentences.

4. One of the jingles for correct pronunciation may be introduced at this period.

Fifth Day.
1. Short quiz on the principles stressed in the lessons of the first four days.

2. Teach a short song which will give rhythmical practice in pronunciation.

Second Week.
1. Introduce words, sentences, and then paragraphs giving practice in pronunciation and rhythm.

2. Use phonograph records and let pupils listen to records while they read from mimeographed copies what is being said by means of records. Let them try reading with the same rhythm and pronunciation after record has been played.

3. Practice reading in chorus and individually.

Third Week.
1. Devote the periods this week to conversation in the foreign language.
   a) Distribute to pupils questions with the appropriate answers and demand that all conversation during these periods be entirely in the foreign language.
   b) Speak to pupils in the foreign language, enabling them to understand by appropriate gestures and pantomime what you are trying to convey to them.¹

Even after these weeks particular attention should always be given to correct pronunciation and every period should include some conversation in the foreign language.

No matter which method the teacher may use in teaching pronunciation, the phonetic text, phonograph, or dictaphone, the pupil's first attempts to imitate the teacher's pronunciation will be successful only if the teacher is properly prepared. The teacher must have a thorough knowledge of phonetic principles in order to give the pupil precise directions in proper

terminology, for using his speech organs, and for encouraging and helping
the pupil until he has learned to use them correctly.

In order to obtain practice in pronunciation the following devices
may be used:

1. Reading.

2. Dictation.

3. Conversation in the foreign language.

4. Generous use of the foreign language by the teacher in the
classroom.

5. Letting pupils give the outline of a story they have read in
the foreign language for the benefit of the rest of the class.

6. Insistence that pupils' replies to questions be given in the
foreign language.

7. Completion of sentences in the foreign language.

8. Definitions in the foreign language.

Mechanical aids are also available to help better pronunciation,
such as: (1) films, (2) phonograph records, (3) radio programs, (4) slide
films for projectors.

The sound chart should be hung up or written in full on the board.
In case of mispronunciations the teacher should merely point to the proper
symbol on the chart and have some pupil give the proper sound. The chart
shown on the following page is an example of a Spanish Pronunciation Chart
for Beginners.

Grammar

Although the movement away from teaching grammar has taken on a
new impetus today, grammar still occupies a large place in many modern
language courses. Many modern language teachers are afraid that their
### PRECIS OF SPANISH PRONUNCIATION FOR BEGINNERS

#### TABLA DE PRONUNCIACION

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<td>1. Key</td>
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<td>father</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>food</td>
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<td>2.  hi silent</td>
<td>himno</td>
<td>heno</td>
<td>halo</td>
<td>ahora</td>
<td>humo</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.  c, z&gt;th(in) (s in Latin America)</td>
<td>cima</td>
<td>cera</td>
<td>zarza</td>
<td>zona</td>
<td>zumo</td>
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<td>4.  c, qu&gt;k</td>
<td>quinto</td>
<td>queso</td>
<td>cama</td>
<td>coma</td>
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<td>5.  g, j&gt;h(panted)</td>
<td>giro</td>
<td>gente</td>
<td>paja</td>
<td>ojo</td>
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<td>6.  g&gt;g(o)</td>
<td>guiso</td>
<td>gue</td>
<td>gas</td>
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<td>7.  ll&gt;y</td>
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<td>llu</td>
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<td>8.  b&gt;v(w)</td>
<td>libro</td>
<td>sebo</td>
<td>cable</td>
<td>lobo</td>
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<td>9.  ñ&gt;th(e)</td>
<td>nido</td>
<td>seda</td>
<td>lado</td>
<td>moda</td>
<td>nudo</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. ñ&gt;(ca)ny(on)</td>
<td>añil</td>
<td>mañana</td>
<td>achar</td>
<td>señar</td>
<td>ſñor</td>
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**Fig. 1.**

courses will lack backbone if grammar is neglected, so it is the chief concern of their courses. In many states the texts are selected to be used in the schools and many schools are still using texts which place considerable emphasis on grammar. There are several disadvantages to placing emphasis on grammar, such as:

1. Its extreme monotony.

2. The lack of any vital pupil interest in it (pupils in ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades have no love for abstract rules and are averse to learning them).

3. The fact that it concerns an extremely narrow range of phenomena entirely disconnected from real life.

4. Its ineffectiveness in developing facility in the language; grammar tells about the language.

Grammar does have a valuable contribution to make to the general development of the student. "Grammar drill may contribute to such general educational objectives as the development of sustained habits of work, will power, and close thinking." Grammar should be a guide to learning the language but not the language itself. It should be taught inductively to explain the "why" of language. Examples should come before rules; observations of concrete instances should precede generalizations. Rice says that inductive grammar is the process of going from the known to the unknown and from the particular to the general. One of its basic psychological principles is that the student will gain most when he himself is most active in the acquisition of knowledge. The teacher's function is to help the students to learn. The teacher should not tell the class about the material or explain the new grammatical element in advance.

1 Ibid., p. 62.

The inductive approach in its purest form would obviate the need for a grammar text, but few teachers are prepared to go that far. The grammar text can be relegated largely to the position of a reference work in an inductively developed class program. There is great advantage to the student in learning through his own efforts under the guidance of the teacher. New materials become correlated with the old, and the very fact of the student's own participation in the learning process tends to impress the newly acquired knowledge more deeply and more permanently on his mind. The proper guidance of the teacher is obviously of utmost importance lest the acquisition of faulty knowledge be aided by these psychological advantages.

The inductive method of teaching the essential unifying principles and rules of a language has come to be recommended generally to take the place of the old memory methods of learning language forms and principles. The belief is now commonly held that the number of rules, principles, and forms to be learned should be much more restricted than formerly, and that these should be discovered and learned by the process of induction.

In the inductive method of approach to the study of language, drill on the application of the rule in original sentences is of valuable aid in learning the language. The teacher should be the author of any necessary drill in the classroom. She knows how much and what kind of drill is necessary for her particular pupils. The drills and materials made up by the teacher are more vital than others. Greater interest can be aroused if drills are constructed in sentences for isolated words will not be remembered as long as words that are used in sentences. Short daily drills are more effective than long ones as drills that are too long tend to kill interest and defeat their own purpose.
Rice presents a unit in Spanish where a new element arises functionally from a text or situation of the moment and shows how it can be treated inductively. In the case being described the new element is an extension of a principle already partially familiar to the class, so the obvious starting point would be a brief review of the familiar material. It is assumed that the construction to be analyzed is met for the first time in the course of a reading lesson and, consequently, the need for a knowledge of the construction is now felt for the first time. Finally, it is assumed that everything in the presentation, grammar, vocabulary, and terminology, except for the new construction, is already familiar to the class. On the blackboard there will be a place reserved, for example, for the final formulations of the principles, e.g. the left side of the board; the examples involved in the presentation of the new construction will occupy the central position; and examples of familiar material needed for illustration or review will be placed at the right.

As the scene opens, the class of ten students is silently reading about Brazil. It is the usual procedure of the class that a student who is puzzled by a passage may ask the help of the teacher by raising his hand. John, not a very good student, finds himself stumped by the sentence: "El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos."

John (raising his hand): I don't get the idea of this sentence.
Teacher: That involves a point that we haven't met before, John. I think it would be a good idea for us all to look at it together. (Wrote the sentence on the board, high in the central section, so that the class need not keep looking from board to book and back again.) "El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos. (A space is left between "del" and "que.") This is really an extension of something we've already had some time ago. What is it, John, do you see it?
John: Is it some kind of comparison?
Teacher: Yes, but please tell me, don't ask me. It's a form of comparison. But before we go into this new type, it might be a good idea to review what we've already had. Will someone give us an example of the simplest kind of comparison? Yes, Helen?
Helen (the star student of the class): "Soy más alta que mi hermana."
Teacher: Good. (Writes it on the board, high and to the right.) That is a comparison using what kind of word, what part of speech?
Class: Adjective.
Teacher: That's right. Now I want an example using a noun. Henry?
Henry: "Tengo más dinero que Vd."
Teacher: Right! (Writes it under the first example to the right.) This is the simplest form. Will someone make a general statement?
Helen?
Helen: Comparisons are expressed by "más" in front of a noun or adjective and "que" after it.
Teacher: That's pretty good, but there are one or two things that could improve it. Well, Paul?
Paul: Could an adverb be used instead of a noun or adjective?
Teacher: Yes, that's one thing I had in mind. Let's add "adverb" to Helen's statement. Anything else?
John: Isn't "menos" used... I mean, "menos" is used sometimes instead of "más."
Teacher: There we have it! I'll write the whole statement over here at the side. (Writes at the left while saying it slowly.) "Comparisons are generally expressed by 'más' or 'menos' in front of a noun, adjective or adverb followed by 'que' to introduce the second part." But we want an example with an adverb. Dorothy, can you give one?
Dorothy: "Mi madre escribe más bien que yo."
Teacher: Oh, oh! Careful, what's the matter there? (Nods to Helen who has her hand up.)
Helen: It isn't "más bien," it's "mejor."
Teacher: That's right, "Mi madre escribe mejor que yo." There are a few adjectives and adverbs that have special forms to be used in comparisons. You'll find those listed in your grammar so we won't take the time to list them now. Dorothy, be sure to look them up. (Writes the example under the other two at the right.) Now we have the general principle all set. How about the two special things we learned before?
Arlene: Well, there was something about using "de" instead of "que."
Teacher: Yes, but what was it?
Arlene: I don't remember just what it was.
Teacher: Who does? Who'll give us an example? Helen?
Helen: How about, "Hay más de diez alumnos en la clase?"
Teacher: That's good. (Writes it on the board under the others.)

Can anyone state the principle we evolved before? John, please don't look back in your notebook, try to get it from what we're doing now. What do you see in Helen's example that's a little different from the others? (Several suggestions are made, such as the presence of "Hay," until the teacher turns again to Helen.) Well, Helen, why did you use "de" instead of "que?"
Helen: Because there's a number right after it.
Teacher: That's right. As Helen says, when a numeral would immediately follow "que," "de" is used instead of "que." (Writes the
statement on the board at the left under the general statement, leaving room between "que," and "de" for an addition about to be developed.) But there's one thing we must notice. What kind of sentence is this, and I don't mean simple, compound or complex?

Evelyn: Do you mean declarative?
Teacher: Yes, it's declarative, but what else?
Evelyn: Affirmative.
Teacher: Good. Let's add to our statement the words, "in an affirmative sentence." (Writes it in the space left for it.) Now, if we have to put it in, it stands to reason that a negative sentence must require something else. Will someone put Helen's sentence in the negative? George?
George: "No hay más . . . más . . más que diez alumnos en la clase."

Teacher: (Smiling at George's hesitation and writing the example under the others): You got it finally, didn't you? That's it. What did you do, George?

George: Why, I used "que" in the negative sentence.
Teacher: All right, then, we add to our statement that "in a negative sentence 'que' ordinarily is used even in front of a numeral." (Writes this as an addition to the statement. The class then reads the principles aloud while the teacher points to the examples involved in each part.) You notice that I inserted the word "ordinarily."

There's a little quirk to this that we haven't met; it's rather uncommon, but let's get the picture complete. Here are two sentences. "No tengo más que cuatro lápices." (Picks up four pencils from the desk making sure that the class sees them; then writes the sentence on the board.) That's the first one. Here's the second. "No tengo más de cuatro lápices." (Picks up three pencils, shows them, and writes the sentence on the board.) Does anyone see the difference. Mildred, you haven't said much today, do you see anything?

Mildred: Well, the first time you picked up four pencils and the second time you only had three, but I don't see where the Spanish mentioned anything but four pencils.

Teacher: Look at the sentences on the board. What's the difference? Wait. In saying the second one, I could have picked up one, two or three pencils, but not four.

Mildred: Oh, I think I get it. When you used "que" you meant that you didn't have more than four but you did have four; but when you used "de" you didn't have more than four and you might have had less. Is that right?

Teacher: Absolutely! We don't usually bother with English translations, but in this case, translation will help us to see the difference. Beverly, will you give the English for the first one?
Beverly: "I don't have more than four pencils."
Teacher: That's one way, but wouldn't that do for the second one too?
Beverly: I guess so.
Teacher: Can't you give another translation for the first that wouldn't do for the second, one that would imply that while I don't have more than four, I do have four?
Beverly: I don't see how. (Several hands go up.)
Teacher: Well . . . Paul?
Paul: "I don't have more than four pencils, but I do have four."
(Laughter.)
Teacher (joining in the laughter): That's just what it means, but the Spanish doesn't have to go to the trouble of adding the last part. I'm afraid that won't do. John? No? Arline?
Arlene: "I have only four pencils?"
Teacher: Ah! At last! But there's no question mark. Remember what I've said about asking instead of telling. That's it: "I have only four pencils" for "No tengo más que cuatro lápices," and that can't be said of the second one which, if it must be translated, would be "I don't have more than four pencils" and only that. But this has been just a little side-trip. I don't think it's common enough for us to put in our notebooks; I simply wanted to call it to your attention and to show you once more how small details can make a good deal of difference; we want to get so that we can sense these differences in Spanish as much as we can. Here we've not only seen the difference between Spanish "no más que" and "no más de," but also between the English "only" and "not more than"; in both cases the latter is more vague in its implication than the former. Now let's get on to the new part and the answer to John's original question. He was stumped by the sentence: "El Brasil produce más café del que pueden comprar los Estados Unidos." We've already decided that this is a comparison of some sort. How many things are involved in a comparison, how many elements?
Class: Two.
Teacher: All right. Now look at all the examples we've had in review and at the sentence John asked about. The clue is in the second element, the part following "que" or "de." John, it was your question so I'll give you first chance.
John: I don't see any difference except that the one I asked about has both "de" and "que."
Teacher: Yes, but what follows the "del que?"
John: A clause? . . . I mean, a clause. (Teacher smiles.)
Teacher: A clause. Exactly. And what does the clause have that the second parts of the others don't have?
John: A verb.
Teacher: Now we're getting somewhere. Apparently, then, when the second part contains a verb--that is, a finite verb as we've defined such verbs--we have a different way of introducing it. Here are some other examples. (The teacher writes them under the original sentence in the center of the board, numbering them 1 to 6. In each a space is left to be filled in. Teacher pronounces while writing.) The original sentence will be number 1, here are the others:
2. "Este tintero contiene más tinta de la que contiene aquí."
3. "Aquel hombre compra más libros de los que lee."
4. "El restaurante tiene más mesas de las que necesita."
5. "El camino era más largo de lo que yo creía."
6. "El carpintero construyó la casa más rápidamente de lo que había prometido."
Now, what do you notice about these sentences?
Henry: There's a space in front of "que." What's it for?
Teacher: I left it purposely for reasons that you'll see in a minute. Of course, in actual use, there's no space, especially in oral use. Arline?
Arlene: The thing in front of "que" is different except in the last two.
Teacher: Good. Does anyone see anything else? Evelyn?
Evelyn: The article that goes with "de" seems to change.
Teacher: Right! Why?
Evelyn: I see. It's the same gender and number as the noun in the first part. But what about "lo?"
Teacher: You took the words right out of my mouth. Your answer is right, though, for the first four. Now we can fill in the spaces in the first four with "café, tinta, libros, and mesa." (Writes these into the examples, enclosing them in parentheses.) In other words, it's simply a case of the same noun being understood but not expressed, isn't it? Only the article is repeated. Now, how about the last two? I'll give you a hint; the difference between them and the first four is found in the first part of the comparison. We've said that the second part is a clause. What kind of expression is the first part?
Helen: (After some study of the examples) In the first four sentences, the first part is a noun. In the last two it isn't.
Teacher: That's the idea. What kinds of word do we have in the last two?
Helen: An adjective, "largo," in the fifth, and an adverb, "rápidamente," in the sixth.
Teacher: Now, why is "lo" used instead of a masculine or feminine article? We can insert into the spaces the words "largo" and "rápidamente." (Does so.) Does anyone remember about the use of the neuter article "lo" with an adjective or adverb? What does it mean?
Dorothy: It means "that which is . . ."
Teacher: Yes, or sometimes it can be better expressed in English by " . . . nees." Here we'd say "lo largo," "the longness" or "length" and "lo rapidamente," the "rapidliness" (if I may coin a word) or "rapidity." "The road was longer than (the longness) I thought"--"The carpenter built the house more rapidly than (the rapidity) he had promised." Of course, we realize that that isn't good English and we'd never say it that way ourselves; it ought to show you, though, how the Spanish construction conveys the idea to the Spaniard through the understanding of the ideas in parenthesis. Now study these examples, and then we'll make up our statement of the new principle, as we always do.

(After allowing some time for analysis by the class) Well, is anyone ready? Yes, John? I hope you have it, for it was you who brought it up.
John: It looks to me as if we could say something like this: if the second part of a comparison is a clause you use this long way of saying "than."
Teacher: That's fairly close, but I don't like to see that you are still thinking of English. The Spaniard doesn't know nor care how we say "than" in English. He has a connecting expression between the two parts. But you're on the right track otherwise. Yes, Beverly?

Beverly: When the second part of a comparison is a clause, it is connected to the first part by "de" plus an article plus "que."

Teacher: Good, but let's be more specific. When do we use the various forms of the article?

Beverly: Well, if it's a noun in the first part, we use the proper form of the article to agree with it; if it's an adjective or adverb, we use "lo."

Teacher: That's the idea. Now suppose I phrase it a little more formally for the notebooks, and then we'll copy down the whole thing as we put in the numbers and letters. Here's the way I'd put it: (Writes at the left of the board) When, in a comparison, the first part is a noun and the second part a clause, they are joined by the variable form of the connective--"del que, de la que, de los que, de las que"--according to the gender and number of the noun. You see, in that way we specify the forms as well as when they are used. Then we go on: (At this point, the statements already written have filled the available space in the left section, and the teacher draws a line under the examples in the central section and writes the next part under it.) "When the first part is an adjective or adverb, and the second part a clause, the connective is 'de lo que'." Now to be sure, that looks very formal, but I think that with our discussion you can see why it works that way, and that's the important thing. Now we'll rapidly go over the whole thing numbering and lettering the statements and examples to correspond to each other. (This is done with the teacher reading each statement, giving the essential parts roman numerals and capital letters, and less important parts small letters as they are read. Corresponding examples are similarly labelled. The examples of the new construction retain their arabic numerals to set them off from the review examples.)

Tomorrow, we shall do a few exercises on this business of connecting the two parts of a comparison. I shall expect each of you to have at least one example of each of the kinds we have seen today. Do them in your own words and have them concern something in which you are interested. You may start work on them now in the few minutes that are left.  

Reading

The reading objective has received much emphasis lately and, in view of this, the choice and handling of reading material are of prime importance. Reading means comprehension without translation of foreign

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1Ibid., pp. 136-145.
material and the techniques of conducting the reading lesson cannot be ignored. The classroom technique must lead to a reasonably accurate and fluent reading of the foreign sentence and paragraph with direct and complete comprehension of the thought content.

The most important purpose of classroom reading is to increase the student's vocabulary, and it is only by slowly and carefully building up control of common words in the foreign language that students will be equipped for a reading mastery. The aim should be toward an active vocabulary in which a pupil has the ability to use words readily in speaking and in writing. When teachers give oral drill based on the text, they are making images of words richer and deeper in meaning. This complete control of a foreign word is gained only after one has seen and used it in its different forms and various contexts. To attain this power over words intensive reading must be practiced. A page or two studied intensively has a much better chance of remaining in the mind as a permanent source of vocabulary than if skimmed over in haste in order to finish the book.

The reading lesson should supplement the grammar lesson, but here the teacher should undertake the grammar analysis with discretion and be ready to abandon it if the students regard the process as dull and uninteresting.

Reading aloud in the foreign language gives an opportunity for improving pronunciation and it is also a useful alternative to translation. The attempt to follow the meaning of a passage while reading aloud or by hearing a passage read is productive of direct comprehension without the intermediary of English equivalents. The improved pronunciation from such drill is also productive of more rapid reading. Recitations should
not be interrupted every time the teacher hears an error but should be confined to the student's worst faults and corrected at the end of a paragraph or at a convenient pause.

A third purpose of the reading lesson is sight reading. This is assuming that the well-taught student will read the foreign language either for profit or for pleasure after finishing the course and this reading will take the form of sight reading. Therefore, the teacher should try to give the student confidence in his ability to read the foreign language for himself and sight reading in the classroom will be treated as a planned exercise. The power of inference is most necessary for the fluent reading of a foreign language, and sight reading or sight translation is best calculated to develop this power.

Although secondary to vocabulary learning through reading, the fourth purpose of reading, that of related literary and cultural content, should not be neglected. Discussions of historical episodes, cultures, and civilizations can often be developed from references in the text. The immediate problem for the beginner is comprehension, but the discussion of literary and cultural aspects should by no means be ruled out completely.

Although the intensive reading of a uniform text is almost unavoidable at the elementary and intermediate levels if a common background in vocabulary and information for collateral oral and written work is to be provided, a certain amount of differentiated reading is possible and desirable at all levels and becomes increasingly important in advanced classes.¹

This differentiated or supplementary reading is merely another term for outside reading done more or less extensively by the student. Supplementary reading may be in the foreign language or in English.

¹Kaulfers, op. cit., pp. 120-121.
During the early stages it is advisable to limit the outside reading to material in English. When the pupil has sufficient skills for an assignment in extensive classroom reading, supplementary reading in the foreign tongue may be introduced. Extensive reading for the student should be from some book on an easier level of difficulty than the text being used in class. If specific assignments in this are made, they should be at least two or three times the length of regular reading material used in class discussion. Some teachers prefer to let the pupils follow their own tastes in reading. In any case the outside reading should be less difficult than the text.

There are several ways to encourage students to do supplementary reading. Among these may be mentioned the following:

1. Tests on outside reading.
2. Extra credit for reports on outside reading.
3. Supplementary reading which would be an integral part of the work throughout the term.
4. Outside reading correlated with other subjects of the curriculum; for instance, letting pupils read foreign translations of books on the required English reading list.
5. The amount of required reading being kept within the reach of the average pupil.
6. Biographical reading of famous men and women, in the vernacular, would lend interest to the language.

The criteria for the choice of reading content should include the following considerations:

1. The social meaning of the material should not be too remote from the lives of the pupils or too profound to be understood by them.
2. Material should be connected rather than disconnected.
3. Emphasis should be placed on the portrayal of the spirit of the foreign land and its people.

4. Easy and simple material should be presented in the beginning, increasing in quantity and difficulty as skills increase.

Vocabulary

For the average pupil, the learning of a foreign vocabulary is a difficult problem.

The task involves three processes: a series of unfamiliar combinations of letters must be learned; meaning must be attached, sometimes arbitrarily, to the newly learned word; and finally, a pronunciation, not suggested by native spelling habits or speech patterns, must be applied to the new symbol. ¹

These three difficulties must be surmounted for successful vocabulary building. A student who has been properly taught will be able to spell, pronounce, and recognize or give meaning to a newly learned foreign word.

There are two principal ways of learning words:

1. Learning words in their natural setting.
   a) Studying new words through reading.
   b) Using an all foreign language dictionary.
   c) Making original sentences or questions and answers.
   d) Learning words in connection with objects.
   e) Using pictures.
   f) Studying abroad.
   g) Acquiring a conversational vocabulary.
   h) Using proverbs and idioms.
   i) Summarizing and paraphrasing reading material.
   j) Reading extensively for increasing passive vocabulary.

2. Formal vocabulary drills and exercises.
   a) Studying synonyms and antonyms.
   b) Studying derivatives.
   c) Analyzing words and idioms for literal meaning.
   d) Grouping words that pertain to a given subject.
   e) Using vocabulary notebooks.
   f) Defining words.

¹Gullette, et al., op. cit., p. 44.
g) Completing of exercises.
h) Using crossword puzzles.
i) Having spelldowns.

Assignments, Reviews, and Tests

In order to make assignments effective the teacher should explain the purpose, method, and exact requirements of a given task. Mimeographed sheets outlining the course by units may be handed out at the very beginning of the course with indicated references to study material and collateral readings. Along with the announcement of the assignment sheet there should be provision for development of the skills needed in doing the work. This should be done previously by the teacher by explanation and illustration. Any necessary grammatical or syntactical forms involved in the assignment should be explained and illustrated.

In assigning reading there should be problems to attract the interest and attention of the pupils, to teach useful techniques, to open pupils' eyes to thought which has been previously overlooked, to reveal human character, to point out the motivations of men and women, and finally to give the pupils an understanding of the social problems. The assignment should be differentiated for the weak and the strong pupils. If no other differentiation is made, there should be quantitatively more work assigned for the better students. In later stages of the course additional and more detailed assignment sheets could be handed out whenever a new unit is taken up.

The size of the daily assignment should, of course, be gauged to student ability and time available. The rule should be that the assignment must be long and difficult enough to make every member of the class work up to the limit of his powers. More important than the size of the assignment
would be the thoroughness with which it is done; so there should be no
more assigned than could be done thoroughly. Usually the assignment
would be given at the end of the period but adequate time should be
allowed for proper discussion of the assignment, and one or more students
should be required to repeat the assignment.

Frequent reviews of the material covered in the language course
would be necessary because of the nature of memory. In general, at least
twelve repetitions of material is necessary for permanent retention.
Repetition within the class period does not suffice. Until the material
is well established in the mind there should be repetitions at frequent
intervals. According to recent findings, twenty-four hours should be a
sufficient interval for repeating facts to be memorized. After original
learning, the time between repetitions should be gradually increased.
Weekly and finally less frequent reviews would then be needed if the
material is to be permanently retained.

Testing is an essential part of any program of review and as such
is absolutely necessary in language teaching. Tests, to be effective
teaching devices, should be such common occurrences that no one would
worry about them and be so planned that the class is adequately prepared
on its subject matter. Tests should become a part of the daily recitation
and be attended to with no more difficulty or strain than the rest of the
lesson. Testing a pupil's ability and understanding before and after a
lesson or series of lessons is also the teacher's best means of finding
out when the pupils are ready to go on to new material. There should be
a brief daily written review of material already covered to encourage
the habit of daily review as a part of the regular homework. The test
should consume very little of the class time and should be given at the beginning of the hour before the new lesson is taken up. Five minutes for the daily test and five or less for the teacher to supply the correct answers would represent a valuable investment of time at the beginning of each period. In the test a question or two on the day's assignment might be included. Tests should be of proper length and give all the students time to finish. They should be announced ahead of time and if the test was of the kind for which preparation could be made, its nature and extent should be fully indicated.

According to Handschin four of the most important values of tests are:

1. Tests compel the learner to carry in mind for long periods details of the subject studied.

2. Tests teach the student to organize large amounts of material to make them readily available for use.

3. Tests teach the student to work hard and accurately under stress.

4. Tests may be an added value for the teacher by testing the teaching methods.¹

CHAPTER III

INTER-CULTURAL AND OTHER CORRELATIVE OPPORTUNITIES

Inter-Cultural Opportunities

Cultural material can and should be made palatable and vital in the foreign language course. It must be interesting and informative and develop in the student an acquaintance with the problems of the foreign people and their country. The civilization material ought to give the student better judgment in evaluating the local as well as the foreign situation, increase his interest in social and political problems, and make him more tolerant and open-minded.

This phase of language learning is essentially the most important.

In the final analysis we do not teach foreign languages so that pupils may order a meal in French or write a composition in German or use the subjunctive correctly in Spanish, but rather to introduce them, in the short time at our disposal, to some of the more important characteristics of the foreign civilization.¹

The earliest attempt to overcome this cultural deficiency in foreign language teaching resulted in the presentation of numerous facts. These were memorized by the pupil and easily tested through completion or true-false tests. These facts were entirely unrelated to the pupil's life and were mere book knowledge. No enumeration of facts will produce a complete, vivid, and coherent picture of the foreign civilization.

Facts have their place, but a mere factual outline soon becomes lifeless and uninteresting. The teacher must round out the outline with the living semblance of the foreign people, picturing their daily life as affected by their physical surroundings, their history, traditions, aspirations, and ideals.

A long step forward has been taken in the introduction of texts portraying foreign life interestingly and accurately. Some of these are collections in the foreign language of a series of articles on the chief phases of the nation's life and history. Others consist of brief extracts from the works of modern authors and attempt to present foreign thought in this way. In many beginners' books there is a series of articles in English on the geography, history, and cultural life of the foreign country. But even if the textbook chosen does not offer it, cultural material can be given in supplementary fashion. Material of this sort can serve as a point of departure for interesting class discussions for comparison of foreign and American customs, resources, physical characteristics, geography, history, literature, art, and music. Cultural material may be presented by the teacher and studied by the class as a whole, or may be used for individual projects and reports.

The teacher is a very important factor and should be thoroughly imbued with a knowledge of the life of the foreigner and the foreign land. In the case of the ideally prepared teacher, this knowledge would be vivified and illuminated by travel abroad. Nothing can serve to motivate the teaching of foreign civilization more effectively than such travel and study. The teacher who is prepared by study and travel should be able to give pupils a sympathetic and accurate picture of the foreign
country. The teaching would not consist of the memorizing of unrelated facts but rather the presentation of enriching experiences. In the presentation of material the aim should be to select things which show how the foreigner has met a given situation, solved a given problem, and interpreted and met needs under different circumstances.

Pupil interest should be maintained through pupil activity. This could be accomplished by:

... training pupils to collect and organize illustrative material; to prepare scrapbooks, models and collections; to develop projects planned by the class and the teacher; to read books in English on the foreign land; to consult books of reference and to write in good English brief and simple reports on their reading; by having them visit ships, museums, libraries, churches, stores and shops, cultural centers, foreign quarters, concerts, and the opera; by having them report upon films and radio programs given in the foreign language. In a word, while the teacher should always guide and direct, the initiative and active participation of the pupils should be stimulated as much as possible.

Much use should be made of material that appeals to the eye and the ear. Such material, exhibited and studied, creates vivid and lasting impressions and adds to knowledge otherwise acquired. Every modern language department should build up gradually a collection of visual and aural material to be used in connection with the teaching of civilization. A more lengthy discussion of visual aids will be taken up in Chapter IV.

Civilization material may be taught directly in special periods or indirectly in connection with the language teaching itself. Incidental teaching, if properly done, would probably be more effective since it does not separate the linguistic from the cultural and permits the latter to arise from the reading. If a special period is devoted to a specific

1Thid., p. 431.
topic, the tendency is to use only English, but, if the topic arises from
the reading, it is more natural to use the foreign language. Civilization
material may be taught in connection with allusions and references found
in the reading of textbooks, supplementary reading, projects and realia,
and current events.

Testing the assimilation of instruction in civilization might take
the form of short answer tests, such as multiple choice and completion,
and the essay type test. Complete reliance upon the former would be
undesirable. The essay type should constitute at least 50 per cent of the
testing procedure, for in this way only could an idea be obtained of the
adequacy of the pupil's knowledge on a given topic.

The previously mentioned pupil activities should result in acquiring
not only facts, but in the development of certain skills, appreciations,
and ideals. Such phases of the foreign civilization within the range of
the pupil's interests and comprehension should be emphasized. The pupil's
contact with various phases of the foreign civilization should help him to
appreciate the beauties of art, music, and literature, in general, and, in
particular, the achievements in these fields by the people whose language
he is studying. Correlation with other departments of the school should
aid a great deal in accomplishing these objectives and in emphasizing the
close interrelation of human endeavor in all parts of the world. This
should, in turn, result in good taste, a sense of fairness, tolerance
toward other peoples, and a strengthening of the democratic ideas of the
pupil's own country. This type of instruction in civilization would
establish foreign language as a most significant and vivid social science.
The study of foreign languages and how it fits in with the four major areas designated by the Educational Policies Commission in its report on the purposes of education in American democracy merits discussion at this time.\(^1\) The degree to which these areas are sought and the methods of obtaining them will vary according to the needs, interests, and abilities of individual students. For some students the program will cover only a survey of the foreign language field or an introduction to the literature and customs of foreign nations, while for others it will involve the systematic and extensive study of one or more foreign languages.

In the first of these areas, "Education for Self-Realization," the relationship of modern foreign language study is evident. Modern foreign languages offer reading in many fields of interest. They aid in more efficient speaking and writing of the mother tongue. They are as conducive as any other academic subject to appreciation and enjoyment of beauty in art, music, and literature. They may extend one's personality by developing contacts with members of other racial groups. To students who have linguistic and literary abilities, foreign languages and literatures offer intelligent use of leisure time. In this respect of expanding and improving the student's reading interests and in increasing his comprehension of reading matter containing references to foreign countries, the study of the languages and cultures of foreign nations resembles work in the physical and natural sciences in broadening the learner's horizon.

The second area adopted by the Educational Policies Commission, "Education for Human Relationships," is arrived at through a higher degree of self-realization leading to more numerous and more effective human relationships. The acquaintance with foreign people through the knowledge of a foreign language and culture will greatly help in attaining the enjoyment of a rich and varied social life.

The understanding of human motivation; recognition of the effects of cultural standards and the social and physical environment upon behavior and attitudes; recognition of the contribution of our various nationality groups to our national life; firsthand acquaintance with representatives of these groups, and attitudes of appreciation and good will toward men; as well as the reading of the literature, in the original or in translation, of other nations, all illustrate direct avenues to the improvement of human relations.¹

The third area, "Education for Economic Efficiency," calls for the services of the teacher of modern foreign languages in such linguistic preparation as may be needed for the various vocations. The number of positions as mentioned in Chapter I requiring the knowledge of one or more foreign languages is increasing as international relations occupy a prominent place in the economic and social life of the nation. Such positions require real proficiency and knowledge of foreign culture and institutions, a preparation which cannot be acquired by short-cut methods.

The fourth area adopted is "Education for Civic Responsibility." A comparative study of the social, economic, and political systems of other countries is not merely a problem of the social studies. Such study requires not only an understanding of the political and sociological data, but a knowledge of the national character traits so that the student may realize the cultural qualities responsible for the varying political and economic patterns.

¹Ibid., p. 164.
The responsibilities of citizenship involved in the formation of public opinion with respect to American foreign policy and our aspirations for a peaceful world order are taught as much in vicarious experiences through the reading of foreign literature in the original, or in translations, as in the purely intellectual study of international relations.\(^1\)

**Correlative Opportunities**

The teaching of any secondary school subject as an isolated unit does not produce satisfactory results from the pupil's standpoint. Only by a linking up with other subjects is the full worth of instruction attained. In order to make that acquired in one field practically applicable to other fields, it is necessary to make the recognition of relations between subjects habitual in students' minds.

The following outline is taken from the "Final Report of the Committee on Modern Foreign Languages" and shows a means of establishing correlation with different subjects. It is merely suggestive of opportunities that can be used and it is recognized that they cannot all be used even under ideal conditions. But it is seen that the study of modern foreign languages can and should be made to correlate most naturally and completely with other subjects.

1. **English.**
   a) In so far as is consistent with the modern principles of teaching foreign languages, instruction should be directed toward the development of a command of the mother tongue.
   b) Correlation between English and any foreign language should be continuous and reciprocal.
   c) In the early work in English, especially in teaching the elements of grammar and phraseology, much could be done to help students who later will begin the study of foreign languages.
   d) As the pupil's easiest and most natural method of comparison is with the English tongue, the modern foreign language teacher should freely make use of this fact to designate

\(^1\)Ibid.
similarities and dissimilarities in construction, word meaning and spelling.
e) Collateral reading in English on some phase of foreign life, history or literature.
f) Collateral reading in a modern language on the same phases pertaining to English.
g) Instruction in the planning of free compositions or of reports written in the foreign language.
h) Correction, criticism and grading by English teachers of written English translations of selected passages from the modern language.
i) Correction, criticism and grading of written translations in modern languages of carefully selected passages from English literature.
j) For advanced or exceptional students written reports in English or modern foreign languages making a comparison of the works of English authors with those of modern language authors.

2. History.
a) It is good pedagogy that the history of the country whose language is being studied be interpreted first hand and interest aroused in that subject by the modern language teachers. The geography as well as the literature of the country under consideration should be taught by them.
b) The interest thus aroused in these phases of the subject should be known and if possible utilized by the teachers of history.
c) Beginning at an early stage in history or modern language courses, easy collateral reading, both in English and in the language studied, involving the history of the country concerned.
d) An introductory study in the general history course of the history of the countries whose languages the pupils will study.
e) The formal study in modern language courses, over a fairly extended period of time, of the legends, the lives of national heroes, and the general outlines of history of European countries.
f) Notes and themes in foreign languages on periods of history and historical subjects.
g) The drawing of maps of European countries, in modern language as well as in history courses.
h) The extensive use of realia connected with the life of the nation studied.
i) An exchange of lectures on historical topics to classes in history and in the modern languages.

3. Other Modern Foreign Languages.
a) An introductory and broad outline study of the relations of the different European nationalities and of the points of history wherever there are contacts. A general idea of the gradual growth of European nations in the spirit of internationalism.
b) Short reading assignments in popular scientific periodicals published in the modern foreign languages.
c) Information given in Science courses as to recent scientific discoveries made by modern foreign scientists.

5. The Arts and Music.
a) Information as to the lives and works of great artists and musicians of foreign countries through readings in English or in foreign languages.
b) Familiarity with the great foreign works of art through the liberal use of realia, such as photographs, reproductions, copies, or illustrations in textbooks.
c) Familiarity with the well-known songs and musical compositions of foreign countries through musical renditions or phonographic records.
d) A generous equipment in the way of reference books on art in foreign countries and a liberal use of it in both art and modern language courses.

Many foreign language teachers are conducting courses in world literature in translation, in foreign civilizations, and in the sociological implications of language which are open to any and all students without foreign language prerequisites of any kind. Within their field of interest lie offerings in world literature in translation and survey courses in national cultures. These offerings lie within the foreign language teacher's field of interest, training, and experience to the same extent that courses in music appreciation, orchestras, and glee clubs lie within the field of interest and competence possessed by the well-qualified music teacher. Although these courses cannot be called foreign language in the strict sense of the word, they may form as appropriate a part of the foreign language curriculum as courses in music appreciation form a part of the curriculum in music.

It is already possible to find in many secondary schools courses sponsored by teachers of English or foreign languages in the field of world literature in translation. These courses are planned through cooperation of teachers of English, social studies, and foreign languages and make a real contribution to the basic objectives of education.

Whether world literature is conceived as a strand running through the entire core program of the school, or as a special offering, the teacher with a firsthand acquaintance with one or more foreign literatures and cultures is usually qualified to make a potentially significant contribution.1

Although courses in world literature in translation are not recommended as substitutes for foreign language courses for pupils who have the time and ability to learn to read foreign literature in the original, it must be remembered that there are many pupils in high school who seldom attain a level of competence in language sufficient to permit them to read more than abbreviated adaptations of a very small number of classics, so cut and revised according to basic vocabulary specifications that it is doubtful if the school editions are as good as the translations.

"Comparable offerings in the Germanic and Romance languages are now an integral part of many college and university curriculums."2 The precedent for literature courses conducted in English has thus been set by some of the leading institutions of higher learning. This fact is significant for secondary school teachers of foreign languages for the reasons that justify the introduction of such offerings into the college curriculum apply with even greater validity to junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges where the range of pupil needs, interests, and abilities is much greater than at the university level.

1Hauflers, op. cit., p. 442.  2Ibid., p. 444.
Thus in an increasing number of secondary schools the student interested in foreign literatures and cultures who does not have the time nor the ability to master a foreign tongue has his choice of a variety of offerings suited to his needs and purposes. It is not unusual for some students to enroll in both types of courses, especially if the students are interested in majoring in a foreign language or if an interest in foreign languages is aroused through the medium of the courses on foreign cultures.
CHAPTER IV

REALIA AND AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Realia is from the Latin *reg*, thing, and means things as opposed to words. It is that part of the schoolroom equipment made to be handled and seen. Statues, models, dolls, costumes, handicraft, and any objects designed, manufactured, or typically used in regions being studied are the types of realia most commonly used in the modern language class. In modern language instruction, then, not only a knowledge of the foreign nation is to be taught, but a knowledge of its things. In its broader sense realia denotes the traits, manners, customs, and institutions of a people whose language is being studied.

The most common use of realia is to provide a proper learning environment or cultural setting which maintains or raises one's normal level of brightness. If the objective of the foreign language instruction is merely the immediate one of attaining certain linguistic skills, the use of realia will be confined to visual-aural aids designed for linguistic training. Instruction is in the foreign language and the realia is treated as a supplement to textual material.

The use of realia has its greatest significance in the integrated program of foreign language teaching on a cultural basis. This program was mentioned in Chapter III and states that foreign language teaching should be integrated with the general objectives of education and should
correspond to the life needs of the pupil. The integrated program emphasizes the inter-influences of the foreign and the American civilizations. It makes extensive use of realia in the process of learning the foreign language. To sum up, the two most important functions of realia are: it provides a proper learning environment and expedites the learning of foreign words, and it aids in the development of an understanding and appreciation of the foreign civilization.

Audio-visual aids can also serve the aims of the foreign language course if they fulfill specific functions and are used according to plan at relevant points in the course of study. The basic concepts of audio-visual instruction go as far back as good teaching. The good teacher knew that ideas and impressions were strengthened by multiple sensory appeal. For many centuries the teacher has made use of the blackboard, maps, charts, pictures, and all kinds of illustrative material. Modern audio-visual aids, such as the phonograph, projectors, motion pictures, and radio, have now been added to this list. Facilities for learning through ear and eye have increased tremendously.

In the Army Specialized Training Programs much use was made of audio-visual aids. The phonograph was widely used both for listening and for recording. Transcription of foreign language short-wave broadcasts were recorded and studied. Tri-purpose projectors for silent movies, slides, and film strips were used with material made especially to teach definite lessons.

Schools, of course, do not have such elaborate and costly equipment, but there are certain audio-visual machines which the average school does have. For example, most science or art departments have a
projecting machine. There is no reason why this machine could not be used by the language department. The same would apply to a phonograph, a radio, and a motion picture projector.

The selection of audio-visual aids should involve careful planning and it is recommended that the following principles be observed in their selection:

1. Display material, wherever possible, should have foreign language captions.

2. Pictures should be selected which are adaptable for teaching vocabulary and which will serve as a stimulus to discussion in the foreign language.

3. Films should have accompanying study and discussion guides in the foreign language.

4. Machines for playing records should be equipped with a 'spotter' and 'repeater' device permitting the student to replay the recorded speech or to stop it and repeat orally what he has heard. Another device permitting the student to pronounce the recorded speech is the ASTP type of record which provides an interval of silence between recorded phrases and sentences.¹

Audio-visual aids should not be used to pass away time in the lesson, but they should always have a definite purpose as referring to the lesson presented. Their proper use would mean more work and more planning. The teacher should be thoroughly acquainted with the material and be carefully prepared so that he does not confuse the students. The use of audio-visual aids should be followed with well thought-out discussion, questions, or quizzes. The teacher should keep in mind that visual aids will never substitute for the teacher himself.

There are at least four ways to use audio-visual material in foreign language study:

1. As an introduction to a unit of study, the purpose of showing the material being to arouse interest in the coming unit.

2. During the actual teaching of the unit so as to clarify points of difficulty and lead to better appreciation.

3. As a recapitulation of the unit.

4. As a language club program.¹

If students are to have the benefit of the many existing devices and extra helps for language learning, the teacher will have to become familiar with these helps himself and see that his classes learn and make use of them. To learn about these, the teacher should be on the mailing list of all the companies which publish such materials. Following is a list of the various sources from which realia and audio-visual aids are obtainable:

1. Importers of books, periodicals, maps, pictures, postcards, stamps, and coins.
   b) LaCasa de Realia, 1204 South 16th St., Chickasha, Oklahoma. Spanish posters and realia.
   c) The Economist Stamp Company, 87 Nassau St., New York City.
   d) Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235-5237 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago. Importers of charts, globes, maps, scientific models, and pictures.
   e) Brentano's, 1 West 47th St., New York. Books and pictures.
   g) Universal Postcard Company, 115 North St., New York.
   h) New York Coin and Stamp Company, 912 Sixth Ave., New York.
   i) Banks Upshaw and Company, 707 Browder St., Dallas 1, Texas.

¹Rice, op. cit., pp. 184-185.
2. Visual aids (films and slides) and aural aids.
   a) "Famous Foreign Features," Educational Department, Columbia Pictures Corp., 729 Seventh Ave., New York.
   b) U. S. Film Service, Washington D. C. Catalogue available.
   d) Garrison Film Distributors, 750 Seventh Ave., New York. Rents and sells films.
   e) College Film Center, 59 E. Van Buren St., Chicago. Rents and sells sound films.
   h) University of Nebraska, Extension Division, Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids, Lincoln 8, Nebraska.
   i) Linguaphone Record Language Courses, Linguaphone Institute, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. Courses in French, German, Spanish, Italian, and other languages, including pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary building, with student and teacher manuals. Special conversation courses for travel. Recordings of literary selections by eminent linguists; recordings of songs suitable for class use. Also phonographic equipment.

3. Foreign language service bureaus. For information, contacts, bibliographies, directories, teaching materials, loan collections, and others.
   a) State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.
   b) University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
   c) French Information Center, 610 Fifth Ave., New York.
   d) Spanish Language Center, 232 Madison Avenue, New York. For making foreign contacts directly, consult the consulate of the foreign country.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One of the great challenges that face humanity today is understanding among the peoples of the world. Language differences and the difficulties they may create are among the barriers that block the course of understanding. If the peoples of the world are to create a better world for themselves and for their children, communication with one another is vitally important. There must be a free exchange of ideas and feelings and in order to accomplish this a knowledge of one another's languages is needed.

The public, and especially educational boards and administrators, should realize that because of their practical and cultural values in daily living, in literature, science, scholarship, the fine arts, and international economic and political relations, foreign languages ought to be an essential part of any realistic program of education for living in the present-day world.¹

This means that more students must learn at least one foreign language in school well enough to read it, to speak it, and to understand it. How shall this be done? In school? Starting at what grade? By what methods? To answer precisely these and similar questions the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools convened January 15, 1953, in Washington D. C. This Conference had been called

to consider ways and means to extend opportunity for the study of foreign languages in the American school system. It was the first nation-wide conference on this topic bringing together persons of diverse educational and lay interests. There were approximately 350 educators present, including teachers of foreign languages in elementary schools, high schools, colleges, and universities; school principals and superintendents; state educational officials; professors of education; psychologists concerned with problems related to the learning of languages; persons in government and business involved in relations with other countries; representatives of labor and veterans' organizations; publishers and producers of teaching materials; the Parent-Teacher Association; and still others who for a variety of reasons had a personal interest in the subject.

Plans for the conference first took shape as a result of the widespread interest expressed in a proposal made by Dr. Earl James McGrath, United States Commissioner of Education, in an address on the subject of language study and world affairs given in May, 1952 before the annual meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in St. Louis, Missouri. The response to certain proposals made at that time indicated that thousands of citizens, educators, and laymen alike had already recognized the desirability of making instruction in foreign languages more generally available in the American schools. At that time Dr. McGrath said:

The United States is, whether we like it or not, in a position of world leadership. If it is to discharge its obligations wisely and well, our citizens must understand other peoples and other cultures. To gain such understanding many Americans must command
a knowledge of one or more foreign languages. If children are to acquire language skills, our school system must provide opportunity beginning in the early grades for many children to study other tongues.¹

The Conference featured a sequence of addresses and panel discussions dealing with background information on foreign language learning at the elementary school level. The keynote presentation was made by Commissioner McGrath. After the presentation of the background information, conference participants met in separate work groups to discuss aims and objectives of foreign language study for children of elementary school age and problems concerning curriculum, administration, and teacher education. Each work group provided opportunity for an exchange of ideas and experiences and enabled them to clarify basic issues, discover helpful resources, and make suggestions as to ways of achieving common ends. An outline of the ideas and procedures developed at the Conference will be given later in this Chapter.

It is true that for many years foreign language instruction has been available in the schools of the United States. Such instruction has, however, usually been offered only in high schools or in colleges and universities. Some school systems have offered foreign language in the elementary grades, but these have been the exception. Statistics show one elementary program continuous from 1899 to 1919, with a lapse of twenty-two years, then continuous again from 1941 to the present. Others began as follows: one, in 1920; one, in 1921; two, in 1925; two, in 1927; one, in 1929; one, in 1931; one, in 1936; one, in 1937; three, in 1940;

three, in 1942; two, in 1943; two, in 1944; two, in 1945; two, in 1948; four, in 1949; one, in 1950; four, in 1951; and fifteen, in 1952. ¹ Most children who wish to study a modern foreign language must wait until their fourteenth or fifteenth year, until they enter high school, and some do not have such an opportunity until they reach college.

Even at these levels in the educational system the percentage of students studying a foreign tongue has dropped markedly in the past thirty years. In 1920, 27 per cent of high school students were enrolled in a foreign language class. By 1950 this figure had dropped to 14 per cent. A similar drop has occurred in colleges and universities.

The most compelling argument for making language study more generally available in the schools stems from the fact that the United States has through force of circumstances been placed in a position of leadership among the free nations.²

There is an immense amount of good will toward the United States throughout the world outside the Iron Curtain, but there is also still a great amount of misunderstanding of its purposes. In some instances there is a barrier between the United States and other nations and one of the most effective devices for breaking down this barrier is the use of the language of other countries with which there is contact. Much more language teaching is needed than is now available. Students should be able to acquire the skills of verbal expression early in life. It is a known fact that young children imitate sounds with great accuracy.


The plan, then, that instruction in modern foreign languages be offered in the elementary school rests on two propositions. First, more Americans should be able to use a foreign language and, second, languages should be started in the early grades because children learn them most easily. The statistics show programs in effect in the public elementary schools in nine states and the District of Columbia on the eastern seaboard, in nine midwestern states, and in six of the mountain and Pacific Coast states; inquiries from fifteen additional places in recent months show an interest in setting up similar programs. ¹

If language instruction is to succeed in the elementary schools, it must be a part of a total functional curriculum. It must be related to, and integrated into, the other experiences of the school day. It should be adjusted to the young learner's intellectual, social, and emotional development and be made real by the use of visual and auditory teaching materials. The following were considered valid aims by the Conference in introducing foreign language study in the elementary school:

1. To provide fuller opportunities for the growth and development of the individual child.
   At the elementary school level the child is developing very rapidly as a person. The learning of a second language can give all children the experience of living imaginatively and realistically in the thoughts of another people. Through learning to understand and speak another tongue they gain a sense of achievement and satisfaction in their accomplishment. Their development is stimulated, their attitudes become more democratic, and their educational outlook is broadened.
   In those communities where there is a large foreign-language-speaking minority, the study of that language in the elementary schools converts the stigma of linguistic difference into a psychological advantage for the bilingual child and thus provides one of the best ways of improving inter-personal relations.

2. To take advantage of the learning potentialities of the younger years.

Young children usually learn a second language with facility and absence of inhibition. The full benefits of foreign language instruction can most rapidly and easily come to fruition in later stages of development if a child begins learning a second language at an early age.

3. To lay the foundation for later language study.

Competence in foreign language is becoming more and more necessary in the many varied and increasing international contacts of the present world, in business, politics, science, research, and virtually every field of endeavor. An early beginning can provide solid foundations and favorable attitudes, both linguistically and intellectually, for the further study of the foreign language leading to vocational and professional competence at the adult level.

Members of the group recognized the need to substantiate these conclusions by basic research and felt that pilot centers might well be organized in selected forward-looking schools for the purpose of securing reliable data on the desirability of teaching foreign languages in the elementary schools.

Dr. Bernard Levy, of The City College of the City of New York, suggested that in the follow-up of the conference a committee might be established in order (1) to consider, with foreign educators, methods and materials of teaching foreign languages and cultures here and (2) to pursue the possibility of having American language and culture taught in foreign elementary schools. Such a committee might have the following framework: (a) representatives of the local boards of education in the forty-eight states, State departments of education, U. S. Office of Education, Fulbright Committee (to arrange for exchange of teachers), and of educational foundations interested in fostering and financing the work of the committee; (b) an executive director with an administrative staff working with educational specialists in specific areas of the world.

Proceding to the consideration of immediate instrumental objectives, the group recognized that discussion time was too limited for more than a listing of desiderata. The following were named with the understanding that they must be qualified (a) in terms of that which is reasonably obtainable in the time provided in a given program and (b) by the requirement that the method in all cases should stimulate and develop classroom situations such that achievement will grow out of the normal activities and interests of children.

a) Understanding the spoken language.
b) Speaking the language.
c) Development in the child of intelligent attitudes toward language. In accordance with our understanding of child growth and development and also in accordance with
advances of modern linguistic science, build an awareness of the structure of the mother tongue and of the language being studied.

d) Some knowledge of the geography and, through acquaintance with great figures of the past and present, the history of the country or countries whose language is studied.

e) Acquaintance with the folklore, children's literature, music, and other arts of the country or countries whose language is studied.

f) Ability in the upper elementary grades to read and write the language insofar as this can be done through activity projects (such as radio scripts, letters and classroom visitors) and not as an artificial academic exercise.¹

Several basic problems will have to be solved before foreign language can be offered generally in the United States. The most serious of these is the inadequate supply of elementary school teachers capable of giving instruction in a foreign language. In the beginning the program will be something less than perfection. There is no one arrangement by which teachers needed to introduce foreign languages into the elementary school can be obtained. Experiments as shown in the above report are under way in many cities, and local school administrators have exercised real ingenuity in getting the language teachers needed to make a beginning. Twenty-one report the language taught by the regular classroom teacher; twenty-eight use regularly certified language teachers from the secondary schools; four use professors from the local college; three use student language majors or minors from the college; four use native speakers in the community; and one, Cleveland, has certified language teachers specifically trained at Western Reserve University for language teaching in the elementary schools.² In some instances where children of foreign


birth or background are enrolled in a school, these children are used to
good effect in helping the learning process. In some instances foreign-
born parents or those with long residence in the foreign country also
render service.

Some of the limitations of inadequately prepared teachers may be
offset by the use of the audio-visual teaching materials. The following
recommendations were set up by the Conference for teacher education:

1. For immediate introduction of foreign languages in the grades:
   a) Seek and utilize competent linguists locally available:
      elementary teachers with acceptable language training or
      experience; native speakers to serve as circulating teachers
      or assistants; high school teachers who may be loaned to
      elementary grades for a part of the program.
   b) Provide in-service training for such teachers by locally
      organized workshops maintained throughout the year and
      directed by supervisors, native assistants, or qualified
      secondary or college instructors, who will assist class-
      room teachers in practicing vocabularies and phrases to
      be taught.
   c) Secure audio aids such as discs or training tapes as guides
      to practice by individual teachers.

2. For long-range program, discussion was directed to the following
   questions:
   a) Where should teachers be trained?
      In general, wherever conditions can be made adequate,
      wherever elementary or language teachers are trained.
      Specifically, in currently developing programs, such as
      1) The Master of Arts in Teaching program in operation
         at Yale University, Harvard, and elsewhere.
      2) Summer workshops in city systems, where prospective
         language teachers in the elementary grades can
         concentrate on acquiring or reviving language facility.
      3) Intensive courses at university summer sessions. These
         contribute both to immediate and remote needs by giving,
         for example, one summer of concentrated instruction
         plus several more for ultimate proficiency.
      4) Liberal Arts colleges, thus profiting by the combination
         of a humanistic philosophy and practical training, 
         especially that available under critic teachers in
         practice classes.
      5) Universities through their schools of education in
         cooperation with liberal arts colleges.
The report of conferences on the role of foreign languages in America...

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Another basic problem is that of adjusting the program of the various elementary grades in ways to make possible the introduction of foreign languages. Very careful planning will be required by curriculum experts, grade teachers, and principals. Since wide public interest in these developments has already been evidenced, the task of gaining support for them should be comparatively easy. The problems pertaining to curriculum and administration were summarized by the Conference as follows:

1. What should be the content of a foreign language curriculum in the elementary school?
The content should grow out of children's natural and spontaneous interests and needs at various ages.

2. How can the elementary language program be integrated?
Integration with social studies offers broad opportunities, as well as with art, music, and physical education.

3. What teaching materials are most effective?
Visual and aural aids offer effective means. Also field trips, such as to the zoo and foreign restaurants, motivate practice.

4. At what age should the program be initiated?
The age depends on the individual situation. A number felt that it should be initiated not later than the third grade.

5. What should be the length of teaching period and over what span of years?
The length of the period should be flexible, perhaps fifteen to thirty minutes. It should be available throughout the child's elementary school life.

6. What are problems of sequence and continuity which must be met in initiating a foreign language program?
Each succeeding year should be integrated with the preceding year. New students should be helped by individual attention and by children who have had the work in previous grades.

7. What will be the effect on the course in General Language in junior high school when foreign language is introduced in the elementary school?
A knowledge of a second language as a basis for comparison should be helpful.

8. Should slow learners participate in the program?
Yes, the slow learner may profit from the study of foreign language.
The following were other problems which were discussed and which need further study:

Whether language should be taught as a special subject or as a part of general child development. (Different thinking on the part of elementary, secondary, and university persons was evident.)

What can foreign language study contribute to a total elementary program which is good for children?

Should there be a special teacher or should the classroom teacher be responsible for foreign language?

How can the secondary school language program be revised to facilitate the transition from the elementary school?

How can modern advances in the science of linguistics and the study of cultures be used in the preparation of materials and in teaching techniques? How can we get better materials better taught?

How can we determine which foreign language should be taught?

1. How does an administrator go about setting up a program of foreign language in the elementary school?

It was agreed that an elementary school foreign language program can be instituted only when the school and the community recognize the relationship of our country's position of world leadership to an increased ability on the part of our citizens to communicate in a second language. The group endorsed the ideas expressed in the opening address of Commissioner McGrath. One member of the group pointed out that he had learned through his experience as a Fulbright scholar that international understanding develops on a person-to-person basis. 'It is time to build bridges and not fences.' Hence the urgency to introduce an elementary school foreign language program locally and as widely as possible.

Those with experience in introducing elementary school foreign language classes reported that the proposal generally meets with enthusiastic approval, particularly by parents, who consider it an educational and cultural opportunity for their children. A pattern that seems characteristic is a small beginning in one school, the success of which arouses parental support which widens from school to school until the time seems right to set up the program on a broader scale. It was the general feeling that communities support language instruction at the elementary school level wherever it is carried on informally and functionally by teachers who understand good elementary school practices.

As a means of acquainting communities with such instruction, the group recommended that the U. S. Office of Education collect and facilitate the production of audio-visual and other materials for loan to groups wishing to initiate programs of language
instruction in elementary schools. Special reference was made to motion pictures of the type presented by the Los Angeles Board of Education during the evening session of January 15, 1953.

2. How does one decide which children should study a foreign language?
The question of who should study languages brought out different practices. In Cleveland, for example, only selected groups study languages as curriculum enrichment for gifted children, while in Los Angeles all students have the privilege of studying a foreign language. The interpretation of the aims of the program will determine the response of a community to this question. There was evident in the group a desire to offer language instruction on as broad a base as possible and to limit the offering later if any children seem not to profit by the experience.

3. When should the foreign language be introduced and for what period of time?
It was generally felt that beginning such study in the elementary school would lead to greater facility in acquiring the language and that instruction should begin at as early an age as feasible. Some held that the first grade is the appropriate time to begin, since children imitate easily at that time and can absorb the language directly. A teacher with this experience reported its success. Others preferred the fourth grade as the time for more conscious learning and comparison. Continuity into high school was considered desirable. Some held, however, that a 3-year exposure to foreign language in grades one, two, and three would leave residual benefits even if the study had to be interrupted.

The discussion of the length of class time to be devoted to the language instruction brought out practices varying from 15 to 20 minutes, as in the schools of the District of Columbia, to 30 to 45 minutes, as in the Cleveland schools. The group recommended daily periods of 15 minutes, increasing in the upper elementary grades to a 30-minute period if possible. Three weekly periods were considered a minimum if daily periods can not be arranged.

4. What language should be taught?
In some cases the ethnic composition of the community would be a factor; in other cases, local interest and the availability of teachers. A survey of community resources and interests should be made to decide the language or languages to be taught. In this survey consideration should be given to the less familiar languages of importance to us as a nation. Any language that fulfills the following requirements might be considered appropriate: (1) It should be a key to an important living culture and civilization. (2) It should offer the child an opportunity to understand the nature of language as a communication system and to appreciate the relativity of language symbols. (3) It should be of strategic importance to our country.
5. Who shall do the teaching?
Where the regular classroom teacher gives the instruction the problem does not exist except as in-service training opportunities are needed. In some programs now in progress a traveling teacher or a traveling supervisor directs classes in several schools. In some communities educated foreigners and former teachers with language training who retired to raise a family are able to work part-time in the schools. Other programs have been initiated through student teachers with language majors who are assigned to elementary schools to practice under the supervision of the regular classroom teacher. One program was described in which elementary school teachers had been given brief intensive language training through concentrated workshops and institutes to enable them to begin to teach the language. Further language training was then made available to them with a salary incentive. In a few localities high school teachers give part of their day to the elementary school classes. In some cases a period of special training in child psychology and elementary school methods is required of language teachers from the high schools and in others a change of regulations in the certification of teachers was necessary to permit high school teachers to teach in elementary schools. In any case, the teacher of foreign language in the elementary school must have a good pronunciation and a certain degree of fluency in speaking the language and at the same time must understand children and the philosophy of the elementary school. It was the consensus that competent leadership in a consultative or supervisory capacity should be provided for language instruction in elementary schools.

6. What methods should be used?
There was general agreement that a conversational approach with postponed instruction in reading is best for the elementary school age.

7. Are teaching materials available?
Since foreign language textbooks are generally written for high schools, the group considered the preparation of materials appropriate for young children. Existing programs use materials prepared by the teachers. It was suggested that the U. S. Office of Education cooperate with the Modern Language Association in preparing suitable materials (written, audio, and visual) to be made available to school systems wishing to set up a foreign language program in the grades. Attention was called to children's books from foreign countries which are available in the United States.

8. What are the costs of foreign language programs in the grades?
The question of financing the program aroused much discussion. The great majority of programs in the various school systems
over the country were set in motion without outside support and are being maintained at little or no additional cost to the school system. In some instances parents' fees are contributed to support foreign language classes in the public schools. It was noted that since commercial and industrial concerns with interests in foreign countries have supported extensive programs in the teaching of English abroad they might support foreign language programs here. Some members of the group held that the principle of public education demands that public financial support be given only through taxes and that private financing of any endeavor within the schools should be rejected. Instances were cited, however, of programs in other fields which had been launched by local Chambers of Commerce or Women's Clubs and which had later become integral parts of the teaching program of the schools. Some felt, therefore, that private financing could be used to demonstrate the value of an experiment where school boards might be reluctant to embark on an untested program.\footnote{Tbid., pp. 4-8.}
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