This two-part, state curriculum bulletin sets forth guidelines for the teaching of modern languages. Part one is concerned with the rationale behind language programs, student selection, and program articulation. Instructional objectives, methodology, culture, language laboratory procedures, and guidelines for testing are examined in the second section. Qualifications for secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages and selected references are included. (RL)
STATE OF SOUTH DAKOTA
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
PIERRE, SOUTH DAKOTA
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Guidelines
FOR
The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages
IN
South Dakota

Foreign Language Curriculum Committee
National Defense Education Act, Title III

BULLETIN NUMBER EIGHTY-FIVE
JULY 1, 1963
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1962 Members:  
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* * * * *

Adviser to the Committee:  
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Department of Public Instruction, Pierre  
Supervisor, Science, Mathematics  
and Modern Foreign Languages

Clerical Assistant:  
Miss JoAnn Westendorf  
Department of Public Instruction, Pierre

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FOREWORD

The Foreign Language Curriculum Committee of the State of South Dakota was appointed during the winter of 1960 by the State Board of Education and Mr. M. F. Coddington, State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The Committee met for the first time on March 8, 1961, in Huron, South Dakota.

The Committee undertook the preparation of Guidelines for the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in South Dakota in the fall of 1961. To accomplish the task, the Committee was divided into several subcommittees, which worked on specific topics assigned to them. Each member gave willingly of his time and ability to prepare his report. The topics of the subcommittees were presented to the entire Curriculum Committee for revision and approval. Finally the various reports were co-ordinated and edited by Dr. Alexander P. Hartman, Chairman of the Foreign Language Curriculum Committee of South Dakota.

Acknowledgement for suggestions is given to the Curriculum Bulletin Series (No. V): Foreign Languages, Grades 7-12, State Department of Connecticut (1968); The Improvement of Foreign Language Programs in Massachusetts, A Basic Guide, Massachusetts Department of Education (1961); Language and Language Learning (1960) by Nelson Brooks.
OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

PART ONE

WHY STUDY FOREIGN LANGUAGES? IS THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES REALLY PRACTICAL?

The facts speak for themselves:

1. JOB OPPORTUNITIES.
   Teaching (elementary school, high school, college, and university)
   Private Business (secretarial, clerical or administrative; export and import business)
   Government (in the U. S. or overseas—diplomatic, civil service, or other government agencies employing as aid agricultural and engineering experts; foreign area specialists)
   Exchange Teaching and other foreign assignments
   Newspapers, radio, television, airline positions, and so forth.

2. SAVE FACE AND MONEY FOR GOVERNMENT AND INDUSTRY.
   Both government and industry are discovering that a great deal of money is being wasted, including the taxpayer's, because their representatives cannot communicate with the people of foreign countries.

3. FORESIGHTEDNESS. To keep our research work at an enviable level, the knowledge of foreign tongues constitutes a necessary tool for scholarly research. Our ability to lead the world scientifically and culturally is seriously challenged by our lack of educated people with skills in foreign tongues. Technological advances in transportation and communication make the study of modern foreign languages as necessary and practical as other subjects of the curriculum.

4. ERASE THE UNCULTURED IMAGE OF THE UNITED STATES ABROAD. Because North Americans cannot express themselves, save in their own tongue (job language fashion, e. g. — "Me go home.")
   the citizens of other countries assume that this nation is, indeed, culturally underdeveloped.

5. ERASE U. S. ISOLATIONISM. It is based on linguistic unpreparedness. ("Let's talk my language, I don't know yours.")

6. EXCITEMENT. Language study opens a door to new avenues of communication and a window to new insights on the family of man and its cultural patterns. Every parent knows the thrill of communicating for the first time with his first child. The same thrill is enjoyed by students of foreign languages on being able to communicate in the new or different tongue. As a result more enjoyment is derived also from travel in foreign countries.

7. VITAL. Congress, through the National Defense Education Act (ND EA), has declared the study of foreign languages to be vital to the strength and welfare of the nation. "At this juncture in world affairs it has become essential to our national welfare, perhaps to our survival, that we understand the culture, the psychology, the aspirations of other peoples . . ." (Luther H. Evans)

8. STATE DEPARTMENT REQUIREMENT. All newly-appointed Foreign Service employees are required to pass at least one foreign language examination. Salary increments and rank are determined, in part, by the employee's knowledge of a foreign language.
9. SOUTH DAKOTA FIRST-CLASS HIGH SCHOOL REQUIREMENT.
All First-Class Schools in the state of South Dakota must offer two
years of a foreign language. This rule is to become effective in Sep-
tember, 1963, in accordance with the policy adopted by the State
Board of Education.

10. VALUABLE ASSET IN COLLEGE. At a time when college-going is
the aspiration of the majority and when approximately 56% of the
high school graduating classes were enrolled in higher education
programs in 1961, knowledge of one or several foreign languages
represents an immeasurable asset in many respects—especially for
those who intend to apply for scholarships abroad (Fulbright scholar-
ship and others) and those who plan to pursue graduate work, par-
ticularly toward a doctor's degree.

WHO SHALL STUDY FOREIGN LANGUAGES?
Everyone should have the opportunity to study a foreign language
at some stage in his educational experience and should be allowed to con-
tinue as long as his abilities and interests warrant it. All children can
benefit from foreign language study, especially if it is started in the
elementary grades. The elementary school should be the place where the
largest number have their first contact with modern foreign languages.
Especially the academically talented students should be given encour-
agement to pursue the study of one foreign language for at least four years
on the high school level. Students who have demonstrated success in one
foreign language should be encouraged to add the study of a second
language.

It is imperative that a student continue his foreign language study
through his senior year if he plans to take the same language in college.
The Foreign Language Curriculum Committee of South Dakota, at
its meeting on October 11, 1961, made the following recommendations:
1. that the minimum of foreign language instruction in South Dakota
schools should be a four year sequence of one language in grades
9 through 12, rather than two years of two languages;
2. that the study of a single foreign language from grades 7 through
12 be introduced, wherever feasible;
3. that, although cognizant of the many fads and problems concern-
ing FLES (Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools) teaching,
a third phase of the program could eventually include elementary
grades 3 through 6, provided that continuity is assured.

Dr. James B. Conant, former President of Harvard, states:
"The school board should be ready to offer a third and fourth year of
foreign language, no matter how few students enroll. The guidance offices
should urge the completion of a four-year sequence of one foreign lan-
guage, if the student demonstrates ability in handling foreign languages."

BY WHOM SHOULD MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES BE TAUGHT?
Teachers of modern foreign languages, at whatever level they may
teach—should demonstrate competency in the seven areas as defined by
the Modern Language Association of America: aural understanding,
speaking, reading, writing, language analysis, culture, and professional
preparation. In no case should teachers have less than the minimal skill
in any of these seven areas.

(See APPENDIX A: Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of
Modern Foreign Languages)
OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

AT WHICH LEVELS SHOULD FOREIGN LANGUAGES BE STUDIED?

While every student should have an opportunity to study a foreign language at some stage in his educational career, the particular level at which he begins that study depends largely on the availability of properly qualified teachers in the community, the pupil's individual aptitudes in the various areas of language learning, and possibly the local economic conditions. At whatever level language study is begun, it is imperative to have an uninterrupted sequence through the twelfth grade in order to obtain a high amount of proficiency.

Foreign Language teachers are generally agreed that the best place to begin the study of a modern language is the elementary school, preferably not later than in grade three. Children at that level tend to be free from inhibitions. Most young learners imitate new sounds easily, and discover that they can use them in talking to their classmates; they accept and use new expressions without feeling a strong urge to take them apart and to compare them word for word with the mother tongue. Particularly in the early stages, daily contact with the foreign language is desirable, with periods lasting as little as fifteen minutes for younger children and gradually lengthening to thirty minutes at the upper elementary level.

In those school systems which find it difficult to introduce modern foreign language study at an elementary school level, students should begin such study not later than the seventh grade and follow a continuous program in that language through the twelfth grade. A second foreign language may be started in the ninth grade by able students who have had success in a first foreign language.

If, due to local circumstances, a foreign language can be offered only from grade nine on, a minimum program of four years in the first foreign language should be assured.

Programs for junior and senior high schools: An ideal program would consist of six years of language instruction begun in the seventh grade and continued through the senior year of high school. This would enable a pupil to continue with language study in college on an intellectual level almost comparable to his work in English and to other subjects. Those not continuing in college would have obtained quite a solid foundation in a foreign language. Students showing interest and aptitude should be encouraged to begin a second foreign language in grade nine.

PLAN A: SIX FULL YEARS

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In Plan B below, four full years of language instruction are preceded by instruction in the seventh and eighth grades, taking place two or three times a week or, if possible, five times a week for half a period. With such an alternating schedule it would be possible for a teacher to carry two groups (seventh and eighth grades) during the week. This would make possible a greater flexibility in student programs. A second foreign language may be started in grade nine.
GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHING

PLAN B: FIVE YEARS OVER A SIX YEAR PERIOD

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First Language

Second Language

In schools where six or five years of language work cannot be offered, a compromise plan (Plan C) may be worked out. In that event four years of language work may be spread over a six-year period. This allows an early start in language study and, at the same time, permits better correlation with language work at the college level. Thus, instruction begun in the seventh grade may continue through the twelfth grade although only in the ninth and tenth grades is the language offered on a full-time basis. A second foreign language may be started in grade nine.

PLAN C: FOUR YEARS OVER A SIX YEAR PERIOD

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First Language

Second Language

Four full continuous years of foreign language instruction constitute a good program and are currently quite popular. Such programs should be encouraged, and schools which now offer only two or three years of instruction should make an effort to add a fourth year. Here foreign language study begins in the ninth grade. A second foreign language may be started in grade ten.

PLAN D: FOUR FULL CONTINUOUS YEARS BEGINNING IN GRADE NINE

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First Language

Second Language

In the Curriculum Bulletin Series No. V, (Foreign Languages Grades 7-12) of the state of Connecticut, from which the above diagrams are taken, the following is suggested:

"In schools where some pupils begin a language in the seventh or eighth grade and others in the ninth or tenth grade, merging of the two streams may occur as early as the second level of instruction. Separate programs should be maintained through high school for students who have started a language in the early elementary grades."

(p. 9)

WHICH LANGUAGE SHOULD BE OFFERED?

The language should be determined by local interest in a particular language and the wealth of the community's cultural heritage. Availability of a well-qualified teacher, however, seems at present the main
factor in determining the language. It should be kept in mind for purposes of continuity that the languages most frequently taught in South Dakota at the college level are Spanish, French, German, and Russian. At all times the emphasis of any program should be on quality of instruction rather than on the number of languages offered.

To develop well-established habits in one language before starting a second, the junior high school should offer continuing classes where elementary school language programs exist. Pupils who are beginning the study of a foreign language at the junior high school level should have an opportunity to study it for at least two consecutive years before they undertake the study of a second language, modern or classical.

In senior high school, opportunity should be given to continue any foreign language started in the elementary and junior high schools. Here the language offerings may be broadened to include any of those which are justified by local cultural interest. South Dakota schools offer programs in Latin, Spanish, French, German, and Russian at the present time (1961-62).

The study of any foreign language is of value because, in addition to providing a new avenue of communication and an awareness of a foreign culture, it can develop in the student a “language sense” which will facilitate the learning of other languages. The important thing is that every school, no matter how small, offers a sustained program in at least one language. So-called “general language” or “exploratory language” courses on the junior high school level have seldom proved to be of value. It would be advantageous to discontinue them in favor of an earlier start in any one language.

**PART TWO**

**OBJECTIVES**

"There must be the sharpest distinction between a course whose avowed objective is decoding and one whose goal is the learning of a new language." (Nelson Brooks)

For modern foreign languages the primary objectives should be as follows:

1. To understand the language without reference to English, especially as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar to the learner's own experience.

2. To speak the language in similar situations in a manner acceptable to native speakers, also without reference to English. (Of course, the development of near native fluency is a much slower process.)

3. To read, without conscious translation into English, newspapers, magazines, and literary texts.

4. To write, without reference to English, in accordance with accepted standards in the new language.

The long-range objectives should be as follows:

1. To help the student acquire a deepening knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of another people's language and culture.

2. To lead the student toward an enjoyment of the literature and other art forms of the foreign country; as a consequence, this may give him a keener awareness of the qualities of his own language and culture.
GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHING

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTION

Since the beginning of the Foreign Language Program in 1952, the objectives of language learning have clearly been stated. As long as methods in language learning do not falsify and betray the objectives, they may vary according to the size of the class, its age and ability, its interests, its previous training, the materials available, and many other details that are likely to be peculiar to a given situation.

The most important aspects of learning and teaching modern foreign languages in our time are summed up in the following two statements by Nelson Brooks in Language and Language Learning:

"The single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns not problem solving, but the formation and the performance of habits. The learner who has only been made to see how language works has not learned any language." (p. 47)

"Teaching by those who merely knew about the language they taught has been tried and found wanting. The need is for teachers who are thoroughly at home in the language skills they presume to teach." (p. 61)

This, of course, has shed an entirely new light on the qualifications for secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages. (See Appendix A)

1. Learning a foreign language is an activity rather than the study of a body of facts.

Language is a primary aspect of human behavior, something that people do together. Hence, to the person for whom it is an unfamiliar activity, it is something he learns by doing. It is concerned with the formation of habits. Mastery of a foreign language means mastery of skills.

Unlike most of the other subjects the pupil is studying, a foreign language cannot be learned by talking about it, anymore than one can learn to swim by discussing the position and motion of the arms and legs in any given stroke. Such discussion may at times prove helpful, but the essential in language learning as in swimming is practice until the desired skill is acquired. Knowing how one should speak is no substitute for speaking.

2. The first presentation of a new language should be oral only.

Language is something one hears and talks before it is something one reads and writes. A child hears his native tongue for sometime before he begins to speak. He hears it and speaks it for several years before he learns to read and write what he already knows thoroughly.

In learning a new language the student should first train his ear to hear accurately and his tongue to reproduce correctly what he will later learn to express in written symbols. Even for the student whose objective is learning to read, the ability to comprehend the written word is more effectively and speedily developed if time is first spent in hearing and speaking the language in question.

From the start the learner "is to hear only authentic foreign speech, he is to hear much more than he speaks, he is to speak only on the basis of what he has heard, he is to read only what has been spoken, he is to write only what he has read, and he is to analyze—if he does
3. Dialogue is the most profitable form in which to present a foreign language on the early levels.

In dialogue the student talks to and receives an answer from someone else about a selected situation, alternating the role of speaker and hearer. He practices sounds repeatedly in meaningful expressions, at the same time learning the order and forms of words. Dialogue confines learning to listening and hearing and makes all that he learns meaningful and usable. It provides the learner with models to which he can refer.

A next step, dialogue adaptation, combines parts of learned dialogues into new forms in new situations, gradually leading the learner to independent speech.

4. The language of the classroom should be essentially the language which is being studied.

The teacher may save valuable time by quickly giving the English for a word or an expression and then continuing immediately with the foreign language, but only the teacher may use English. Even minor infractions of this general rule quickly lead to progressively more frequent and more serious violations. Occasions when a lapse into English may seem desirable should be reserved for the end of the period.

What the learner must not do is stated by Nelson Brooks as follows: "(a) he must not speak English, (b) he must not learn lists of English–foreign language equivalents, (c) and he must not translate from the foreign language into English." (Language and Language Learning, p. 77)

5. An understanding of grammar can be most efficiently acquired by direct use of the language itself in natural situations; that is, by imitation and repetition of genuine speech patterns, preferably in dialogue form.

For a child grammar operates at an unconscious level. In his native tongue he may be able to use structural rules of English, but he is certainly unable to state what they are. It is unnatural to analyze what he says before he says it. Doing so, to overcome an incorrect speech habit, for example, inhibits normal fluency until the new pattern has become automatic. Knowing a grammar rule for a foreign language may actually retard the formation of the automatic habit that corresponds to it. The most efficient order is first to acquire the habit, then to form the rule.

Obviously, to obtain the desired automatic responses, one must select carefully forms and structures presented, which must also be graded and be well practiced; but if each step is carefully consolidated before passing on to the next, the need for grammar study as such is obviated. For the small child there should be no discussion of grammar, but for the more mature student, organization into principles of material he has already learned can strengthen the knowledge he has derived from practice by tying it together to prevent memory loss.

Grammatical generalizations are in order, but should be arrived at inductively and only after the student has oral control of the material.
W. F. Twaddell, an American linguist, says: "Learning about the grammar of a language is not a substitute for, nor a useful preliminary to learning the language; but it is a legitimate enrichment, an illumination of patterns of linguistic behavior."

6. Books should be closed during the greater part of every class hour. Just as a student of typing must train himself not to depend upon seeing the keys in learning to type speedily and efficiently, so the language student must learn to be independent of the book in learning to understand and to speak.

While for the small child books should be withheld several years, for adolescents and adults the learning process is too slow if an attempt is made to have objects, pictures, and actions replace all written symbols, although these words serve well to supplement the printed word. Moreover, the more mature student, who has learned to depend upon what he can see rather than what he can hear for the purpose of recognizing and remembering, wants to see what it is he is saying and resents not being permitted to do so. He will concoct a spelling of his own if denied the correct spelling. Seeing the foreign language itself has more advantages than disadvantages, provided that new materials are always first presented orally, and provided that the emphasis is always on hearing and speaking, and that the book serves primarily to prompt desired oral responses.

7. Words should always be learned in context.

Learning a foreign language is a matter of acquiring structure and forms, not of learning vocabulary lists. The initial goal should be to learn how to express the maximum number of ideas in a minimum number of words. Such functional learning involves the use of "little" words that show relationship, such words as prepositions, conjunctions; interrogative words; words that substitute for others; negatives, and words of quantity.

Later, when patterns have become familiar, habitual, and automatic, the vocabulary can be expanded.


In the initial presentation of language in oral form, the appeal is primarily to the auditory and motor senses, but the more senses that can be brought into play, the more the one will reinforce the other. The more the language can be bound up with behavioral activities, the more surely will it become a living reality. Dialogues with gestures, dramatizes with active roles and props, pictures, objects, films, slides, television, music, songs, the rhythm of poetry—all provide a more realistic behavioral context for the natural use of the foreign language and help to create a partial substitute for the ideal situation, that of living in the country in which the language is spoken.

9. Good habits of pronunciation must be taught before the learner inadvertently falls into bad ones.

While the small child "picks up" a second language without conscious attention to pronunciation, the adolescent or adult needs help in learning to reproduce the desired sounds of the foreign language.

First he must be taught to hear the distinction between the familiar sounds of English and those of the new language. The difficult part of
pronunciation is not producing the sounds but hearing them as they are.

Records and tapes are invaluable drillmasters for patient, unvarying repetition of sounds; but whether with or without them, practice and constant correction are essential.

10. In teaching reading as in teaching to speak a foreign language, it is well not to overlook the importance of sound. (Tapes or records of reading texts are valuable aids.)

For the beginner, texts should be chosen which combine maturity of thought with simplicity of style. Comprehension of what is read should be tested by means of questioning in the foreign language. Any translation that is done should be done by the teacher, not the student. Nelson Brooks elucidates this point further: "But if I do not have my students translate into English what they hear and read, how can I be sure they have grasped every meaning? This most naive of all statements reveals a serious misunderstanding of both the nature of language and the nature of meaning. It seems to say that meaning is a prerogative of the mother tongue, and to deny that every language has a uniqueness and a self-sufficiency that make it absolutely independent of any other. Yet the language under study has a right to be known and evaluated on its own merits, without being constantly coupled with and compared with and overshadowed by another." (Language and Language Learning, p. 77)

11. Emphasis in testing during the early stages of language learning should be on listening comprehension and speaking ability. Such testing evaluates performance and reinforces teaching. A student's progress should in no case be measured in terms of the number of words he knows. (See Guide Lines For Testing.)

12. Language courses in the more advanced stages should include some examples of literary art.

However, no language course should have as its primary aim an overemphasis on literature.

13. False objectives.

They include, as stated before, translation into English, as well as the memorization of English-foreign word lists, which has unfortunately been common practice in the language classroom. The knowledge of words alone is useless without an adequate control of structure to fit them into discourse.

Nelson Brooks mentions that "another false objective is the often-repeated exhortation to 'finish the book'. Linguistic forms as we use them do not arrange themselves as they appear in grammar books any more than butterflies arrange themselves in an open field in the way a naturalist displays them in a glass case." (Language and Language Learning, p. 173)

Translation from English into the modern foreign language is, according to Brooks, "the most serious of all false objectives." Translation is a very difficult task, requiring careful preparation and should not be practiced on the early levels of language learning. It becomes a legitimate objective only when the learner has reached a high level of achievement in the second language.
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CULTURAL OBJECTIVES

In the world today there still exists a tendency to catalogue facets of other cultures by the single standard of one's own culture with the psychic responses of "strange," "exotic," or "queer." This viewpoint is challenged by the behavioral scientists who insist that a "queer" custom does not exist.

Since language is a mold which contains the thoughts and ideas of a people, effective language instruction will give the student an empathy with the people who speak the language which is being taught. If the required skills are to be mastered, it will be impossible to provide a storehouse of facts about a country and its people. It is more desirable to create in the student a sensitivity toward the customs, institutions and morses of the people whose language is being studied.

The instructor may use the following means for attaining cultural objectives:

1. The spoken language in its authentic aspects should be used whenever possible.
2. Brief expositions of different aspects of everyday life can be made as necessity demands during the entire study.
3. If the literature of a specific country is being studied, it can be presented in original, unadapted, uncontrived form.
4. Recordings, selected with care, can be a source of authentic cultural experience.
5. Native speakers and foreign exchange students, invited at intervals, improve considerably the "cultural island" situation found even in the best language class.
6. Meaningful visual materials may be used and coordinated with periodicals and foreign correspondence. The following aids may also be employed: maps, globes, songs and music of a suitable nature, newspapers in the language (printed either in the United States or in the foreign country), daily conversations or monologues in the language, concerning matters of current interest.

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY

Although the term "language laboratory" may be used to describe any apparatus used in language instruction, it generally is understood to mean an installation of electronic equipment, with the tape recorder as the essential component. In its simplest form, a language laboratory may be one tape recorder (or record player) in an ordinary language classroom; such a laboratory is by no means without value; South Dakota language programs will probably begin with this type or laboratory. A single recorder allows students to model their speech after excellent speakers and to participate in group drills. These activities can be of immeasurable value, and the basic tape recorder should never be overlooked by a school seeking to modernize its language offerings at a moderate cost. Several head sets and a jack-box attached to a tape recorder create a small, somewhat private listening laboratory.

The next step in a laboratory building program is to provide privacy for each student so that he may participate without fear of embarrassment and may concentrate without the distraction of many voices in the same room. This privacy is provided by the use of individual headsets with amplifiers plus microphones and by individual sound-proof booths. Such
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A set-up permits listening and hearing one's own response. At this point, a monitoring system, a device which permits the teacher to listen to individuals for instructional purposes, becomes most valuable.

A recorder in the booth is helpful because a student can concentrate on hearing his own voice and on comparing it with the master voice. He can also play back any portion as often as he wishes. However, since tape recorders greatly increase the cost of the laboratory, they may be omitted without great loss to the student's learning.

It is obvious that a considerable amount of professional skill is required of the teacher who supervises an elaborate language laboratory; however, this is no reason for rejecting modern methods and modern tools. The language laboratory, simple or elaborate, is merely a means of increasing the effectiveness of classroom instruction by providing machine repetition of selected materials. Its value as a teaching tool has been demonstrated sufficiently, and no teacher or administrator should overlook its possibilities.

Most frequently, the language teachers of a school provide the leadership in the development of the language laboratory, although it is neither uncommon nor improper for other persons, usually school administrators, to participate in the project. In any event, no laboratory should be planned or installed unless the language teacher has been consulted and unless he understands the equipment and is willing to make use of it. It must be emphasized that the laboratory is a teaching tool, often a very expensive one, and it is of no value unless it is used by a capable and devoted teacher who recognizes its value.

Although the colleges and universities in the United States have trained many high school teachers in the theory and method of the language laboratory, there remain many who have had no experience with it.

Such teachers should seek guidance from qualified sources. Commercial firms which market laboratory equipment are willing to counsel teachers. More impartial advice may be obtained from college and university language departments, from national and state language associations, and from individual teachers who have participated in laboratory programs. The school which is planning to install a laboratory will do well to progress carefully to avoid hasty decisions and to proceed with the idea that it is better to provide too little than too much equipment. A modest laboratory can be managed even by an inexperienced teacher, and it can be expanded as the teacher progresses in that type of work. A complex laboratory, however, which is improperly handled can only result in a discredited language program and a disappointed community.

In planning a language laboratory of any type, the persons responsible must weigh the advantages and disadvantages of the program. The advantages are well described by Edward M. Stack, who discusses complete installations in The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching:

"The great advantage of the language laboratory is that the student is freed from embarrassment and inhibitions often present in the classroom. He knows that the mechanical "teacher"—the tape—is infinitely patient, that there will be no evidence of amusement at his expense when he blunders, and that he can achieve a degree of excellence in the laboratory that will make the forthcoming classroom recitation a pleasure."

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Edward Stack also points out that the laboratory keeps each student busy for the full period, that the teacher can more successfully monitor the work of the individual, and that the routine repetition drills may be taken from the classroom, thus allowing the classroom teacher to spend time on more creative and more stimulating class activities. Another advantage, so obvious that Stack does not even mention it, is that the laboratory allows the students to hear and to imitate excellent native speakers rather than the possibly non-native accent of the classroom teacher.

In evaluating a laboratory, one must also consider its possible disadvantages. Among them are the malfunctioning of equipment and all the other inherent weaknesses of machine operations. Furthermore, laboratory materials, by their very nature, are repetitious and often boring. And scheduling of teachers and students into the laboratory becomes sometimes a major problem for the administrator. The machines of the laboratory are not flexible and self-adapting to any situation, as the teacher must be. All of these facts represent genuine problems and must be met and overcome if a laboratory is to succeed.

For these and other reasons, the teacher is advised to proceed carefully. If he accepts the laboratory as a teaching aid and masters its techniques, he will find himself in possession of a tool which will greatly contribute to the improvement of language teaching.

Suggestions for the use of the laboratory:
1. Language laboratory periods are most effective when closely coordinated with classwork. Most frequently in the first two years of language study, these periods will be drill sessions on material thoroughly covered and already practiced to some extent in class.

2. Short periods of 20 to 30 minutes twice a week are suggested for high school students since the practice is concentrated, repetitious, and tiring. The period is usually divided into several types of activity, such as listening, pronunciation, repetition of dialog, various structure drills, and quizzes. As the beginning student usually is not able to distinguish sound differences well, the recording of his own voice is of value to him only at the end of the first year. After that, occasional recording and playback is beneficial but not imperative. Hearing his own voice through audio-active earphones is less time consuming and very helpful. Advanced language students should be given the opportunity to listen to a variety of material.

3. High school laboratory periods should be constantly supervised, preferably by the classroom teacher. Through monitoring, the teacher can frequently detect and call attention to errors the individual is not aware of, and occasionally he may stop the tape to help the whole class, which may be having difficulty with a certain portion of the tape.

4. The use of professionally prepared tapes which accompany most recent published textbooks is strongly recommended. The tapes prepared under the supervision of Yale University for NDEA Institute materials are excellent, as are others which are part of integrated programs of instruction. (Some new programs also include films and film strips.)

Recording requires special training and equipment. Professional recordings, furthermore, have the advantage of containing a variety of native voices. The MLA Selective List of Materials (Modern Languages Association of America, 1962) offers many references concerning the use of the language laboratory, tapes, records, audio-visual aids, and realia. Every language teacher should own a copy of this most recent guide.
SUGGESTED GUIDELINES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TESTING

As objectives and methods of instruction in foreign language teaching change, language tests are also changing. It is for this reason that the Foreign Language Curriculum Committee of the State of South Dakota has carefully studied new testing methods and has prepared suggested guidelines for foreign language testing.

We have discovered, to begin with, that the new tests reflect the audio-lingual approach to language instruction and language learning. The tests almost unanimously emphasize listening, speaking, reading, and writing in this order.

First of all we must ask ourselves, "What should a test accomplish?" And all of us concur that a test should measure the student's achievements, his learnings, as well as diagnose his difficulties. We agree with Nelson Brooks who said, "Tests should reflect the objects, the methods, and the materials embodied in these learnings."

Before we discuss the types of tests, a comment should be made concerning their frequency. Of course, frequency will depend upon the material to be tested and the level of the class. In the early stages a program of frequent short oral or written quizzes, followed by longer tests which include both writing and reading seem to give good results.

Below are suggested guides for various types of tests. Please note the order of importance of these suggested guidelines, as for example listening first, writing last.

Suggested Guides for Various Types of Tests
1. Listening comprehension divided into four sections. (Use tape or dictation.)

   Section A—The student hears pairs of sentences and must indicate whether the second statement is a logical or an illogical reply to the first. The following two sentences may serve as an example of the illogical response.
   "I've just bought a new book."
   "Oh, then you must eat something."

   Section B—The student must decide where various brief conversations take place. (Four possibilities are offered.) Example: "I'd like a second class coach to Cologne."
   "I'm sorry but this train has only first class coaches."
   Answer: a. at the doctor's office, b. at the shoe store, c. at the railroad station, d. at a bookstore.

   Section C—This is comprised of statements spoken by only one person. The student must find out who this person is and select the correct answer. Example: There is going to be a test first thing in the morning and I'm not prepared for it.
   Answer: a. taxi driver, b. student, c. housewife, d. teacher.

   Section D—This consists of a short conversation or monolog followed by selected spoken questions. The student indicates which
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of four answers appearing on his answer sheet correctly
replies to each question.

2. **Oral comprehension and proficiency**

The entire test should be conducted in the foreign language. A topic
is chosen. Each student is then asked a question which the topic en-
tails.

The teacher may begin by saying the following in the language being
tested: "I'm going to ask you five short questions. You should answer
in complete sentences. For example: 'What do you do when you plan to
take the bus from your house downtown?' Your answer might be:
'I put on my coat and I go to the corner bus stop. I get on the bus and
give the driver 15 cents,' etc.—Do you understand? Good, let's begin."

The questions are asked at normal speed and only once. The student
is scored according to the following categories: 1. correctness of re-
sponse, 2. breadth of response, 3. fluency and melody, and 4. accent.

3. **Reading comprehension**

The student is instructed to read passages carefully, without translat-
ing, and then to select the correct answer to questions or the correct
statements concerning the passages.

4. **Writing ability**

a. The teacher writes several paragraphs in which prepositions, con-
junctions, definite or indefinite articles are omitted; the student is
instructed to write the appropriate words needed to complete the
meaning of the sentence. Example: He walked slowly down ---------
street.

b. Dictation may also be employed as a daily testing exercise.

5. **Structure**

The student's grasp of the structure of language is tested by means
of these types of tests:

a. Completion: The student indicates which one of, say, four choices
will complete the sentence correctly. Example: She hasn't heard
anything about it --------- yet. Answer: a. to me, b. me, c. about
me, d. from me.

b. Underlined expressions: The student indicates which one of the four
choices best conveys the meaning of each underlined expression.

6. **Body motion test**

Acts performed by the instructor with student describing the action
in the foreign language. Example: hold out your hand, point to the
clock, comb your hair.

7. **Picture test**

Discussion of a picture which represents material previously covered.

Note: All tests should include cultural questions in the foreign language.
Students can thus be expected to have some awareness of the cultural
achievements of the country whose language they are studying. Multipli-
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choice tests seem the fairest ones because the coverage can be broad enough to include whatever cultural elements may have been encountered. Sample question: What great Spanish epic is now playing in American movie houses? Answer: a. Ben Hur, b. Cervantes, c. Las Mocedades del Cid, d. El Cid.

Important guidelines for the teacher:

1. MAKE TESTS IN TERMS OF WHAT THE STUDENT SHOULD KNOW, NOT WHAT THE TEACHER KNOWS.
2. ASK FOR PERFORMANCE IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE EXCLUSIVELY.
3. ANALYZE THE FACTORS IN LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR AND TEST THEM INDIVIDUALLY AS WELL AS COLLECTIVELY.
4. ASK ONLY FOR RESPONSES THAT ARE WITHIN THE LIMITS OF NORMAL LANGUAGE USE.
5. TEST ALL THE SKILL, ALONG WITH STRUCTURE AND VOCABULARY, IN BOTH PASSIVE AND ACTIVE USE.
6. DO NOT PRESENT AT ANY TIME INCORRECT FORMS OF ANY KIND.
7. USE QUALITY SCALE WHEN SUBJECTIVE EVALUATION IS NECESSARY.

(A quality scale is a series of responses varying from the best to the worst, each bearing an evaluation tag arrived at by consensus.

Example: The teacher says; "Are you going down-town?"

The student answers: "Yes" (POOR) or: "Did you say go down-town?" (BETTER) or: "Yes, I'm going down-town to buy a loaf of bread." (BEST)

References for Ordering Test Guidelines

Observation: For the past two years, Educational Testing Service has been co-operating with the Modern Language Association on large test development projects, which are supported by grants from the U. S. Office of Education under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act. During 1960-61, 62 tests of foreign language proficiency at advanced levels were completed. Thirty-one committees of college teachers participated in their development. These tests are now available in five languages—French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish—in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, writing, applied linguistics, civilization and culture. In addition, there is a common test of professional preparation for teaching a modern foreign language. During 1960-61, work was also begun on the development of 80 tests in the same five foreign languages, designed to measure student achievement in grades 7 through 12. In each language there will be tests of listening, speaking, reading, and writing at two levels of proficiency, with alternate forms at each level. Twenty committees of secondary school and college teachers are working on these tests currently in the writing and preliminary tryout stage.


3. Tests which accompany textbooks are often very satisfactory; for example, tests which accompany the LaCrone, McHenry, O'Connor Entender y Hablar, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York. Accompanying this text is a set of four tests, each correlated with testing tape or with a script printed on the key, $.48 per set. The tests contain the script of the aural comprehension sections of the tests, which are recorded on Reel 21, and all the test answers. Free to teachers requesting it on school stationery. Also with accompanying tests and tapes is the first year test in German by Rehder, Thomas, Twaddell and O'Connor, Verstehen and Sprechen, Holt, Rinehart and Winston. This text also has a teacher's guide, flash cards, a work book, and practice records for home use.

4. The Montana Comprehensive French and Spanish tests: A recording of this test is available. It may be secured by sending a 1200 foot tape to Mr. Lester W. McKim, State Supervisor of Foreign Languages, State Department of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana. It is recommended that this test be recorded, including complete directions for each section. Each sentence or problem should be read two times, according to Mr. McKim, with the number of the problem repeated each time. Once the test is begun, there should be no pause until the end. This is a test of the student's ability to understand, not his ability to read or write.


7. A-LM (Audio Lingual Material), Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York. Level One and Two in Spanish, French, German, and Russian. Levels Three and Four available by 1963. Teaching tests and other data available free if this course is purchased. Produced by Modern Language Materials Development under an NDEA contract and tested in NDEA Institutes and in pilot schools.

8. Cooperative tests in French, Spanish, and Latin may be ordered from the Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Samples of range, content, time, scores, norms, forms and prices in each language are as follows:

   RANGE  Elementary level: first two years of high school, or one year of college study.
           Advanced Level: beyond two years of high school, or one year of college study.
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CONTENT  Similar for both levels. Part I, Reading provides sentence-completion and reading comprehension items; Part II, Vocabulary, contains one-word foreign language synonym items; Part III, Grammar, gives sentences in English for which the student chooses the best foreign language translation from five choices.

TIME  40 minutes

SCORES  Scaled scores for part scores in Reading, Vocabulary, Grammar, and Total Score are provided on the Answer Sheet.

NORMS  Percentile rank tables for high school students with 1, 2, 3, or 4 years of study; entering freshmen, and college students with no high instruction in the specified language, for part and Total Scores.

FORMS  French and Latin  O, R (at each level)
        Spanish  O, F (at each level)

PRICES  Test Booklets  $3.00 per 25
        Answer Sheets (Optional)  $1.00 per 25
        Scoring Stencils  $.25 each
        Specimen Set  No. 962

The above information is taken from the Cooperative Test Division Catalog, October 1961, page 45.
APPENDIX A

The following statement was prepared by the Steering Committee of the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association of America in 1955 and was subsequently endorsed for publication by the MLA Executive Council, by the Modern Language Committee of the Secondary Education Board, by the Committee on the Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, and by the executive boards or councils of the following national and regional organizations: National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, American Association of Teachers of French, American Association of Teachers of German, American Association of Teachers of Italian, American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages, Central States Modern Language Teachers Association, Middle States Association of Modern Language Teachers, New England Modern Language Association, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Northwest Conference on Foreign Language Teaching, Philological Association of the Pacific Coast, Rocky Mountain Modern Language Association, South Atlantic Modern Language Association, and South-Central Modern Language Association:

QUALIFICATIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

It is vitally important that teachers of modern foreign languages be adequately prepared for a task which more and more Americans are declaring essential to the national welfare. Though a majority of the language teachers in our schools are well trained, many have been poorly or inadequately prepared, often through no fault of their own. The undersigned therefore present this statement of what they consider the minimal, good, and superior qualifications of a secondary school teacher of a modern foreign language.

We regret that the minimum here stated cannot yet include real proficiency in the foreign tongue or more than a superficial knowledge of the foreign culture. It must be clearly understood that teaching by persons who cannot meet this minimal standard will not produce results which our profession can endorse as making the distinctive contribution of language learning to American Life in the second half of the twentieth century.

Our lowest level of preparation is not recommended. It is here stated only as a point of departure which carries with it the responsibility for continued study and self-improvement, through graduate and in-service training, toward the levels of the good and superior preparation.

Those who subscribe to this statement hope that the teacher of foreign languages (1) will have the personal qualities which make an effective teacher, (2) has received a well-balanced education, including a knowledge of our own American culture, and (3) has received the appropriate training in professional education, psychology, and secondary school methods. It is not our purpose to define further these criteria. We are concerned here with the specific criteria for a teacher of modern foreign languages.

1. Aural Understanding

Minimal—The ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject.
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Good—The ability to understand conversation at average tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.
Superior—The ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays and movies.
Test—These abilities can be tested by dictation, by the Listening Comprehension Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board—Thus far developed for French, German, and Spanish—or by similar tests for these and other languages, with an extension in range and difficulty for the superior level.

2. Speaking

Minimal—The ability to talk on prepared topics (e.g., for classroom situations) without obvious faltering, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation readily understandable to a native.

Good—The ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in sustained conversation. This implies speech at normal speed with good pronunciation and intonation.

Superior—The ability to approximate native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation (e.g., the ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations).
Test—For the present, this ability has to be tested by interview or by a recorded set of questions with a blank disc or tape for recording answers.

3. Reading

Minimal—The ability to grasp directly (i.e., without translating) the meaning of simple, non-technical prose, except for an occasional word.

Good—The ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.

Superior—The ability to read, almost as easily as in English, material of considerable difficulty, such as essays and literary criticism.
Test—These abilities can be tested by a graded series of timed reading passages, with comprehension questions and multiple-choice or free-response answers.

4. Writing

Minimal—The ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations, and the ability to write a short, simple letter.

Good—The ability to write a simple "free composition" with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.

Superior—The ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language.
Test—These abilities can be tested by multiple-choice syntax items, dictations, translation of English sentences or paragraphs, and a controlled letter or free composition.
5. Language Analysis

Minimal—A working command of the sound patterns and grammar patterns of the foreign language, and a knowledge of its main differences from English.

Good—A basic knowledge of the historical development and present characteristics of the language, and an awareness of the difference between the language as spoken and as written.

Superior—Ability to apply knowledge of descriptive, comparative, and historical linguistics to the language-teaching situation.

Test—Such information and insight can be tested for levels 1 and 2 by multiple-choice and free response items on pronunciation, intonation patterns, and syntax; for levels 2 and 3, items on philology and descriptive linguistics.

6. Culture

Minimal—An awareness of language as an essential element among the learned and shared experiences that combine to form a particular culture, and a rudimentary knowledge of the geography, history, literature, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people.

Good—First-hand knowledge of some literary masterpieces, an understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture resembles and differs from own own, and possession of an organized body of information on the foreign people and their civilization.

Superior—An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, achieved through personal contact, preferably by travel and residence abroad, through study of systematic description of the foreign culture, and through study of literature and the arts.

Test—Such information and insight can be tested by multiple-choice literary and cultural acquaintance tests for levels 1 and 2; for level 3, written comments on passages of prose or poetry that discuss or reveal significant aspects of the foreign culture.

7. Professional Preparation

Minimal—Some knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching.

Good—The ability to apply knowledge of methods and techniques to the teaching situation (e.g., audio-visual techniques) and to relate one's teaching of the language to other areas of the curriculum.

Superior—A mastery of recognized teaching methods and the ability to experiment with and evaluate new methods and techniques.

Test—Such knowledge and ability can be tested by multi-choice answers to questions on pedagogy and language-teaching methods, plus written comment on language-teaching situations.
APPENDIX B

SELECTED REFERENCES

The following bibliography singles out a few books. For more and complete references consult the MLA Selective List of Materials (1962), edited by Mary J. Ollmann.—French, German, Italian, Modern Hebrew, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Swedish. This reference list is available from the Modern Language Association Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place, New York 3, New York, Price: $1.00.


Books on Methodology, etc.


Huebner, Theodore, How to Teach Foreign Languages Effectively. New York University, 1959.


MLA, Reports of Surveys and Studies in the Teaching of MFLs. (Available at Foreign Language Program Research Center)

Professional Journals.


The German Quarterly. Circulation Manager, Herbert H. J. Peisel, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.


PMLA. (Published by the MLA) Editor and Ex. Secy. George W. Stone, Jr., 6 Washington Square North, New York 3, New York.
GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHING


FRENCH
BASIC TEXTS

High School
I. Audio-lingual
Ernst, Frederic and Sylvia N. Levy, Le Francais: Book One. (Rev.), Holt, 1959. (Grades 7-9 or 10-12) (Discs and Tapes)
Harris, Julian and Andre Leveque, Basic Conversational French. Third Edition, Holt, 1962. (Grades 7-9 or 10-12) (Tapes)

Note: Levels Three and Four will appear soon.

Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Je parle francais. (Conceived and written by LaVelle Rosselot), 1961. (Students' and Teacher's Manuals, films, and tapes.)

II. O'Brien, Kathryn and Marie Stella La France, New First-Year French. Ginn, 1958. (Tapes.)

Elementary School
Raymond, M., and Claude L. Bourcier, Elementary French Series (1, 2, 3, 4). Allyn 1958 and 1960. (Discs and tapes.)

Integrated Programs: Heath de Rochmont Corporation, Parlons Francs. 1961. (Films and discs.)

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

I. Grammars and Dictionaries

II. Cultural Books

GERMAN

BASIC TEXTS

High School
I. Audio-lingual
Integratcd Programs: Thompson, Winkler, and consultants, A-L-M German: Level One and Level Two. Harcourt, 1961-1962. (Discs and tapes) Note: Levels Three and Four will appear soon.

Elementary School

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

I. Grammars and Dictionaries
GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHING


II. Cultural Books


SPANISH

BASIC TEXTS

High School

I. Audio-lingual


II. Turk, Laurel H., and Edith M. Allen, El espanol al dia. 2nd ed. Heath, 1956. (Books I and II.) (Discs and tapes.)

Elementary School

Babcock, Edna E., and others, Children of the Americas. Spanish Series. Wagner, 1957-60. (Grades 3-8.) (Discs.)


REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

I. Grammars and Dictionaries


II. Cultural Books
OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES


RUSSIAN

BASIC TEXTS

High School

I. Audio-lingual

Yakobson, Helen B., Beginner's Book in Russian as a Second Language. Educ. Serv., 1959. (May be used in grades 4-6 or 7-9).

Integrated Programs: Thompson, Prochoroff, and consultants, A-L-M Russian: Level One and Level Two. Harcourt, 1961-1962. (Teacher's manual available.) (Discs and tapes.)

II. Fayer, Mischa and Aron Pressman, Simplified Russian Grammar. 2nd ed. Pitman, 1962. (Workbook; manual for the teacher free.) (Discs and tapes.)

Note: "-------This is the easiest to adopt to the audio-lingual method."

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

I. Grammars and Dictionaries:


II. Cultural Books


