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THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF SOCIAL STUDIES METHODOLOGY TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

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1968
THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF SOCIAL STUDIES METHODOLOGY TO
FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

Joseph Anthony Murphy, B.A.

* * * * * *

The Ohio State University
1968

Approved by

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Parts of the following study involved collecting reports from many sources including national leaders in foreign language education, state and local supervisors, college professors, and high school teachers. To all those outside the university who took time to help, I extend sincere thanks.

Special recognition is due to my reading committee consisting of my program adviser, Dr. Edward D. Allen, Dr. Frank Otto, and Dr. Robert Jewett. My position as an uninformed "outsider" looking into the implications of social studies methodology for foreign language teaching would have been unbearable without the warm support and the guidance of Dr. Jewett.
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(Co-author with Walter Meiden) "The Use of the Language Laboratory to

FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: Foreign Language Education

Studies in Foreign Language Education. Professors Edward D. Allen,
Paul Pimsleur, and Frank Otto

Studies in Curriculum and Supervision. Professors Paul R. Klohr,
Jack Frymier, Alexander Frazier, and Elsie Alberty

Studies in Teacher Education. Professor Leonard O. Andrews

Studies in French Literature. Professors Charles Carlut and
Pierre Astier
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Since the early 1950's the foreign language profession has been officially committed to the task of self-improvement. This commitment has resulted in organizational changes like the establishment of a Department of Foreign Languages within the larger organizational structure of the National Education Association, and more recently, the creation of a new organization (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) to unify and coordinate the efforts of the many individual foreign language organizations. It has caused the revision of outdated materials and methods of teaching foreign language at the elementary levels. It has made possible a new linguistic orientation for the teaching of foreign languages. It has pleaded for, and in many instances, earned a longer sequence within which to accomplish its expanded objectives. It has produced a widespread interest in audio-visual aids for the foreign language class. Each improvement, however, has been accompanied by a sense of incompleteness as foreign language educators gradually realized that language learning must contain both a mechanical and a cognitive component, and that the language profession must draw upon several related disciplines like linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and literature in order to
present a balanced program for students. In fact, the need to select
and use knowledge from so many sources has become both a problem and
an opportunity for the foreign language teacher:

It is so many-sided that, in the hands of a skillful
teacher, it easily becomes a genuine 'core subject' through
which the fields of English, art, architecture, music,
literature, history, and geography can be correlated. The
study of a foreign language then becomes a course in civiliza-
tion and the humanities.¹

One of the basic assumptions of this study stems from the belief
that advanced foreign language courses with their substantial content
orientation are in fact examples of a core curriculum. The teacher who
knows only how to conduct elementary language drills finds himself
baffled by the demands of knowing literature, anthropology, sociology,
political science, and economics once he is assigned to a Level III,
IV, or V class. Moreover, even if his knowledge in these areas is
extensive, there remains the unstudied question of how to present it to
students in a pedagogically useful form. Teaching a social studies or
cultural unit in an advanced foreign language class amounts to nothing
less than an integration of language learning and social science, and
carries with it all the advantages and problems of a core curriculum:

In setting up as its ultimate aim the better
understanding of a foreign people and its culture,
the study of foreign languages belongs essentially
to the social sciences.²

It might be useful at this point to recall some of the charac-
teristics, advantages, and criticisms of the core curriculum, since
this information will undoubtedly have implications for advanced
foreign language classes. Although such classes are not usually core
curricula in the administrative sense because they are not conducted in block time, their objectives and activities share the problems and the promise of correlated classes. Among the characteristics and advantages of core curricula we might include:

1. **Large blocks of time.** A group of pupils usually meets with one teacher for 1-1/2 hours a day or more, almost always in consecutive periods. This gives the teacher fewer pupils to handle and a chance to know them better... From the standpoint of the pupils, it gives them one person they can know well. Furthermore, integration of subjects can be carried on in such large blocks of time better than in separate classes. When well done, the pupils can see the relationships between the different fields.

2. **Content organized around problems, themes, topics.** The work in core classes is ordinarily organized around themes, problems, or topics. Often these topics are selected by the pupils, under the guidance of the teacher, in teacher-pupil planning...

3. **Integration of subject matter.** Proponents of the core curriculum emphasize that it permits greater integration of "content" than other types of curriculum organization.

4. **Provision for individual differences.** In the core curriculum much of the work is done in committees, with a wide range of materials used, thereby providing for greater attention to individual differences in ability and in interests.

5. **Emphasis on a wide variety of methods.** The larger blocks of time make it possible for a teacher to employ a wider variety of methods. More research can be carried on and at different levels. The skills of research, reporting, discussion, and group work can be stressed...

Some of the criticisms of the core curriculum are:

1. **Teachers are not trained for this work.** Critics of core point out that today's teachers were trained in a subject field and that literature and social studies, for example, are each broad enough, without requiring teachers to know both fields well...

2. **One subject is likely to be ignored or minimized.**

3. **Students stay too long with one teacher.**
4. **Equipment and materials are lacking.** The charge is often made that the core demands good school libraries, good audio-visual equipment, good classroom libraries and files, and adequate space for committee and individual work. Since these are found in only a few schools, the core cannot function effectively.

5. **Core teaching is too difficult for most teachers.** Some critics of the core assert that the demands it makes upon teachers are too great. They say that it might work in classes of 15 to 20 but cannot work well with classes of 30 and 35.

Hilda Taba has expressed the essence of core curricula perhaps more succinctly than any other curriculum writer:

> The common features (of all core programs) are the idea of cutting across subject matter lines and attention to student needs. Many core topics are organized around personal needs of students and provisions for guidance are usually included in the instructional scheme.

> Since the time is more flexible and resources of more than one subject are drawn upon, the core programs use broader units, more flexible and freer instructional procedures, and a greater variety of learning experiences than is possible in the subject curriculum.

> Whatever the focus, at least the start of any learning unit can be made from some experiences familiar to the students.

She also has identified what is perhaps the cause for the slow spread of such programs:

> Among the most criticized aspects of the core programs is their failure to offer significant and systematic knowledge. This weakness is caused by the same difficulty which has been typical of several other attempts to deviate radically from the subject organization—that is, insufficient attention to the implementation of the design. Too often the reorganization has been in the hands of persons who themselves are not well enough steeped in the respective disciplines to catch their essence.

This weakness may also be responsible for the inability of the foreign language profession to produce significant literature on the
teaching of advanced foreign language classes. The requirements for teaching proficiency at advanced levels are recognized as numerous and complex, but they are almost completely uninvestigated. Guidelines for foreign language teaching proficiency have not distinguished the skills most crucial for each level. The Modern Language Association, for example, has identified seven areas of competence needed by foreign language teachers: listening, speaking, reading, writing, culture, applied linguistics, and professional preparation. Yet specific behavioral statements of teacher competence for each level must be inferred from a precise definition of the objectives of the language program at that particular level. And the objectives for advanced levels of foreign language learning have, in general, been poorly defined. One purpose of this study is to provide model lessons for an advanced foreign language class, and in so doing, to identify certain behaviors related to the accomplishment of social and cultural objectives at such a level.

Nevertheless, a certain level of proficiency is expected before students can begin a formal study of such social studies content. Nelson Brooks has observed that "neither an appreciation of literature nor cultural insight is fully attainable unless the learner has won his way past the foothills of the language skills." It would be folly to attempt to teach a social studies or cultural unit before at least a minimal mastery of the basic language skills. It is to the credit of the foreign language profession that it has recognized and defended the need for longer sequences within which to accomplish ultimate as well
as short-range objectives. We are now at the stage where a distinguished foreign language educator can look to the future with the following optimistic view:

We hope eventually to see a ten- or twelve-year sequence of foreign language study in the Elementary and Secondary School that will enable students going to college to do a substantial part of all their studying (literature, history, science) in a foreign language.9

The reality of longer sequences has forced a reappraisal of content and methodology at the advanced levels. The emergence of more numerous and varied classes at those levels is forcing language teachers to find new areas of interest to accommodate the different tastes of large numbers of students. The renewed emphasis on self-actualization and self-evaluation in education implies the availability of diversified materials around which to make a curricular choice. The maturation of students with proficiency in four and five language skills is producing a new wave of criticism with respect to the exclusive literary content of advanced classes. We are beginning to ask the questions, "What should be the role of the printed word in the foreign language program?", "What are its uses?", What is its relationship to the spoken word in foreign language study?" Definitive answers to these questions have not yet been forthcoming.

Perhaps the best single description of the profession today is found in the 1966 Northeast Conference Reports-Language Teaching: Broader Contexts:

Communications are one of the fundamental problems in human relations at all levels, from the interpersonal to the international. As teachers, we can scarcely keep up with the mass of current literature on our problems in language,
language behavior, and behavioral effects of language. The realms of phonology, psycholinguistics, content analysis and similar areas are providing us with such a host of considerations that their integration into language teaching is almost a source of despair. How can such materials be integrated into foreign language teaching without a loss of balance and perspective? Two patterns emerge: a blending of the new into the traditional and familiar, and a slowness to react to the fact that changes in environmental conditions have produced a series of demands for communication that are met only in part by the traditional compartmentalization of knowledge and techniques. To phrase it another way, we have new insights about language; we have improved methods for language learning; we have a wider demand for language; yet we continue to direct our students toward a single goal, literary appreciation. By doing so we overlook the broader horizons of language study and thereby lose many students whose interests and talents are not exclusively literary.

Such a challenge may be considered a reaffirmation of the broad objectives recognized, if not always realized, during the period 1930-1940. One report of that era persuasively related foreign language study to each area of the Educational Policy Commission's *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*: Education for Self-Realization, Education for Human Relations, Education of Economic Efficiency, and Education for Civic Responsibility. In reviewing the negligent treatment of foreign languages in the *Harvard Report on General Education*, Theodore Huebener set forth as early as 1945 the directions which the foreign language profession had to take:

If we are ever to build up an intelligent informed citizenry, 'universal in its motives and sympathies,' we shall have to extend and intensify our language studies, providing a rich humanistic education not for comparatively few, but for all normal students. And the aim of that humanistic education must be an insight into other cultures—an insight which can be acquired only by foreign language study.
Despite such optimistic statements on the contributions of foreign language study to a liberal education, there is still no widespread agreement on the specific role of socio-cultural learnings at different levels, and even less concern for the methodology of teaching socio-cultural information.

In this study the terms "culture", "socio-cultural content" and "social studies content" shall be used interchangeably to the extent that the methods identified herein are applicable to the teaching of either culture per se or social studies content. Thus, culture in an advanced foreign language class is considered to be a social study embracing the total belief and behavior patterns of a foreign community. Specifically, it refers to differences in "mores, traditions, operational systems, environments, social-psychological-cultural patterns and levels of technical and scientific development" across national boundaries which interfere with effective communication. Conversely, social studies content produced in a particular country is "cultural" to the extent that the entire discipline is culture-bound by the language in which knowledge from that discipline must be expressed.

After reviewing the literature on the teaching of culture, Stinemetz answered the question "How do you teach so as to avoid stereotyped and fallacious concepts of foreign peoples?" by stating "The majority of sources gave no specific suggestions. While all agreed that stereotypes and cliches were to be avoided, the how was left up to the reader." One can only speculate on the reasons for the failure to study the teaching of culture. However, one such reason may be the tendency to confuse the teaching of culture with
the methodology of foreign language teaching on the ground that language is the principal reflector of a culture. Certainly the tone of one professional report would seem to suggest this possibility:

What should be the primary all-important goal of a secondary school modern foreign language program in the second half of the twentieth century? In the opinion of this committee, it should be to teach as much language as possible to all students who pursue foreign language study. By language we mean the four skills of communication . . .

The statement of this objective in these terms does not rule out other much discussed and eminently desirable objectives such as the development of cultural sensitivity and awareness of humanistic values. What it does do is to make all other objectives dependent on and subordinate to that chief purpose, the learning of language. This position must not be construed as in any way denying the value of such secondary objectives. The clear unambiguous admission that the fundamental secondary school objective must be the teaching of the four skills can only serve to define more clearly the relation of the secondary-school program to the college program and to make it possible to achieve both the cultural and humanistic aims more efficiently and effectively as a result of increased language competence.14

Such a statement suggests a rather clear separation of language and cultural objectives, the former predominating at the secondary level the latter, at the college level. Others in the profession would seem to favor the simultaneous development of all objectives:

The objectives of modern foreign language instruction for the academically talented and for all who would obtain real competence in language are proficiency in language skills accompanied by familiarity with the outstanding traits of the foreign culture.15

Whether the teaching of culture is viewed as a higher separate phase of foreign language learning or whether it is conceived as an integral part of the program at all levels, the fact remains that culture as a social study has not produced any methodological
implications for the foreign language teaching profession. Another general purpose of this study is to broaden and enrich the methodological base for the teaching of culture.

Since the 1966 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Language, attempts have been made to put the foreign language program clearly in the domain of general education by integrating it with other academic subjects. A large number of these attempts involve the teaching of a social studies subject in a foreign language. This study has as its ultimate objective the improvement of preparation and design for such courses. Since culture is viewed as a social science, it is assumed that the findings of this study will apply equally to the teaching of cultural units in "ordinary" advanced foreign language classes.

B. Scope

Briefly, this study is viewed as a preparatory service for those teachers planning to teach social studies or cultural units in French III, IV, or V. Its purpose is to identify and edit concepts and teaching strategies which are now dispersed throughout the literature of foreign language education, particularly in state and local guidelines. It will also expand the inventory of such concepts and strategies through the process of adapting ideas found in various social studies disciplines. In this part of the study the unifying thread will be Dewey's concept of reflective thinking, which is presently being revived under the name of "inquiry". In its most general form it will consist of an intensive theoretical study of
methodology for advanced foreign language classes and an application of some of this theory to content which is usable in French III, IV, or V. More specific procedures will be found at the beginning of Chapters IV and V.

C. Limitations

Ideally, preparation for any class should include as an essential guide the abilities and interests of a particular group of students. However, this study is limited to a synthesis of principles and teaching strategies from two curricular areas followed by an application to existing social studies and cultural materials. There will thus be a research and development phase but no dissemination phase. No further application to a real classroom is planned for this study. However, a design for classroom planning will be included in the dissertation.

D. Review of the Literature

One general purpose of this study is to gather in one place as much information as is available about the teaching of an academic subject in a foreign language. A number of projects are in progress and some extensive studies are being made. Chapter II of this study is devoted to a detailed consideration of these projects.

E. Statement of the Problem

In a recent clinic sponsored by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages the keynote speakers, who were discussing a particular World History class taught in German, were surprised to hear about the projects in Ohio and Virginia. A state foreign language
supervisor expressed the wish that some person or agency gather in one place all information pertaining to efforts at integrating foreign language with another subject. One general purpose of this study is to do just that.

Since social studies is currently the most common subject correlated with language study, and since the teaching of culture can be treated as a subdivision of social studies, there is an urgent need to synthesize the principles of modern language teaching and modern social studies methodology. Where conflicts exist, they must be resolved, theoretically at least, in the light of the superordinate objectives of the particular integrated course. In such innovations the theoretical must precede the practical in order to minimize the natural cleavage between differing goals. Yet nothing theoretical has been produced to date on this subject. With these assumptions set forth, the principal questions to be answered formally in this study can thus be stated:

1. How can an advanced audio-lingual class use social studies methodology to accomplish integrated objectives involving language skill development and thought-process development?

2. Is it possible to design a unit of work which incorporates both audio-lingual and social studies objectives?

Additional questions anticipated throughout the course of this study relate to the following general areas:

1. The relationship between foreign language and social studies methodology
   a. How can social studies-type materials be used to reinforce the learning of foreign language structure and vocabulary?
2. Reading

a. What critical reading skills can be developed through the use of cultural materials in a foreign language?

b. How can comparative thinking about cultural subjects best be stimulated in an advanced foreign language class?

3. Curriculum Planning

a. How can students be initially motivated to study a cultural theme?

b. What are the essential parts of a resource unit based on a cultural theme?

c. What social studies activities are feasible for use in an advanced foreign language class?

d. What are the conditions for using such activities?

e. What are the implications of the concept of reflective thinking for such an integrated class?

f. What is the role of the teacher in planning and leading such a class?

g. What is the role of large group, small group and independent work in such an integrated class?

h. What functions are served by the various media in accomplishing the objectives of such a course?
CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature on Foreign Language Core Programs

Perhaps the earliest accounts of foreign language core programs appear in a book edited by Walter V. Kaulfers entitled *Foreign Languages and Cultures in American Education*. The book consists of a collection of twenty reports by teachers of foreign languages, English, and Social Studies who participated in the Stanford Language Arts Program from 1937-1940. The accounts are completely anecdotal, and in only one report is there any indication that the foreign language was even occasionally used in the classroom. The work does, however, provide an historical dimension to any study of foreign language core programs.

One of the most imaginative attempts to integrate foreign language with an academic subject grew out of the classroom innovations and materials developed by Mrs. Ruth Sherred, a teacher of Spanish at Exeter High School in Tulare Co., California from 1959-1963. The first pilot study involved correlation between first-year Spanish and biology during the school year 1959-1960. Evaluation of the program was completely subjective on the part of the teachers whose findings were:

1. Correlation of Spanish with another subject in the curriculum stimulates interest in both subjects.
2. Assures greater student motivation.
3. Encourages free expression in the target language.
The problem in Dr. Doran's study was "to determine if pupil achievement in Spanish and in biology is improved when there exists a close relation between the study of Spanish and the study of biology." More specifically, he tried to determine how well students enrolling simultaneously in a biology class and in an experimental beginning Spanish class would compare:

a. In Spanish with pupils beginning courses of Spanish

b. In biology with pupils enrolled in regular biology courses, but not in the biology-in-Spanish course.

To realize this particular objective several films with Spanish sound tracks were chosen. Dialogues were created based on the commentary of the film. After learning the dialogue, the student was soon able to comprehend the film and thus form ideas upon which the biology teacher could elaborate. Since not all vocabulary items of the Spanish commentary could be introduced through dialogue, the student was introduced to reading after the fifth dialogue and soon read short narratives which were actually word-for-word commentaries of the film. Each dialogue or reading passage also contained some structural item to be drilled. Each of the thirteen units had accompanying tests of aural comprehension and grammatical structure. The first five tests were item analyzed and twenty-four of the original sixty items were selected for classroom use.

Magnetic tapes and taped tests accompanied each unit. In addition, three reels of film were used to visually present the facts from which could be extracted the basic biological concepts, usually through questions.
In September 1963 these materials were tested through action research in grades 4 and 5 of the Cordova Lane Elementary School, Rancho Cordova, California; in grades 9 of Exeter High School; and in grade 10 of Cordova Senior High School. The experiment in the grade school was discontinued after one semester for various reasons, among which were:

1. The amount of time (20 minutes per day) proved to be insufficient for this type of program.

2. The material seemed to be too difficult for the follow-up by the elementary school teachers who in each instance had a very limited command of the foreign language.

3. Although pupils in grades 4 and 5 reacted well to the film Common Animals of the Woods, they found the longer sentences in the ensuing dialogues increasingly more difficult and responded poorly to the tapes prepared to help them in their pronunciation. They also resisted the pattern practice and structural drills and appeared incapable of deducing the grammatical inferences involved in such a procedure.20

At Cordova High School Dr. Thomas A. Doran taught two sections of beginning Spanish and at Exeter High School, Mr. Antonio Vigil did likewise. Both used Mrs. Sherred's materials in the experimental groups, but Dr. Doran used Entender y Hablar with his control group while Mr. Vigil used ALM Spanish Level One with his. The objectives set up for the experimental groups were:

1. Understand the commentary accompanying each film.

2. To describe orally in the target language the action of each film.

3. To read passages of what they have heard and said.

4. To write sentences about what they had read or heard.21
Mr. Vigil and Dr. Doran came to agreement on the following points:

1. Aural comprehension seemed greatly improved among the students of the experimental group, and they appeared to appreciate more than the controlled group the necessity of listening attentively to what was said since so many sounds were phonemic in nature.

2. The students in the experimental group appeared to be more realistic in what they said as a result of identifying with the film. They spoke of the action and the animals which performed it as something they had really witnessed or experienced...

3. In the opinion of Mr. Julio Ferrer, a graduate student from Venezuela who visited all the classes at Cordova High School, the students of the experimental group had a superior pronunciation than those of the control group. Mr. Vigil at Exeter also felt that the students of the experimental group pronounced better than did those of the control group.

4. When the experimental group was transferred to the use of conventional materials, it was the finding of both researchers that the students progressed more rapidly than the control group who had been using the same material from the beginning of the year.

5. Only one test was given in biology. This test, which was in English, was intended to test the students' knowledge relative to the basic biological concepts which were involved in the first film Common Animals of the Woods. The results of the test were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cordova High School</th>
<th>Exeter High School</th>
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<td>Experimental</td>
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<td>C-7</td>
<td>C-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-0</td>
<td>D-8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The test by nature was biased in favor of the experimental group who had been using materials which constantly dealt with the ideas and concepts about which the test had been created .......
This study produced two particularly significant conclusions. First, it identified two factors which must be considered in the correlation of one subject with another:

1. The student must be interested in both subjects.
2. Harmonious team work between the language teacher and the teacher of the correlated subject.

Finally, the biological test in English which was administered to the control and the experimental group revealed that 50% of the students in the experimental group grasped at least if not more than 86% of the material over which they were being tested as compared to 20% of the controlled group.

Another instance in which biology was integrated with a foreign language occurred in the Carbon School District in Utah. The hypotheses in that study were:

1. Biology can be successfully taught in the German language to students with three or more years of German language experience.
2. German will be learned as readily from studying biology in German as from an additional year of language study.

Mr. Lynn Broadbent, an accomplished and experienced teacher in both subjects, taught biology in German to a group of nine students. The experimental group at Carbon High School was compared with groups of students studying fourth-year German (N-8) and a group studying biology (N-18), at the University High School, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. It was reported that the University High School in Urbana was a school for gifted students.
Instruction in the course was given in German; assignments and tests were also given in German. Students' responses in class were in German; class notes and written assignments were recorded in German by the students. The teacher read each student's daily class notes. Vocabulary lists were written with English equivalents. All students had dictionaries in the German language and were expected to look up words as the need developed.

The results indicated that German was learned as well by students studying biology in German as by those who studied German IV as a separate subject. There were no significant statistical differences between the control and experimental German groups. German concepts were learned as well in the Biology-German class, which substantiates the second hypothesis. Moreover, there was not significant difference in biology test scores between the students who had received instruction in biology in German as compared to those who had received instruction in biology in English. This data was considered sufficient to sustain the first hypothesis.

Dr. Ernest Stowell of Wisconsin State College conducted research at the Campus Elementary School at Eau Claire, Wisconsin, in which a large percentage of the class day (25 to 50 per cent) was devoted to instruction in Spanish with an elementary teacher from Mexico City giving instruction not only in the language but also in arithmetic, science, social studies, art, music, and physical education. The observation period extended from September 1962 to June 1963 and continued from 1963 to 1964.
The principal questions to be answered in his study were:

1. What level of achievement in Spanish could be reached in a year's program of instruction in Spanish?

2. What would be the effect on learning in basic subjects of language skills and arithmetic presented in English if such a large part of the day were removed from the normal program for the classes in Spanish?

3. What are some of the more effective classroom methods and materials in such a bilingual classroom?

4. What is the reaction of children, parents, teachers and administrators to such a program?

5. Is it possible to develop a system of foreign language instruction in the elementary school which will cost less and give better results than the usual employment of a language specialist who teaches classes of 15 to 30 minutes three to five times per week.27

The class chosen for the experiment was a third-grade class and the teacher was Miss Maria del Rosaria de los Santos, an experienced classroom teacher on leave from a position in curriculum development with the Mexican Ministry of Education in Mexico. The children were regular members of the third grade of the Campus School of Wisconsin State College. In general, they represented the type of students found in more privileged communities.28

The third-grade class was compared in hearing and speaking Spanish with other groups in the elementary school and on the college level. The third-grade students had been exposed to an average of eighty minutes per day devoted to instruction in Spanish. They had completed one year of Spanish. The fifth grade had completed three years of Spanish with an average of fifteen minutes per day. The eighth grade had had fifteen minutes per day in the fifth grade,
twenty minutes per day in the sixth grade, thirty minutes per day in
the seventh grade and thirty minutes per day in the eighth. The first-
year college group had completed a course of eight semester hours
credit. The second-year college students had completed a course of
sixteen semester hours of credit. A foreign language pictorial test
was used.

The most significant fact to emerge from the scores alone was
that the third-grade pupils as a whole were well ahead of classes five
and eight in their ability to express themselves in Spanish according
to the foreign language pictorial test. Although the detailed scores
of the college groups were not available, the relationship of speaking
and understanding was the same as for groups five and eight. That is,
unlike the third grade, the ability to hear and understand was higher
than the ability to speak. Of course, the third-grade pupils were
accustomed to a less sophisticated vocabulary. However, the college
classes had in one year approximately twice the exposure to Spanish,
both spoken and written, because of an average use of the language
laboratory of about eight hours per week, in addition to regular class
time. Also, the third grade was more proficient in understanding the
limited spoken vocabulary which they heard.

In order to determine the effects on achievement in English and
arithmetic, a comparison with nationally normed tests using a preceding
class in the same school for a control group was used. Projected scores
were also obtained.
Variations from projected scores were reported thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Comprehension</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Numerical Concepts</th>
<th>Computation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 12 57%</td>
<td>Above 13 62%</td>
<td>Above 16 76%</td>
<td>Above 11 52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same 0 0%</td>
<td>Same 1 5%</td>
<td>Same 1 5%</td>
<td>Same 2 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 9 43%</td>
<td>Below 7 33%</td>
<td>Below 4 19%</td>
<td>Below 8 38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relatively large numbers of "below" scores might have been caused by the fact that for the upper quartile intelligence group there was some loss of achievement in vocabulary and computation. However, the author points out that this may have been due to overly high projected scores pushed high because of a point of departure which was, without exception, well into fourth-grade performance level at the end of the second year of school. The general conclusion in reference to the second question was that "a class would normally lose little by the reduction of time in instruction in English if such lost time is devoted to supplementary instruction in the foreign language, using that language as a medium of instruction and not simply a goal of instruction." At a later date Dr. Ernest Stowell, the director of the study expressed the opinion that arithmetic, music, art and physical education could easily be correlated with foreign language in the elementary school, but that social science and science, requiring a different verbal expression of ideas, seemed to fit in better after the children came close to being genuinely bilingual. He noted that this occurred in only a few cases in the Eau Claire program.

At Hamilton High School in Sussex Wisconsin a course in Contemporary World History was taught in German pursuant to an Office of Education grant. The main objective in the experiment was "to find
a suitable milieu in which the learner of German could reinforce and enhance his newly acquired language skills." The course was offered to students who had completed one year of the study of German taught by the audio-lingual method.

Three groups of students were selected, one for experimental purposes and two for control purposes. An attempt was made to match students in the three groups by the various factors of intelligence, grade-point average, motivation, general levels of school and community service, and teacher evaluations on past performance in order to attain as much as possible the identical heterogeneous characteristics in each group. The experimental group consisted of students who had not had world history but who had completed German I. They were given two hours of instruction daily—one hour devoted to the regular German II course and the second hour devoted to the experimental world history course taught in German. Group II, the first control group, was composed of students who had completed both a traditional history course and German I. They were enrolled in German II and served as the control in language competency against which the experimental group's achievement in German was measured. Group III, the second control group, consisted of students not previously enrolled either in German or in history. They pursued the traditional world history course and served as the control in history against which the experimental group's achievement in history was measured. All three groups were taught by Mr. Helmut Keitel, a German teacher who had also majored in social studies. This fact eliminated variation in personality factors, and
teaching procedures. Group one and three had the same library projects and outside readings. This work was done primarily in English because the materials were not available in simple German.

The hypothesis was that under the conditions set forth above, group one will gain in language competency over group two and that group one will not manifest any appreciable loss of knowledge of historical facts or appreciation of historical influences in relation to group three.37

The M.L.A. Cooperative Language Test was selected as the measurement of learning in German. The reading, listening, and writing tests were administered to both groups. These scores revealed that at mid year the experimental group was doing as well or better than the control group in all areas measured.38

A comparison of world history achievement indicated that there were very slight differences in favor of the history group (Group III). These differences could have occurred by chance. All preliminary conclusions were based on observations. No test of statistical significance had been applied to any data collected.

An analysis of paired sets of students both in the German sub-tests and in history follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outscored control on</th>
<th>And history</th>
<th>But not history</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 of 4 German tests</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 of 4 German tests</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 of 4 German tests</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 of 4 German tests</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 of 4 German tests</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twelve of the seventeen students involved in the experiment out-scored their matched German control on all four sub-tests. Less than
half of these twelve students failed to outscore their history control counterpart. Nine of the seventeen experimental students outscored their history control. The five German students who were comparatively less competitive did not appear to be at a particular disadvantage in history.39

Since the experimental group proved equal to the control group in World History achievement and superior to the control group in German, the hypothesis was fully supported.

In April, 1966 Miss Genelle Caldwell, State Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Delaware, invited Mr. Hernan Navarro to do experimental work in curriculum in fourth and fifth level courses within a proposed project of national scale and of significant consequences to the teaching of both foreign languages and social studies. A Fulbright grant from the U.S. Office of Education made the study possible. The research took place at Brandywine High School, Wilmington, Delaware from January 9 to March 10, 1967. It was entitled A Project on Bilingual Education.40

According to the problem statement, bilingual education (learning by means of two languages) "involves the learning of a regular curriculum subject in a foreign language (Phase I) and the learning of a foreign language by means of a regular curriculum subject (Phase II)."41 The study in question related only to Phase I of the project: the
learning (the teaching) of a regular curriculum subject (Latin American Studies) in a foreign language (Spanish). Two hypotheses were postulated:

1. High school students with basic training in the mechanics and vocabulary of a foreign language can learn a regular curriculum subject taught in the foreign language; for example, students of Spanish at the fourth-year level (in Brandywine High School) can study a regular curriculum subject (Latin American Studies) in a foreign language (Spanish).

2. Content and time being equal, there is no significant difference between the acquired knowledge of the content of the regular curriculum subject taught in the foreign language and that of the subject taught in the student's native tongue; for example, students of Spanish at the fourth-year level can learn, in the same time, as much content of the social studies area, in Spanish, as other students of social studies do in a class conducted in English.42

Three groups of students were selected: two classes of Spanish in the fourth year of study (experimental groups) and one class of social studies in a program of world cultures (control group). The two classes of Spanish were composed of twenty-five students. The social studies class was composed of nineteen students.

The students in the experimental groups had I.Q.'s ranging from 118 to 141, with one case of 112, and a Cumulative Index Verbal Ability of A's and B's while the control group had I.Q.'s ranging from 109 to 133, with one case of 104, and a Cumulative Index Verbal Ability of B's and C's.

The same content area of social studies was covered in the experimental and control groups in the same lapse of time. Insofar as it was possible to control, language was the only variable manipulated. English was used in the control group and Spanish in the experimental groups.
All classes in both the control and experimental classes were tested four times in the content area during the course, using the same tests. These tests were designed by the teacher Mr. Grassel and translated by Mr. Hernan Navarro. Frequency distributions of scores and percentage of frequencies at various levels (A, B, C, D, E) were tabulated. With all four tests tabulated, the percentages of the totals at letter grade levels were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental Groups:</th>
<th>Total of 45 Students</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morning Class</td>
<td>Afternoon Class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>A 11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>B 47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>C 29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>D 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>E 0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report ended with the following conclusions:

1. The results of the tests and the students' evaluation of this project substantiate the two hypotheses:

   A. Students of Spanish at the fourth year level (in Brandywine High School) can study a regular curriculum subject (Latin American Studies) in a foreign language (Spanish).

   B. Students of Spanish at the fourth year level (in Brandywine High School) can learn, in the same time, as much content of social studies, in Spanish, as other students of social studies do in a class conducted in English.

2. Students having similar I.Q.'s, Index V.A., language background, and positive attitude to those of the experimental groups that may be found elsewhere are able to learn social studies in Spanish and deserve to be challenged at the level of their potential and aspirations.

3. The teacher variable, techniques used in teaching, and student's intelligence, attitude and background played a tremendous role in these accomplishments but these factors should not discourage further investigation aiming to control the variables involved in bilingual education.
In 1954, a pilot foreign language program was introduced by Dr. Brownlee Sands Corrin in Political Science and International Relations at Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland. The need for the program had a double origin:

First, a belief based upon considerable incontrovertible evidence that the United States could neither meet its responsibilities in world affairs nor implement its objectives or interests in public or private ways through governmental or non-governmental organizations unless its representatives and other personnel could analyze, evaluate, and communicate in languages other than English without the barriers of intermediary interpreters and translators. And second, that majors and other students in the disciplines of political science and International Relations, potentially professional persons, who would be directly involved in the conduct of international affairs: 1) were unable, in a majority of instances, to make effective use of their required foreign language training in these disciplines; 2) were failing to acquire a necessary awareness and sensitivity for attitudes, interests, and forces present in those countries whose major oral and written language was other than English; and 3) were unprepared to continue with graduate study or enter professions which possessed a requirement (mostly unfulfilled) of foreign language competence . . .

With positive results, this pilot study evolved into a larger research proposal beginning June, 1959. Both the pilot study and the large-scale research aimed at unifying foreign language and professional competence at the professional training level. The experiment brought the following changes to the International Relations and Political Science curricula: specific foreign language readings in the field, formal area study, optional and required foreign language exam questions, expansion of foreign language holdings of the library in the field of International Relations and Political Science, development of a tape library of political commentaries on foreign and international affairs by foreign statesmen using languages other than English, and
development of an index of available foreign language publications. The research has also resulted in diffusion of foreign language newspapers to selected public schools, as well as in the office of the college president, to publicize the users of foreign language news materials.

In the course of the investigation it was noted that problems in foreign language use were linked in part to attitude patterns toward language training in the secondary schools and colleges. Social science teachers were simply not accustomed to using a foreign language. As a result, six "small-order" experiments were conducted "to determine whether and in what ways the reinforcing links in the chain of restraint upon foreign language use could be broken." Three of the six experiments directly involved neighboring secondary schools in work similar to that done at Goucher College.

By the time of the final report, the following progress was noted:

1. Students now expect to work with foreign language materials in all Political Science courses. As a result of the expanded program, enrollment dropped slightly for a little over a year. The loss has since been eliminated.

2. There has been an increase in numbers of students electing the major in International Relations and Political Science which can be attributed in part to the foreign language emphasis...

3. Students have learned that, with a minimum level of foreign language training, they are able, with only occasional guidance, to develop a useful reading fluency.

4. Courses which utilize foreign language materials in Political Science and International Relations are of greater value content-wise than those which do not.
5. Short-wave news broadcast tapes have been most effective.

6. Existence of the language program has been a helpful factor in movement of the college into an emphasis upon non-Western studies in social sciences and humanities.

7. There has been a focus and/or attitude change—in that languages (not a language) are useful, necessary, and pleasurable.

8. Students graduated with experience in this program have moved into work and family experiences or graduate study which involve use of acquired language.

The study concludes with five pages of general recommendations for undergraduate institutions contemplating programs similar to the one at Goucher College.

In addition to the relatively "hard" research on foreign language core programs, there is a number of projects in which formal evaluation either was not planned or is not yet completed. For example, Mary S. Hamilton has described a class at Yorktown High School in Arlington County, Virginia, in which fine arts were taught through the medium of the French language. After being assigned a particular artist each student did some advanced reading about that artist, took notes and prepared a bibliography for further reading. This was intended as preparation for the focal point of the course, which consisted of a lecture series by a group of renowned artists. Arrangements for the speakers program were made by the American Association of University Women, a group dedicated to the dissemination of art information to school children. The National Gallery of Art provided slides for the lectures and texts which were translated by the various speakers.
On each of several occasions a guest lecturer would speak in French and entertain questions prepared by the students. Both the lectures and the question-answer sessions were taped for subsequent discussion and analysis. Mary Hamilton found the program to be quite successful and suggested that various fine arts be taught in the foreign language "each providing its particular color to the total and each providing its special vocabulary and flavor." 51

As a follow-up to the bilingual study in Delaware, Genelle Caldwell and Dr. George E. Smith have submitted a research proposal with the following objectives:

The Department of Foreign Languages, NEA, with close official cooperation of about ten public high schools and their State and local foreign language supervisors in States representative of geographic areas of the United States will organize and coordinate foreign language medium courses in a subject area unrelated to language study per se and literature at the senior year level, 4th course or higher, in French or Spanish, as an alternative to the regular senior level courses in these languages. This is, in effect, bilingual education. The foreign languages courses will correspond to a social studies course taught in English at the senior level. The project seeks 1) to develop two foreign language medium courses in the social studies with procedures for teaching, staffing and administering them; 2) to provide objective data regarding the effect of the foreign medium upon course content acquisition and mastery and the effect of such use courses on language learning; 3) to give language learning the powerful impetus that comes when the learner's attention is focused beyond language, i.e., on reality; 4) to broaden the curriculum in foreign language learning and use to include other subject areas in the mainstream of the American curriculum. Already the following States have expressed intense interest in joining the project; Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, Minnesota, and Washington. Other states will be added. 52
A glance at the procedures set up for this experiment will provide some insight into the typical problems encountered in foreign language core programs.

1. Identify locally or otherwise secure for the participating schools social studies teachers who can teach through the medium of French or Spanish.

2. Evaluate and select from foreign sources suitable teaching materials and instructional media for the content courses.

3. Structure these materials when necessary to make them correspond to regular American courses in the same subjects.

4. Prepare introductory and transitional materials, written and recorded, as needed.

5. Negotiate with participating State departments of education and local schools for giving credit in the planned courses.

6. Conduct orientation and inservice training of participating teachers.

7. Arrange for supervision and evaluation in each school.

8. Prepare reports on the project.

The significant feature of this proposal seems to reside in the attempt to extend beyond the population of a particular state and thus provide more complete data from which to make judgments. It also contains the most complete list of foreign language medium courses yet compiled.

The State Board of Education in Virginia has, through the coordination of the state foreign language supervisor Miss Helen Warriner, undertaken a two-year study of the effectiveness of using a foreign language to teach an academic subject. Although the final report is not yet available, the proposal itself and the progress report at the end of the first year contain much useful information about the
objectives, values, and procedures associated with foreign language core programs. The objectives set up in the proposal express clearly the aims of the entire foreign language core curriculum movement:

A. To determine whether or not the outcomes of audio-lingual language programs of long sequences can be applied to practical purposes, e.g., the study of an academic subject.

B. To establish guidelines for broadening the scope of advanced language classes.

C. To measure the degree to which language proficiency increases when it is used as a practical means of communication and to compare those results with results achieved in conventional language classes.

D. To overcome the concept of language for the language classroom.

E. To encourage language teachers to incorporate material other than that of a literary nature into their classes.

F. To increase student motivation in the study of a foreign language.

G. To encourage the conservation of students' time by establishing a method through which they can achieve two objectives concurrently: language and an academic subject.54

To realize these objectives, nine foreign language classes were selected in the counties of Arlington and Fairfax and in the cities of Alexandria and Richmond. Certain social studies courses including World History, History of France, History of Latin America and The World in the Twentieth Century were taught in the foreign language. The first year was devoted to organization and planning and extended from July 1, 1965 to June 30, 1966. During that academic year two World History Courses were organized and taught on a preliminary basis in Arlington County. Preliminary findings indicated that double gains were in fact made by most of the students in these courses.
One extraordinary feature of the curricular innovations in Virginia was that most of the preparatory work took place at the local level. Also, each local project was administered by a local coordinator.

One final important fact should be noted about the projects in Virginia: all the teachers were a) experienced foreign language teachers and b) certified in social studies. In addition to the social studies workshop the teachers benefited from close cooperation with local social studies supervisors in course planning. University history teachers concerned with social studies methodology worked with the teachers on a consultative basis.

Another experiment in curriculum development is the "Humanities-in-French Course" at Grosse Pointe High School in Michigan. This is an ESEA Title III Project in cooperation with the Foreign Language Innovative Curricula Studies of Ann Arbor, Michigan and the Grosse Pointe Public School System. The curriculum document now serving as the basis for the course resulted from nine day-long planning conferences during 1966-1967 attended by Dr. Nelson Brooks of Yale University, Dr. Emma Birkmaier of the University of Minnesota, Dr. Louis Chataigner of Emory University, Dr. Raleigh Morgan and Dr. Jean Carduner of the University of Michigan.

According to Mr. Guido Regelbrugge of Grosse Pointe High School, the course is discretely innovative. Humanities pervade the course, but the linguistic skills are not neglected. Instruction is organized around the concept of team teaching with the official teachers assisted by advisers in various fields and by guest lecturers. A two-hour block
of time is used for lectures, small group instruction and discussion and independent work. Flexible scheduling is used. Student aptitudes and interests vary.

The course is described as having the following elements:

(a) History: Will be treated as a background for the teaching of literature, and also at various times discussing music and the arts, since it influences them so directly and profoundly.

(b) Geography: A map of France will be on display continually. Names of places will be located on the map at all times, and a rather detailed study of the geography of France will be conducted in the unit on Technology, more specifically when we discuss the French industry.

(c) The Arts: Will pervade the course to illustrate concepts, to enrich knowledge, to cultivate taste, and hopefully, to create or increase appreciation . . . We would also like to repeat at this time how tremendously promising is the use of the minicourse materials.

(d) Music: Dr. Fenton and Mrs. Boak are providing us with the music of France, from the songs of the Troubadours to the present day popular tunes. This music will be played as illustration in the various units, as an individual form of expression in the discussion of the interrelationship of the arts, and in a few isolated cases individually, as is the case with, for instance, Debussy.

(e) In French: Was part of our title. Let us say that 80 to 90% of the reading will be in French, as well as from 90 to 95% of the lectures, and from 95 to 100% of the small group discussions. We feel that the nature of the materials, the degree of difficulty of some of them and the relative shortage of specialists in the various areas, who also know French, justify this limited use of English.56

The introductory unit treats the concept of culture: Unit II has for its theme French youth; Unit III, patriotism. Unit IV analyzes the nature of literature, using the arts and music as supplementary aids. Unit V concerns the various new media; Unit VI, technology in France. Unit VII traces the influence of France on another country or group of
countries. The final unit is designed to summarize and review the course. It would appear that Units I, IV, and VII are the ones having the most direct relationship to social studies teaching.

In conclusion, it might be possible to interpolate from the preceding studies the following notations about foreign language core programs:

1. Integration of foreign language with an academic subject offers great potential for increasing motivation in a foreign language class.

2. Such integration can be effected either at the elementary or secondary level, providing the level of content matches the developmental level of the students.

3. For an integrated curriculum to succeed, students must be interested in each of the integrated subjects.

4. The language teacher must either have special competence in the particular academic subject or work closely with a specialist in the correlated area.

5. Existing research points unanimously to the conclusion that double gains are the normal outcome of integrated courses. That is, considerable time can be saved by integrating foreign language and an academic subject.

6. It is much more probable that fourth-year foreign language students will be able to study an academic subject in the foreign language than that first- or second-year language students will be able to do so.

7. Studying an academic subject in the foreign language offers interesting possibilities for various types of groupings and for flexible scheduling.

8. Successfully integrated courses do not sacrifice attention to language learning for the sake of content learning. The two are considered equally important.

9. When integrated courses are contemplated, selection of materials becomes a critical factor. Foreign language materials on various academic subjects are presently quite scarce. Consequently, any proposed innovation should have an extensive planning phase as well as an execution phase.
CHAPTER III

Foreign Language Strategies and Techniques

A. Foreign Language Teaching Strategies

Any attempt to synthesize foreign language and social studies teaching strategies must start with an examination of the present state of the art of foreign language teaching. What guidance is now available for teachers of advanced foreign language classes? What is the meaning of "audio-lingual" as applied to the higher levels of language learning? What general agreements have been reached with respect to methodology for Levels III, IV, and V? What techniques underlie this methodology? The answers to these questions are difficult to find because they are dispersed throughout the literature of foreign language education. They are only slightly developed and in many cases must be inferred from statements of principles intended primarily for elementary levels of language learning. Thus far, they have been organized around the four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Whether such a four-part framework constitutes an adequate curriculum design for advanced language classes is questionable; one purpose of this study will be to suggest an alternative design.

According to one authoritative source, there are four basic types of learning in a foreign language class: concept formation, association or symbolic learning (largely vocabulary), skills, and habit formation.
Many foreign language educators agree with Wilga Rivers that these types of learning should be divided into two stages, a manipulative level and a selective level. The former is concerned almost exclusively with associative and motor learning; the latter, with free communication and concept development in the foreign language. During the past ten years the language profession has identified and developed techniques for the manipulative level while neglecting experimentation with strategies for concept development. One possible way to start our investigation is to ask: What are some of the basic tenets of audio-lingual teaching? Which ones must permeate the selective as well as the manipulative level? Which ones are clearly more appropriate for elementary than for advanced stages of language learning? Neither research nor personal testimony have yet offered much help in answering these questions.

Robert Lado has identified seventeen principles of language teaching as hypotheses, "subject to change or elimination as new scientific facts are added to our knowledge." It will be useful to consider some of these principles in the light of their relevance to advanced foreign language study.

Perhaps the most vital principle of audio-lingual teaching concerns the primacy of speech over writing. Expressed pedagogically, it says "Teach listening and speaking first, reading and writing next." This dictum serves well at the elementary level when it can be confidently related to limited listening-speaking objectives. Its meaning is somewhat less clear once the student has mastered most of the basic
structures and has set out on the road to free communication and liberated reading. For teachers like George Scherer, who would program the teaching of vocabulary up to the minimal 5000 words, it cannot mean that everything which the student reads must literally be first heard and practiced. Freeman Twaddell has expressed the difference between levels with considerable clarity: "On this second level, the intermediary or 'drill' stages of learning are being reduced in favor of the 'use' stages of Recognition and Selection."  

What it does mean for an advanced language class is that listening-speaking skill development must continue at advanced levels and, perhaps, that the spoken word should remain the principal stimulus for classroom activities. One implication might be the recommendation that, whenever possible, reading materials should also be recorded as a teaching resource. Emma Birkmaier has stated that high school students should read no literature which they cannot also hear. The most probable procedural implication of the "speech before writing" concept as it applies to advanced classes, concerns the need for the continued use of recorded stimuli and spoken responses. It is generally conceded that reading and writing will receive a proportionately greater amount of time in advanced classes, even when the program is basically considered audio-lingual. The problem for the foreign language teacher at all levels, but especially in advanced classes, is to discover the optimal combination of listening-speaking-reading-writing activities.

The requirement for audio materials in no way militates against a conceptual emphasis for the curriculum, but it does tend to create a
materials problem for foreign language teachers integrating with other academic disciplines.

It is generally believed by language teachers that basic sentences (mim-mem dialogue learning) do not play a key role in advanced classes. However, it may be possible to exploit similarities between foreign language dialogues and role-playing in the social studies. It is also curious that much of modern literature is dialogue-oriented rather than descriptive. Dialogues might be useful in advanced classes if put into a new form, with greater emphasis on content and less concern for grammatical demonstration. The relationship between dialogues and role-playing will be explored more specifically in Chapter V of this study.

Another basic principle of audio-lingual teaching involves the extensive use of pattern drills. This technique relates so vitally to the audio-lingual method that abandoning it would be unfeasible until students are totally immersed in free communication and liberated reading. Since this level of achievement is rarely found in practice, pattern drills should be retained throughout the entire audio-lingual program.

Robert Politzer has even suggested pattern drills for reading. The rationale for such a technique lies in the fact that rapid reading depends upon the instant recognition of the visual symbols expressing structural relationships in the medium of space. The overlearning of the audio-lingual time dimension must be balanced by systematic practice in the video-space dimension if a student is to be able to move freely between the two dimensions.
Lado's fourth principle requires that the sound system be taught structurally for use by demonstration, imitation, props, contrast and practice. His emphasis on "use" is consistent with Twaddell's view of the intermediate level as the "use stage of Recognition and Selection." It does, however, need a more precise definition if it is to be meaningful for the teacher of an advanced language class. Some of the activities found in Chapter V of this study will extend the possibilities of language use in advanced classes.

Another audio-lingual tenet is vocabulary control, with its corollary of vocabulary expansion "when the basic structure has been mastered." However, the question of vocabulary development has never been adequately handled by audio-lingual proponents. It may be true that vocabulary is the least stable element in language, but without a rich well-learned lexical inventory, students have considerable difficulty using foreign language to learn an academic subject. A design for integrated foreign language programs should include vocabulary inventories. Valdman suggests two inventories, "one over which the student must acquire active control and a much more extensive one whose elements he need only recognize and identify." The profession has yet to find proved techniques for realizing the extensive passive inventory recommended by Valdman.

Moreover, it is now recognized that integrated foreign language courses demand a specialized as well as a general vocabulary. Commenting upon his foreign language experiment in Political Science and International Relations at Goucher College, Professor Sands noted that
"Over the past three years, it has become apparent that students do not acquire a sufficient level of language capacity in their fields (with respect to professional terminology or appropriate usage of terms under differing situations) through regular language course instruction or through use of an abundance of reading or record materials." He found the solution to his problem in a kind of specialized glossary or usage text "which ranges somewhere between the requirements for an interpreter and a general language training program."

Despite the clear need for a specialized vocabulary in foreign language core programs, it is prudent to remember the long years of ineffective language teaching characterized by the indiscriminate use of vocabulary lists. Although cognizant of the usefulness of a glossary for specialized classes, we must insist that they cannot be valid primary materials for learning. This is a necessary implication of the concept of language for use. A return to the technique of memorizing vocabulary lists for whatever purpose would not be consistent with modern principles of foreign language teaching. With this reservation made, we can admit fully the value of specialized glossaries in advanced foreign language classes.

Two final indispensable principles of modern foreign language teaching relate to the need for practice and the teaching of content in the perspective of the foreign culture. These requirements apply equally to all levels. Lado states that "the student must be engaged in practice most of the learning time." A logical interpretation of this dictum for advanced classes would be the understanding that students
should spend most of the time performing activities which bear a relationship to the stated objectives of the course. If the objectives are partly conceptual and only partly linguistic, there is no inconsistency in admitting activities other than listening-speaking practice. Conversely, the development of reflection and critical thinking requires a high degree of linguistic competency, which is facilitated by additional listening-speaking practice. Therefore, the term "practice" should not be construed "a priori" to mean listening-speaking practice, but rather the performance of activities directed toward some behavioral objective. If, for example, the class is discussing stereotypes, the students might well need a pattern drill to facilitate the use of adjectives which make stereotypes possible. Such a pattern drill would not be a strictly linguistic activity since each frame carries a thought which is either true or false. Similarly, periods of silence during which students think about answers to questions should qualify as "practice" if the questions are constructed to promote reflection. In fact, silence and non-verbal behavior have for too long been excluded from the language classroom.

A foreign perspective can be achieved only if the student experiences part of the foreign sociocultural system. Howard Nostrand reminds us that this experience will depend on our educational objectives. The vastness of a sociocultural system can be minimized by an interdisciplinary approach involving cultural themes. The experience itself can be realized "through multiple concrete examples." Choice of content and method of presentation will both depend upon the age and experience
of the learner. Moreover, whatever a student's central interest, the language will free him to follow it into his second culture. 70

Within the experience which is to be part of the student's learning, we find cultural values, key assumptions about reality (and the structures which express these assumptions), paralinguistic and kinesic forms of expression, humor, art forms, social institutions (including socialization) and others. 71 It should be obvious that the realization of such experience will depend upon effective use of new media, as well as upon more verbal methods of learning. When the foreign experience is considered as a whole, there can be no clear preference for either a literary or an experiential approach. Both are part of the foreign "experience" needed by advanced foreign language students.

B. Foreign Language Teaching Techniques

The most accurate statement that can be made about techniques for advanced foreign language classes is that very little appears in the literature to help inquiring teachers. A few well-written curriculum guides make some suggestions. Methods books say almost nothing at all. Certain ideas may be gleaned from the newer materials on the market. In no case has an attempt been made to relate activities to other-than-linguistic objectives. Clearly this is a part of the curriculum in need of development.

The California State Department of Education has produced a chart of listening-speaking-reading-writing activities for each level in four
different tracks. We might consider this a foundation upon which other specific teaching activities could be added. Level III of the four-year sequence appears below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Class Time</th>
<th><strong>Listening</strong></th>
<th><strong>Speaking</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5 full periods weekly</td>
<td>French language recordings of cultural materials, utilizing many native voices for sound saturation and for comprehension.</td>
<td>Pattern drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Songs</td>
<td>Discussions based on contemporary French topics and on materials read, heard, and viewed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Class discussions of contemporary topics and of materials read, heard, or viewed.</td>
<td>Controlled discussions of French films and recorded materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct pronunciation, intonation, and phrasing from authentic models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Using gestures that are a part of the language and culture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reading**

New words and phrases in context, utilizing dictionaries written in French.

French magazines, newspapers, and anthologies of contemporary material, including science, history, geography, and other subjects of interest.

Home assignments.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;Level&quot;</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Class Time</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Special materials, equipment and considerations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5 full periods weekly</td>
<td>Exercises to reinforce basic language structures and to practice structures that appear only in writing, with occasional use of a reference grammar and a dictionary, both written in French.</td>
<td>Taped pattern drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>French language recordings of cultural materials, utilizing many native voices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>French language recordings of cultural materials, utilizing many native voices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Filmstrips and sound films.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recording by students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dictated materials, known ones and simple new ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual and class laboratory work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One notes that although Level III calls for recordings, tapes, discussions, skits and readings, there is no mention of what one is to do with these activities, nor of the purpose they are to serve. It is a common practice among advanced foreign language teachers to move through one activity after another on the assumption that the cumulative effect of the classwork will be achievement in knowledge of language, literature or culture. Behavioral objectives are not generally found in advanced foreign language curriculum planning. For example, the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction has produced the following objectives for Levels III and IV:

**Level III**

1. To reinforce and extend all language skills, with a greater emphasis upon reading than has been stressed at the earlier levels.
2. To extend reading vocabulary through materials having value in themselves but in accord with the students' present development, linguistic and literary.

3. To extend structures to include more specialized forms found in literary texts.

4. To begin use of the language by individuals and the group as a tool for imparting and acquiring knowledge.

5. To begin simple free composition in the language.

6. To extend the knowledge and appreciation of French culture and civilization.

Level IV

1. Continue as in Level III, constantly reinforcing what has already been acquired, with particular attention to points of conflict between the mother tongue and the foreign language. Extend structures, vocabulary and knowledge of the culture and literary heritage of France.73

The Florida curriculum guide stresses the transition to free communication as the chief characteristic of Levels III and IV:

    The goal of Level III is to move toward more extensive use of language as communication. There should be fewer guidelines and controls than in Level II. The students will be expected to produce longer sequences of talk. The kinds of talk fall into two groups: sustained talk--several sentences in sequential thought--and exchange of words with one or more persons . . .

    The teacher will continue to employ all possible techniques to elicit free conversation. Questions should be answered orally, and answered in longer and longer responses. Then the students should begin to summarize the answers. Each summary will be unique and varied.74
The reading content recommended for Level III includes adapted and/or edited selections from literature and should be taught thus:

The reading should usually be assigned as homework . . . Questions relative to the reading assignment should be answered orally first, whether assigned for homework or not. One word answers are satisfactory since this is normal in speech, but the teacher should not permit such a practice too often. Encourage complete sentences. The students should be encouraged to read and reread a selection before answering questions.75

As stated in the Indiana guide there is little difference in techniques between Levels III and IV. However, one change is noted in the Florida Level IV program: unadapted books are to be used. Also, writing exercises may be longer and the controls, fewer. Leading questions become more and more general until a single topic can be given. Resumes and letters are mentioned as possible activities. All of the writing should be "elemental" rather than "creative."76

The Hartford, Connecticut guide is somewhat more informative as to the classroom environment and activities for Level III:

At this level a good language class proceeds without any English, without any translation, with books closed, with structure used but rarely explained, with all the language skills constantly involved, with events and ideas retold and enlarged upon, and with a maximum participation by all members of the class. After initial remarks by the teacher there should be questionnaires, discussions, dialogues, quizzes, oral resumes, comments, drills, exercises, in all the various types of language behavior within the competency of the students.77
It is also highly informative in analyzing the way specific skills are to be developed:

Speaking

... Choral response is no less important than before, but individual response should now be more frequent and more sustained. The question and answer procedure between teacher and student is a technique that may be varied in many ways. Questions may be answered as if the student were a character in the story, one student may be directed to ask a question of another, who gives an answer in the first person singular; this in turn may be repeated by still another student in the third person singular. Of course such questionnaires must be prepared by the teacher before class and the students must give their answers with books closed ...

Reading

At this level reading may be done as homework and a large portion of class time may be spent in discussing the content and drilling the structures and vocabulary of the reading assigned. There should be new reading assignments every day so that the story may be constantly developed, while ample time is left for full assimilation of the linguistic forms encountered. Translation is still strictly taboo; students must have sustained practice in attaching meaning to the forms of the new language without reference to the mother tongue. They should be taught to use a dictionary written wholly in the foreign language ...

Writing

Practice in writing should continue to be without benefit of English and should include: the writing of resumes or summaries, or precise paragraphs, of controlled compositions in which subject matter and treatment are specifically indicated (go to someone's house, return a book, thank him for it, etc.) and the rewriting of the text by changing the identity of the speaker and the time of the events. Using a given passage as a model, the student may write a similar passage on another but comparable subject. The constant concern should be to imitate the style and the vocabulary of the author being studied; originality
and individualism should wait until the confines of correctness and the dimensions of effectiveness have been clearly perceived. The length of writing assignments should always be indicated as precisely as possible. 78

George Scherer has applied the principles of programmed instruction to the teaching of reading. Among the techniques for self-testing of new words, he suggests simple repetition, repetition in a foreign language definition, questions using the word, repetition in the reading itself, recombination readings, paraphrasing, questions in advance of the reading material, and especially, pattern drills for reading. 79 He defines "word" operationally as "any lexical unit . . . which is likely to cause the student to stop reading because adequate meaning is not immediately apparent." 80 The terminal behavior which he specifies is "the ability to recognize automatically at least 500 words of high frequency and the ability to recognize automatically the basic grammatical structure of the language." 81 For him Level III means reading contrived materials in the tenth grade and terminating only when the student controls a lexical inventory of 2000 or more words. Level IV is the period of reading adapted and/or abridged selections to increase vocabulary from 2000 to 5000 or more words in accordance with the principles of programmed instruction. This system has considerable merit for those who accept Valdman's recommendation to design both an active and a passive inventory for the foreign language curriculum. It is also interesting that Scherer reserves "liberated reading" for reading stage VI, which is to follow fifty or more pages of reading unglossed material. The last stage is characterized by the voluntary selection
by the student of an un glossed book of moderate difficulty and the
 corresponding use of a foreign language dictionary instead of relying
 upon editing or an end-of-the-book vocabulary.

In a paper describing the audio-lingual foundation, Mary Thompson
 has commented briefly on all the skills as they are to be developed in
 each of the first four levels. For example, in discussing the listening
 skill for Levels III and IV she states:

In the third year it is likely that the basic material
 of a lesson or unit will be too long to be presented orally, but it is still worthwhile to have some part of it on tape or a disk for repeated listening practice. By this time vocabulary should be increasing more rapidly and control of structure should be firm enough so that the teacher might occasionally present, in addition to recombina tions of familiar material, something new for a few minutes of listen ing practice. Introducing voices of additional native speakers would be an added advantage to the students.

In the fourth year the special practice periods of listening comprehension ought to provide longer stretches of natural speech, much of it unrelated to the work in progress. These longer stretches ought to be presented in the styles used by native speakers in a variety of situations. Most important, such periods ought to occur often, probably every day.

With reference to speaking she notes:

It is appropriate at this point to reduce some of the controls a little and allow students to practice with longer, more complicated directed dialogues, to make several exchanges in response to a statement calling for a rejoinder, and to develop a short conversation--two or three exchanges--after they have been given a brief outline of a possible situation, perhaps with the first line of one of the speakers. This is a short step, controlled and guided, along the road to free communication.
In the third year there will still be work to do with structure. . . . Conversation about reading and questions . . . can be less detailed and factual, providing some opportunity for the expression of individual ideas within a familiar framework. In addition, it is absolutely necessary to provide special exercises aimed at free communication . . . Summaries, discussions, of characters, explanations of events based on the reading material may provide the content for the sustained talk. However, there usually ought to be some guidelines such as a series of questions to be answered first and then summarized . . .

In the fourth year there should be very little, if any, need for the manipulative kind of oral production. Discussion of reading should include both sustained talk and group conversation at a more sophisticated level, with few controls necessary. 83

She also refers to a group conversation based on a narrative account of a situation. This technique very nearly approaches the technique of role-playing in the social studies. The only difference is that control is produced because of the narrative which serves as a model and a source of information.

She advocates direct reading in Level III of a limited amount (100 pages) with Scherer's principle of spacing new words at a ratio of no more than one to thirty-five. She believes that Level IV reading should increase to 300 pages, but also that it should be selected carefully. She does not include specific techniques for the teaching of reading.

Mary Thompson has also written a special booklet on the teaching of writing in which she outlines a number of techniques. 84 Although they are too numerous to reproduce completely, it can be said that all
her written exercises are based on material which has either been practiced orally or read, and that nearly all start with a model sentence.

With reference to the third and fourth levels, she makes the following observations:

At the third level, some of the same types of exercises which become progressively longer and more difficult are used. For instance, dictation, grammatical-manipulation exercises and more involved sentence-completion and construction exercises are appropriate. However, at this point the paragraph should become the basic unit of writing practice and more progress should be made toward greater freedom of expression.

One writing exercise appropriate for the third level is directed narration. This exercise starts with a sentence that sets up a situation... The student is told what information he is to provide... Cued narration, which gives a first sentence followed by a series of cues on which additional sentences are to be constructed, is also a good exercise... Or a brief dialog might be given. The student would then write a narrative paragraph leading up to the dialog and another following it. Each paragraph should contain 60-70 words and five or six sentences.

Fill-in exercises are also good. These may consist of three paragraphs. In the first two, blanks are to be filled in, with more blanks in the second paragraph than in the first. In the third paragraph, the first and last sentences are given and the student fills in no more than five sentences totaling no more than 80 words.

At the fourth level, writing exercises may be longer--two or three paragraphs rather than one--and the controls fewer. The student may still be asked to construct a paragraph based on answers to questions about something he has read, with the questions becoming more and more general until finally, near the end of the year, a free topic based on the reading is given as a writing exercise.85

It would be incomplete to terminate a discussion of techniques used in advanced foreign language classes without referring to the classical method for analyzing a literary selection, the "explication de texte." Although used chiefly in France in connection with the
baccaulareat examination, it commends itself as a method for organizing knowledge. It is a highly sophisticated exercise involving every cognitive level from memory to evaluation. It therefore deserves inclusion in any study seeking a method for the release of higher intellectual powers.

There are six major parts to an "explication de texte." The first is the task of situating the literary excerpt within the entire work. The exact nature of the "situation" will, of course, depend upon its own degree of autonomy and the structure of the work. Clarity and conciseness are qualities essential to this part.

The second step is the oral reading or "lecture." The French include it as a proof that one has understood and is sensitive to the beauty of the passage. It is a slow reading with emphasis on key words and attention to rhythm. As such, it is a commendable audio-lingual exercise.

The next phase is entitled "orientation" or search for the dominant theme. It is the uncovering of the very heart of the reading. Applied to the reading of non-literary informative materials, it means finding the main idea. Mortimer Adler saw this as the first essential step in reading for a liberal education. It is universally recognized as a critical reading skill.

The part entitled "la composition" is perhaps the most difficult of all, since it involves exposing again the heart of the message by showing how the various parts contribute to the overall impression. It is not an artificial dissection, but is based on a delicate perception
of the internal structure of the passage. Applied to the reading of informative materials, it would initiate the second of Adler's three necessary reading steps—reading for analysis. It too is a critical reading skill.

This analysis continues element by element in a section termed "étude analytique." In this part the student explains everything that merits explanation. It becomes a stylistic study which reveals how the vocabulary and the structures chosen by the author contribute to the desired effects. It consists of two sub-parts: literal explanation and commentary. By its nature, it is quite orderly since the student is to follow the order of the text. In fact, the entire "explication de texte" has one predominant objective—to elucidate the text itself, to prove that one has grasped the unity of the passage.

The conclusion is effected through a brief vigorous condensation of the substance of the "explication." It involves nothing new. In Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* it would be placed in the category of "translation", which is the first step above the memory level.

At this point we are not making the suggestion that this exercise can be simply transposed to an American classroom. It is presented here only as a technique with similarities in the teaching of critical thinking and with implications for advanced foreign language classes.
C. An Observation from Child Growth and Development

Foreign language teachers have generally not attempted to relate their teaching to principles of growth and development. California and Utah are possibly the only states to describe patterns of foreign language instruction which correspond to sequences of growth. It will be useful to present here what has been suggested for age seventeen, or grade twelve, the age at which language students have reached the "advanced levels" of foreign language learning:

Adult use of language in independent study, spontaneous conversation, and original thought are possible at age seventeen. Standard expressions are taken for granted and abstract processes of language have begun. Thought has become the primary stimulus for action and expression, and language has become the versatile tool to express ideas and emotions accurately and quickly. Research should be done on special subjects, and seminar-type reports and discussions should follow. Emphasis here is on the natural, spontaneous use of the language in technical and abstract subjects as well as in informal situations.90

In the program established in California, grade twelve generally corresponds to Level VI of language study. It is most unfortunate that very few students at this age have reached the truly advanced level of language proficiency to permit them to operate at such an intellectual level of work. Nevertheless, the information remains as a goal for future planning. It is not possible to ignore the developmental level of students simply because it is difficult to apply that knowledge to foreign language learning.
In summary, we might underline the following guidelines, which were identified in this chapter:

1. The advanced level (Levels III and IV) of foreign language learning is a selective level in which language is put to use for serious purposes. Manipulation learning should be gradually phased out.

2. Recorded stimuli should continue to permeate the classroom atmosphere in these levels.

3. The dialogue can continue as a useful technique if it expresses serious content instead of casual conversation.

4. Occasional pattern drills should continue as long as language skill development falls short of fluency. Pattern drills are also useful for teaching reading.

5. Vocabulary enrichment must be a major objective for levels in which substantive content is taught. In this task, the principle of learning vocabulary in context must be continued.

6. In advanced levels, the mechanistic concept of practice must be broadened to include practice in reflection as well as practice in language skills.

7. Experience with a foreign sociocultural system can be realized with a wide diversity of subject matter. One logical way to bring this experience to the classroom is through the use of cultural themes which cut across subject matter lines.

8. It is recommended that teachers use recordings, tapes, discussions, skits, and readings in the advanced levels. However, there are not yet any specific directions for teachers wishing to implement this advice.

9. The transition to free communication is perhaps the best overall characteristic of the advanced levels. Choral response should give way to more individual response and varied question-answer exercises.

10. Homework readings should be a regular feature of these classes.
11. Teachers should plan both an active and a passive inventory of structures and vocabulary so that students may progressively move toward the goal of 5000 words needed for liberated reading.

12. In these levels, daily practice in listening comprehension must continue. Students ought to gradually hear longer stretches of natural speech in a variety of situations.

13. Besides the numerous question-answer exercises, teachers can use longer and more complicated directed dialogue and gradually allow students to speak responses of more than one sentence. The teacher can also provide cues for the "creation" of responses.

14. In writing, many controlled paraphrasing exercises are available for use in advanced classes. Use of model sentences should continue.

15. Directed narration is a useful exercise for both speaking and writing in these levels.

16. In advanced levels the paragraph should be the basic unit of writing.

17. "Explication de texte" offers some promise as a method for developing critical reading skills. When applied to the American scene, and to non-literary materials in particular, it will require some modification.
CHAPTER IV

The Social Studies Contribution

A. The Reflective Method

Most of the new social studies curriculum projects can be described as inductive schemes for the development of inquiry. The variations on the theme all serve the objective of inquiry or reflective thinking. In this study the two terms will be used interchangeably. If advanced foreign language teachers are to profit from the advances made in the teaching of social studies, they too will have to pursue this elusive objective. Despite the difficult problem of translating inquiry into operational terms at the classroom level, they cannot relinquish the objective. Inquiry is the unifying thread of modern social studies teaching.

Before applying inquiry to social studies or sociocultural content, we shall have to understand it. One way of doing this is to consider it as an outgrowth of Dewey's "reflective thinking," with its essential steps, interpretations, misinterpretations and reinterpretations. With this concept in sharper relief, we can proceed to specific techniques based on the reflective or inquiry method.
John Dewey defined reflection as "the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it." By 1955 Hunt and Metcalf had refined it in the following way:

Reflection refers to the essential but non-gadgetlike features of the scientific method, to an attitude of mind and a generalized set of operations with which we may approach all problems whether physical or social in nature.

For Hunt and Metcalf, and for most social studies teachers, the reflective method is identical to the scientific method, whose principal steps are:

1. Recognition and definition of a problem. This is usually an outgrowth of a sensed discrepancy in known data.

2. Formulation of hypotheses.

3. Elaboration of logical implications of hypotheses. This includes deducing observations which have already been made—so that hypotheses may be checked against present knowledge, and deducing observations which have not already been made—so that hypotheses may be tested through experimentation.

4. Testing of hypotheses. This involves attempts to verify consequences deduced under step 3, in terms of data of previous experience and data procured in experimental tests.

5. Drawing of conclusions. This involves acceptance, modification, or rejection of hypotheses.

To the less thoughtful, the logical steps became an end in themselves resulting in total neglect of the psychological processes by which people actually do think. According to Philip G. Smith, who has tried to put some of Dewey's thought into a more authentic perspective, Dewey did not intend the focus of classroom work to be on the logic itself. "Dewey himself noted that logical forms are more useful as a
means of formulating the results of thinking than for prescribing ways in which inquiry should go forward." Fenton has also criticized this mythical conception of reflective thinking:

Dewey never suggested that problems could be solved mechanically in consecutive stages. But many classroom teachers failed to get this part of the message. Course syllabi, unit outlines, and even some methods texts suggest four or five or six steps as if climbing them successively would guarantee a wise solution to any problem.95

If the logical steps of the scientific method are not sacred in themselves, then to what higher purpose do they tend? In social science, truth is relative to the empirical base on which a particular belief rests. As such, it can never be totally encompassed. The reflective steps are simply tools to serve the learner in strengthening or modifying his beliefs.

The presumed purpose of any act of thought, or of any application of scientific or reflective methodology, is to achieve tested beliefs which are more worth to a person than the beliefs he previously held. But when are they "more worth"? They are worth more as they come to encompass more data . . . A person's beliefs are also worth more as they come to be more consistent, more compatible with one another.96

The relationship between this objective and the development of cross-cultural understanding in a foreign language class is clear and striking. Students, like adults, quickly form opinions of foreign people, their institutions, and ways of living. As a result of language study, these opinions should not and do not remain fixed. Growth in cross-cultural understanding can be observed in the data and the consistency of students' opinions. It is not merely a sub-conscious process, but relates directly to the inquiry orientation of the class.
In a sense, language is at the center of the inquiry process because inquiry is impossible without a meaningful problem statement. "It is now widely believed that the language forms which a person uses influence the kind of problems he considers important, his manner of stating problems, his choice of testing procedures, and the outcome of inquiry."97 It is most reasonable to assume that this principle will apply with double force when identical problems are perceived by two or more different linguistic groups or by an individual student performing research in two different languages. It is especially in the selection of evidence for a particular point of view that these culturally-bound perceptual differences are manifested. For example, educational problems in France and in the United States are influenced by the cultural view that each society has taken of childhood and the role of the immature in the adult world. Social forces nudging the two societies into similar patterns of decision-making are not strong enough to erase the persistence of differing educational philosophies.

Reflective thinking relates directly to advanced foreign language classes because the cross-cultural differences embedded in sociocultural materials are often exemplars of the smaller value differences found within individuals of a single cultural area, and occasionally, within a single person. Reflective thinking thrives on conflict, contradiction, and inconsistency. The foreign language teacher has at his disposal sufficient and varied data with which to implant an element of doubt. It is his responsibility to do just that.
The most formidable challenge posed by the reflective method in an advanced foreign language class is found in the fact that many cross-cultural differences appear as differences in ultimate rather than in instrumental values. Since the latter are simply means or alternatives for reaching something more absolute (unchanging), they lend themselves to rational examination. Absolute values cannot be reflectively tested. Fortunately, most cross-cultural differences can probably be shown to be instrumental in nature, serving a logical function in the total personality structure of a given people. The French prize a distinguished cuisine not just because they like good food but partly because they view a well-prepared meal as a work of art. This exaltation of the art of cooking is not found in all cultures and is therefore not an absolute value in all cultures. In French civilization, good cuisine is explainable in terms of something more ultimate and is therefore an instrumental value capable of being examined reflectively.

Cross-cultural comparisons using up-to-date sociocultural information have the advantage of initiating "teachable moments." Reflective thinking is not a constant. Adolescents must be frequently stimulated to examine their beliefs. However, adolescence is also the period when a person both assimilates and criticizes the social beliefs of the cultural establishment. Stereotypes of foreign peoples are learned and often mouthed, but there is in the adolescent an openness to evidence which can destroy the stereotypes. According to the Utah Foreign Language Guide, sixteen and seventeen year-olds are more tolerant of the world in general and more oriented toward the future.
foreign language materials provide students with evidence not generally valued by the adult establishment. If properly handled, the practice of reflecting upon authentic foreign language "data" will continue to serve both the individual and society.

B. The Structure of the Discipline

At least two different views have so far been offered as the rationale for all social studies disciplines. James G. Womack sees the structure of the social studies to be in a set of generalizations particular to each discipline within the social studies area. For him, a generalization is "a broad inclusive statement in complete grammatical form which serves as a principle or rule for the social studies." He lists eight criteria, of which the two most important are that a generalization must have universal application, admitting no major exception, and that it is best discovered by inductive reasoning. A generalization is an abstraction derived from content but is not in itself content. He then describes the four kinds of generalizations: substantive, sub-generalizations, methodological generalizations and normative generalizations. Generalizations pertaining to a particular culture, or limited in any other way, fall into the sub-generalization category which, together with normative generalizations (value judgments) are dismissed as less than true because of their lack of universality. Yet the author admits that in social studies, there are very few facts or events that could be put into an "all" category. It seems fair to conclude that although Womack's definition of generalization is useful for most types of social studies content, the content found in language classes is not
intended to teach universals as much as particular differences. For this reason, foreign language sociocultural content will have to be structured in another way.

Before considering the second possibility, we ought to recognize other contributions which Womack has made to the teaching of generalizations. He has clarified inductive teaching by revealing that the degree of abstraction of a generalization will depend upon the age of the student and the content to be used. Moreover, he has pointed out the limitations of teaching generalizations, the most important of which is prior knowledge of facts:

Before students can begin to think inductively about any generalizations . . ., the teacher must arrange the learning activities of the unit so that students are exposed to all or most of the factual strands, which, when organized into a pattern, will constitute a generalization.\(^{101}\)

He stresses the necessity of selecting only meaningful generalizations, of limiting the number (he suggests six in a three-week unit), of being supported with proof and of being freely discovered instead of being dictated by the teacher.\(^{102}\) However, he believes strongly in teaching the tools of the various disciplines (methodological generalizations) for use in an interdisciplinary approach to social studies.

Finally, he offers models for teaching generalizations with interdisciplinary content and models for the testing of generalizations.
The writers of the Carnegie social studies materials have developed a perspective on social studies structure that is more flexible and consequently more useful for foreign language classes:

Rather than a group of generalizations or a group of concepts, we define the structure of history and the social sciences as a battery of analytical questions which can be used to order factual evidence . . . Unlike statements, analytical questions suggest the possibility of relations among facts and generalizations; they do not insist that a relation is always present.103

As noted by Womack, generalizations are not an integral part of content in the sense that they can be found by opening any given book. Rather they depend on the availability of varied authentic data from which they are abstracted. Foreign language sociocultural materials are now in the incubation stage. It is doubtful that an industrious foreign language teacher could find sufficient concrete sociocultural materials from which to draw many generalizations. On the other hand, questions may be considered the stuff of which foreign language learning is made. Students and teachers are accustomed to them. In fact, foreign language is the one area of the curriculum in which students are trained to ask questions. It is true that in the lower levels many of the questions asked directly or in directed dialogue have bordered on the trivial. This may be necessary in the elementary levels and occasionally at all levels, but it should be possible for communication in an advanced foreign language class to become progressively more meaningful. If the curriculum were built upon a progression of question types, the transition to meaningful communication might be facilitated.
The social and cultural content of advanced foreign language classes is diverse and unstructured. Scholars are presently exploring ways of bringing order to the chaos, as they are expending similar energies to find an adequate linguistic structure. In the interim, the practicing teacher will do well to "pick and choose" from the content available and to emphasize the process of foreign language sociocultural learning. I submit that the best strategy for the development of both linguistic and reflective objectives is to use a taxonomy of questions especially designed for foreign language education. When questions are pre-planned by the teacher, it becomes possible to retain control over the structures which students must use if they are to communicate in the foreign language. Yet the same pre-planning can allow for lexical variations within a given structure. A taxonomy of questions would simplify the articulation desperately needed in the profession because it would illustrate the kinds of structures over which the students should have active control for use in functional situations, i.e., in the development of critical thinking and the discovery of sociocultural knowledge. It could be accompanied by an enumeration of extensive lexical items capable of stimulating inquiry and which are found in appropriate foreign language materials. It could provide a framework to guide and influence the direction of materials development.

Nor is it necessary to limit the framework to analytical questions. One excellent methods book has reported nineteen specific uses of questions. They can be found in this chapter under "questions." It is important to remember that language skills learned in the
elementary courses are built upon minimal exposure and practice. They must be systematically re-used in the advanced classes or they will soon be of little value. Therefore in advanced foreign language courses, linguistic objectives and activities must be juxtaposed with strategies for developing inquiry. A taxonomy of questions will enable each teacher to select the combination of question types best suited for the combined linguistic and inquiry needs of his class. Facility with the various question types can be enhanced by occasional remedial pattern drills.

Reflection could be built into the structure in at least (but by no means only) two ways. First, the student would be guaranteed a choice of meaningful lexical items to fit into the structures of the questions and responses. He would be assured practice using alternative responses. Secondly, as language skill progressed, the student could be encouraged to provide lexical items to use in responses to given questions, and eventually, in the most advanced stages, to create questions of his own. Students learn what they have practiced. It should therefore not be surprising if students quickly develop the ability to ask meaningful questions. This is the ultimate goal of reflective teaching.

Finally, it should be stressed that such a framework is not intended to represent the totality of types of learning in the foreign language curriculum, but merely to provide the organizational thread on which advanced foreign language classes are to be built. The life of the class will, as always, be generated by the presence of an inspiring teacher using varied activities and wisely selected materials and media.
This structure is recommended for advanced foreign language learning (and it could even include the teaching of literature) as a way of minimizing the loss caused by poor materials and of bringing foreign language teaching into the Brunerian world of process.

C. The Role of the Teacher in the Initial Stages of Reflection

Before discussing social studies strategies and techniques, we ought to consider the limitations of techniques. A technique in itself is sterile and can be made to serve either rote or meaningful learning. Only a skillful teacher will know how techniques are to be used. Successful methods usually involve a variety of techniques. What is reported here can only be a partial inventory of resources which, when animated by a thoughtful teacher, can stimulate inquiry in students. Consequently, it is wise to start with a delineation of teacher roles in an inquiry-oriented class.

According to Hunt and Metcalf, the two principal responsibilities of the teacher are to help students feel and clarify problems, and to arrange an emotional and intellectual climate in which students may freely explore problems but with due respect for methodological rules. Specifically, this means that the teacher will familiarize himself with the present knowledge, understandings and beliefs of students, especially the points of conflict and confusion. Applied to a foreign language classroom it means many additional things. How capable are the students to use the foreign language comfortably as a means of communication? If they are not capable, how and to what
extent can the work be made non-directive? What is the attitude of the
class toward the foreign language? Toward the foreign country being
studied? What are their personal motivations for studying the foreign
language? Which aspects of the foreign sociocultural system are most
likely to shock and stimulate this particular group of students?

Hunt and Metcalf suggest that teachers may find it useful to com-
pile a written record of beliefs held by their students. Each
statement of belief could be put on a card and the cards filed under
general categories. The language teacher must start with conflicts and
points of confusion related to the content he is planning to teach, viz.,
the two sociocultural systems. If he has not been preparing such
records over a period of time, it seems certain that some instrument
should be devised for use prior to the start of a social studies or
cultural unit, for the purpose of ascertaining student knowledge and
beliefs relevant to the topic under question.

In inquiry teaching, it is extremely important for the teacher to
select carefully the belief or value for study. It is said that social
studies teachers must "pick and choose" based on their own objectives,
the policies of the school, and the conceptual development and inter-
est of their students.

If the first step in a problems approach is to select and intro-
duce a topic, the next is closely related. The teacher must see that
his students feel the problem. This involves the clarification and
the (contrived) creation of problems. Clarification refers to the
process of making a problem more specific and hence more capable of
scientific investigation, in the broad sense of the word "scientific." Creation implies that it is the teacher's responsibility to expose as many latent or potential conflicts as possible. It is essentially a matter of increasing the perception of problems which were previously absent. In the foreign language classroom this might well begin with an incident encountered in reading or an idea requiring explanation. It might be an interpretation of history or current events that is peculiar, offensive or illogical to the American reader. It might be a dramatic confrontation of ideas which challenge something in the native culture. Ideally, it will be lodged in a concrete situation. In any event, it is likely that at least part of the "problem" for students will be recognizing a difference between the foreign and the native view of reality. This is a good illustration of Hunt and Metcalf's observation that "creating problems . . . is essentially a matter of confronting them (students) with highly convincing negative evidence."¹⁰⁷ In our case, the negative evidence has originated in a foreign view of reality.

Problems are also created through the exposure of inconsistency or confusion in the students' thinking. In this task, the principal technique to be used is the question. "Teachers need to ask probing questions and to stay with an issue long enough to bring to light students' thought processes."¹⁰⁸ Frequently the questions will involve subject matter analogous to the original situation, but likely to elicit an opposite and inconsistent viewpoint. In other words, the analogy raises the same issue in different circumstances. The question is
preceded by a statement of the analogous situation introduced by the word "Suppose (Supposons)." "The power of the analogy stems from the fact that it provokes discussants to make distinctions and qualifications that strengthen and clarify positions." Thus, a person may express strong opposition to the principle of government control in a situation where such control would cause him inconvenience or loss of freedom. Yet if he finds himself faced with a harmful situation with which he is unable to cope, he may even demand that same government control to protect his own interests. The use of analogy in this instance forces the student to think about those cases in which government control is warranted and those in which it is not.

It is in these crucial first steps that lecture may serve one of its few legitimate functions. Hunt and Metcalf remark that there are two points in reflection where lecturing or telling may be highly profitable. "One is at the point where a teacher is trying to help students clarify or feel a problem (he may need to present negative evidence, which is often best done through telling) . . . Under the reflective approach . . . lectures should raise problems or communicate pertinent evidence." Value conflicts are often effectively raised through the audio-visual media, especially films and tapes. However, foreign language teachers must share the regret of social studies teachers that the content of audio-visual aids is generally unsuited to reflection.
In general, there are two ways to introduce a topic:

1. To get the students to make statements about their own beliefs or knowledge.
2. To introduce the topic from the outside.

The foreign language teacher especially must exercise good judgment in deciding on one of these two approaches. It is certain that language teachers will have to structure most learning situations, even in Levels IV and V. In fact, there are compelling reasons for teacher guidance:

... a good psychological climate and free discussion are not usually enough to produce accurate insight because of the difficulty of learning goals and types of problems discussed. In a social studies classroom many of the problems treated involve complex social issues and complicated and extensive evidence. Although relatively undirected discussion may be desirable to get issues into the open, to expose data from the prior experiences of pupils, and to reduce repression, it is not enough. If students do not know what a tariff is, for example, such discussion will not make them more intelligent about tariff issues. A teacher must be in charge to lead discussion, inject criticism, suggest research, and in general handle the learning enterprise.

These have been a few of the important roles the teacher must play in the presentation stage. We might add that the teacher’s presence is probably most necessary in the initial steps of the act of reflection. Difficulties are compounded because of the vagueness of most foreign language sociocultural materials. In Chapter V an attempt will be made to illustrate the decisions a foreign language teacher will have to make during the first stage of reflection.
D. Specific Strategies and Techniques

1. Undirected discussion.

Undirected discussion serves a limited function in a social studies class. It is useful to "warm up" a class by making students feel at ease and encouraging backward students to talk. "It may also--and this is most important--help a teacher to identify the real problems of students, or to discuss unexamined beliefs (prejudices) which can later be brought under question in such a way as to create problems. 112

Undirected discussion is probably more necessary in a foreign language class because of the greater need for a warm-up session when changing from one language to another. However, as in any other area of the curriculum, undirected discussion can easily become wasteful if used indiscriminately, or if too prolonged.

2. Directed discussion.

Edwin Fenton views directed discussion as lying somewhere in the middle of the continuum between expository lecture, in which the teacher tells students both the generalizations and the supporting evidence, and problem-solving, in which the teacher provides stimulus material but rarely intervenes in the learning process. In directed discussion, the teacher raises important questions. He also provides cues and guides the discussion by his questions. He talks less than in lecture, more than in a discovery exercise. This technique is used for two purposes: to get students to induce the meaning of a concept or to involve the student personally in a dialogue on a public controversy. 113  In the latter case, only one student discusses the
issue with the teacher. Directed discussion resembles the foreign language technique of directed dialogue in that the teacher exerts control over the direction of the learning, although in the case of directed dialogue the control is much more stringent both as to content and form. Nevertheless, we should not forget the findings of Chapter III on the subject of directed dialogue for Levels III and IV. Mary Thompson and others have recommended that directed dialogue become longer and more complex in those levels. Is there any reason why it should not also become less and less directed by allowing students gradually to select structures as well as minimal content changes? Since the evolution of a directed discussion depends upon the responses of a real group of students, it cannot be demonstrated fully in this study. However, an approximation of directed discussion will be illustrated in Chapter V. A specific topic will be presented together with questions that a teacher might possibly have to ask in a discussion of that topic.

The first ingredient for directed discussion is that it be based upon data which the students have either read or experienced. For the foreign language class this will almost always mean material that has been read, heard on tape or on record, or seen on filmstrip or film. The presentation of the material may or may not have been preceded by instructions to guide the experience.

After the first exposure to the material, the teacher asks an open-ended question such as "What do you think of this reading?", "What can we tell about the author?", "Under what circumstances was the message probably conceived?" or something similar to start the class in the direction of what he wants them to discover. At this
point, as many answers as possible are received from the class until the discussion wanes or goes in a wrong direction. The teacher then puts the discussion on the right track by asking another question. He may also summarize student answers and ask the class if they are in agreement with a particular point of view. Most important, the teacher will intervene to make a general statement more precise by asking questions like "Why?", "What does that mean?", "Could you add something to that statement?", and so on. After the original question has been investigated fully, the teacher breaks in again to summarize and ask for a generalization. That is, in what respects are most of the students in agreement? Finally, he asks how this new knowledge or concept applies to past factual knowledge or to personal experience?

This is but one of many directions which directed discussion might take. In a foreign language class the strategy might well begin in the same way, by reading or listening to a sample of content. However, after the presentation, it will probably be necessary for the teacher to bring more control to the lesson by asking a few factual questions to test comprehension. An alternative to this approach would be to administer a short objective quiz to test comprehension. This quiz could be graded by the students themselves. After verification of understanding, the discussion could commence with a stimulating open-ended question as described above.
3. Lecture

As observed above under teacher role, lecture is not in itself a poor technique. According to one social studies specialist, "the lecture, under the name of informative talk or explanation, is a perfectly valid means of giving students information and a point of view peculiar to the lecturer." Lectures are most effective when devoted to introductory and explanatory uses. Fenton goes so far as to say that "if a teacher's sole objective is to impart knowledge of facts and generalizations . . . to relatively mature and receptive students, he might just as well lecture as discuss." He then counters this seemingly extreme statement by citing the limitations of lecture for affective and inquiry objectives. Since foreign language students start with a very low degree of content knowledge, no method for introducing and explaining content should be overlooked, including lecture. In a rich and varied program lecture will play its role. However, "lecturing is a high art, and its successful performance depends upon the teacher's extent and depth of knowledge, his awareness of human factors of interest and motivation, upon a dramatic sense and above all upon the need for a logical philosophical position--a need to know what he is doing."

4. Open-textbook lessons

Leonard S. Kenworthy has stressed the importance of open-textbook lessons for every student. He points out that many of the social studies skills must be learned in this way. "When papers are assigned, students should be helped with skills connected with the use of the library and writing such papers. When a panel is to be presented, students will need help in the skills involved in such a
method. Other uses mentioned are reading to find the main points in a paragraph, chapter or unit; checking a point on which the class is not clear; studying pictures, maps or charts; interpreting maps; using the table of contents and the index of a book; taking notes; preparing talks to the class; and doing certain kinds of homework.

Specific techniques within this method include:

1. Ask students to read a sentence aloud and then tell what the author has said in the students' own words. Do the same with a paragraph or a longer paragraph.

2. Ask students to read silently; tell them ahead of time to look for a main idea in a sentence, paragraph, or longer passage.

3. Ask students to list in their notebooks the key people, ideas, places, or dates mentioned in a given passage.

4. Ask the pupils to frame a basic question covering a given passage in a book.

5. Ask students to write a caption giving the main idea of a chart, graph, or cartoon.

6. Ask them to put an idea into a picture.

7. Ask them to use the index of a book and to locate the pages of a certain topic.

8. Ask students to interpret the symbols on maps or to draw their own maps with their own symbols.

9. Ask students to make an outline of a section of a book; or make an outline with them, using the chalkboard.

It is evident that many of the functions of open-textbook lessons pertain to the teaching of basic critical reading skills. As Robert Politzer and Wilga Rivers suggest in sources already quoted in this study, the framework of expectations is different in listening to or reading a foreign language than it is in the native language, both as
to structures and lexical clusters. It is inevitable that language classes will have to spend numerous open-textbook sessions learning to find main ideas and discussing the clues by which such main ideas were located.

In the open-textbook exercise, the teacher can play varied roles. He can work with individuals, small groups, or an entire class. He can arrange pre-tests with books open (incidentally, there is no reason for pre-tests to be restricted to formal research situations). He can have students read aloud to the class. He can give a problem that requires the use of the text. Or he can work cooperatively with the class to identify study techniques and then have students apply them in a work period.  

The uniqueness of open-textbook lessons lies in their placing the teacher in a passive role and the student in the position of intense intellectual activity. In its simplest form, the teacher assigns a certain topic developed in a number of pages in a common textbook. The teacher patrols the room helping with word meanings and interpretations on an individual basis. According to James High, the procedure may be elaborated by passing out a study guide with questions to answer either orally or in writing.  

In a foreign language setting, there should probably always be instructions to guide the reading.

5. Using quotations

Quotations are often a stimulant to motivation. They can arouse interest by providing material for analysis, a challenging and thought-provoking situation, and a basis from which learning can be expanded.
They may be long or short. In a sense they are miniature case studies. They may be used as a basis for organizing review lessons. They are often stimulating as essay test items. Students can be encouraged to collect favorite quotations and enter them in personal notebooks.

If quotations have been frequently used, it is entirely possible to structure a quiz game with students on each team alternately picking random quotations for their side to identify. The student who selected the quotation would read it and call on someone in his group to identify the author. A variation of this game is to have the person selecting the quotation write part of it on the board and have team members successively add words until the quotation was complete. With each mistake, the opportunity to finish the quotation would revert to the other team.

Probably the most interesting use of quotations in an inquiry-oriented class is the presentation of conflicting quotations, especially when they pit well-known personalities against each other. Students could then attempt to account for the difference of opinion. The first step might be simply to brainstorm for as many explanations as possible. After these explanations were written on the board, they could be discussed and evaluated.

The New York City handbook suggests three questions that logically follow from a quotation: "Explain the quotation. To what extent does it present a complete picture? On the basis of the quotation, what problem shall we discuss today?"

As with any other technique, there are hazards in the use of quotations. Teachers can overuse them, use them without purpose, or use them with slower learners, for whom quotations are less appropriate.
Teachers also tend to forget that quotations should be brief and usually read more than once. Often they should be written on the board or preserved in some other visual form.

In a foreign language class quotations serve a most important function. The history of a nation glitters with quotations that summarize the personality of an age or of an individual. They provide national symbols in which myth and reality meet. They often express values more strongly held in one society than in another. In this respect, they can become the stimulus for a study of cross-cultural differences.

Foreign language teachers have not yet investigated the uses of biography in the teaching of culture, but it is quite possible that when they do, quotations could play another pedagogical role, by evoking narrative factual accounts. In other words, quotations can be used in connection with biographical readings for the purpose of stimulating reconstruction of the context in which the quotation was made.

Quotations which are presented orally as well as in writing could, of course, be used in listening comprehension tests. After adequate exposure to the quotations, students could be asked to relate a spoken quotation to particular names on the answer sheet, or in a biographical unit, to situations and dates in the life of the subject.

6. Using filmstrips

Presently there are no films produced to teach the sociocultural content in advanced foreign language classes. However, there are good filmstrips being used in courses focusing on the History of France.
One can also find numerous filmstrips for French geography and economics, and they usually come with accompanying tapes. The best source for these filmstrips is the Wible Language Institute, 24 S. Eighth St., Allentown, Penna. Because of the availability and actual use of filmstrips in advanced classes, some pointers on the use of filmstrips are in order.

It cannot be sufficiently stressed that filmstrips, like films, must be previewed and related to the ongoing work of the class. When being used, the introduction should be as short as possible. Kenworthy recommends that chauvinistic filmstrips (and most of them tend to be such) should not be discarded, but used as a means of teaching critical thinking through the uncovering of propaganda devices. 124

When a tape does not accompany the filmstrip, someone will have to read the captions. In a foreign language setting, the teacher may read them himself, model them for class repetition, or permit students to read them without a model. Although it is not recommended that interest in the content should be diverted for linguistic practice, filmstrips may be shown more than once with oral practice by the class on one or several occasions. In general, captions provide structures and vocabulary which students may use in describing and discussing the filmstrip.

While using the filmstrip, the teacher should stop often to describe and analyze the particular frame, since student perceptions may differ from those of the teacher. In addition, he should direct attention to all the important details in the frame. If discussion emerges from a particular frame, it might be advisable to turn off the
machine so that students may be seen and heard. The teacher may wish to interrupt a filmstrip to ask questions relating a frame to prior knowledge and/or experience, or he may wish students to predict the ending of an event before seeing it realized in the filmstrip. Depending on the length of the filmstrip, it is conceivable that a foreign language teacher will want to integrate the viewing with related language learning, by injecting pattern drills, questions and other language learning activities during and between viewings.

Besides the technical considerations of having a darkened room, situating the projector properly and re-focusing periodically, it is important for the foreign language teacher to require students to speak louder and more distinctly because of the noise of some machines.

For maximum concentration during the viewing, students might be required to take notes as they watch the filmstrip. This can be insured by telling students to be prepared to discuss specific problems after the viewing. These problems should be presented to the class in some visual form prior to the viewing. During the showing of preselected frames, the teacher can explain different points. Pivotal questions can be asked by the teacher.

After the viewing, the teacher can guide the discussion in such a way as to answer the preselected problems or to produce a chalkboard outline based on pupil notes.

Filmstrip lessons are most effective if the knowledge learned is subsequently applied to a problem or is related in some way to the next day's lesson. Student evaluation of the filmstrip as a method of
learning the particular knowledge sought is beneficial for both students and teacher. In a foreign language class, such an evaluation is an occasion for informal free communication. In classes where students do not perform well at free communication, the teacher may cue responses through the use of evaluative questions beginning with "Est-ce que" and "Est-ce que ... ou ... " He may also prepare an adjective checklist for rating the filmstrip and ask the students to construct a comment which can be applied to the filmstrip seen.

7. Questions

Edwin Fenton has stated an obvious but overlooked fact: "No art is more difficult to master than that of asking the appropriate question." Part of the difficulty stems from the fact that the teacher must know both his subject and the range of question types if he is to select the right question for the right occasion. In this section we will first identify and describe a number of question types and then discuss the uses and characteristics of good questions.

In his book Classroom Questions: What Kinds, Norris M. Sanders makes an assumption which also underlies the purpose of this study: "... teachers can lead students into all kinds of thinking through careful use of questions, problems, and projects." We are also assuming that foreign language teachers do not employ the variety of question types available to them.

Questions in the memory category require students to recognize or recall factual information. According to Sanders, a fact is such because it is non-controversial. It can be a definition, a generalization, a value, or the description of a skill. Since facts form
the basis for all higher mental operations, the memory category is indispensable to education. Although each category of questions has gradations of difficulty, factual questions are generally considered the easiest because they are the one with which teachers are the most familiar. One of the serious limitations of factual questions is that they do not guarantee understanding. Consequently, they must be supplemented with questions more likely to teach "the process of education."

Translation questions require the student to change ideas in a communication into parallel forms--oral, written, pictorial or graphic. Language teachers should note that in this study translation does not refer to the language teaching technique of changing a sentence from the native language into the foreign language or visa-versa. The most common form of translation occurs when the student answers a question "in his own words," i.e., when he paraphrases a message. Translation ability can be demonstrated actively, by having students put words into pictures or visa versa. Or the students can match words and pictures, paraphrased sentences or paragraphs. Sociodrama is also a form of translation. The principal limitation of this question type lies in the amount of time often required to translate one medium into another.

In interpretation questions, "the student relates facts, generalizations, definitions, values and skills. To relate means to discover or use a relationship between two or more ideas." Possible relationships are comparisons, implications, generalizations to evidence, values, skills and/or definitions to examples, numerical relationships, and cause and effect. Interpretation questions ask students to relate ideas on a common-sense level, with an emphasis on the subject matter
rather than on the logic itself. In this important respect, they agree with Dewey's views on logic in the classroom. It is always important for corrections to be made in terms of subject matter rather than in terms of logic.

In comparison questions, students could be asked whether two or more ideas are the same or different. They could be asked degrees of similarity and difference. They could be given specified points for comparison. However, "the most challenging comparison questions leave it up to the student to determine the topics on which two or more general sets of ideas are comparable."

Perhaps in no other category is there room for such a range of difficulty as in comparison questions. They can therefore be used with almost any age group.

Implication means recognizing that a specific event belongs to a certain group of events or relates to a general idea. Implication questions are frequently found with wording similar to the following: "Given (the fact of) A, then B would probably occur under C circumstances." Another kind of implication question occurs when the student is given new unknown information and asked to relate it to a previously learned concept.

A common type of induction-evidence question takes place when the student is given an inductive conclusion and is asked to find or recognize evidence that supports it. Sanders notes that this type of question is very appropriate at the end of a unit.

Some interpretation questions are based on a particular format. For example, some questions require the student to draw an inference
in the pattern of A is to B as -- is to D. In a true analogy, A and B will be related in the same way as are C and D. Clearly this question type would seem to be useful in testing similarities across cultures. Faulty analogies can usually be avoided by making the general class unknown or by asking students to identify the relationship as part of the answer. For example, "the President is to the United States government as the __________ is to the government of Great Britain. What relationship does the President have to the United States that your answer shares with Great Britain?"\(^\text{131}\)

Irrelevant-item questions also belong to the interpretation category. In such questions the teacher presents a series of ideas and adds an irrelevant item that appears superficially plausible.

Application questions form another category in the taxonomy. Because of controversy in the field of social studies, the process involved in such questions will contain either a strong behavioral emphasis or a strong intellectual bent. Despite obvious limitations, the subject-centered application questions offer more usefulness to foreign language teachers at the present time. Some of the intellectual behaviors noted by Sanders are: the ability to categorize new information into an existing framework of knowledge, the ability to use the specialized vocabulary of the social sciences, the ability to relate new information to controversial issues, and the ability to express oneself effectively in oral and written form on social issues.\(^\text{132}\)
Foreign language learning for the last ten years has been almost entirely skill centered. With the maturation of these skills, the profession is faced with the necessity of deciding upon meaningful uses for them. Since the most visible proof of maturation appears in the advanced levels, it is there that application questions should also be most visible. The application of listening-speaking-reading-writing skills to the learning of subject matter would, of course, be an important illustration of the applied question. In this process, however, the task for the teacher is to define objectives so that both the skill and the content are specified. Ralph Tyler has created a two-dimensional description of objectives in chart form which might be helpful for curriculum planning in advanced foreign language classes.

Along the horizontal line of the chart, the objectives could be stated in terms of behaviors or skills; on the vertical line, the would specify the aspects of content to which the particular skill is to apply. Some of the exhibits in Chapter V will have objectives stated in this way.

Analysis is the most challenging and the most difficult category because "it requires solutions of problems in the light of conscious knowledge of the parts and processes of reasoning." Analysis questions involve the criteria for good induction, the forms of deduction (inference, syllogism, and dilemma), fallacies, and especially, semantics. Because a high degree of sophistication is required in these areas, analysis questions are not often used in the social studies. Until the level of foreign language skill development reaches the fluency stage, analysis questions would appear to be of limited value to foreign language teaching.
Synthesis questions allow students great freedom in seeking solutions to problems. They call for divergent thinking, "which starts from a problem that offers a variety of possibilities radiating out to many satisfactory answers." In synthesis questions, the solution requires a product, which may be "the product of a unique communication," "the product of a plan or proposed set of operations," or "the derivation of a set of abstract relations." Synthesis questions also require a high degree of language competency, but should not be neglected for this reason, since they do not, like analysis questions, require formal study of logic. It should also be obvious that classroom atmosphere is far more important to creativity than using a particular type of question.

Norris Sanders has suggested five good synthesis techniques:

A. Subjects in which a student can discover raw, undigested information offer opportunities for originality. Subjects on which information has been available for a long time and sifted by many minds are so well digested as not to offer much opportunity for originality.

B. Originality is often encouraged by defining a topic as a problem on which there is genuine doubt as to the best explanation or solution.

C. Relating a general problem to a local situation often makes originality possible.

D. For more mature students, an original term paper can be composed on the basis of a study of the writings of an author or of the publications of an organization.

E. An incomplete story in current events, presents an opportunity for originality by letting students review the issue and make their own predictions and recommendations.
Evaluation questions are also difficult because they involve two distinct steps. The first is to determine desirable qualities, standards, and values; the second is to determine how closely the idea or object meets these standards. The standards in turn require a knowledge of purpose. Another relevant skill here is the ability to distinguish facts from values and opinions. Once this preliminary knowledge is achieved, students are ready to practice evaluation questions.

One kind of evaluation question is raised by presenting students with a problem situation involving many factors, and which can be solved only by setting up criteria for selecting and ordering these factors. A man setting up a budget would be an example. Controversial issues often fall in the evaluation category since they are based on value differences. Of course, the standards could be given to the students in the form of questions which they would then apply to the object under question. This is what happens when students are given instructions for evaluating a book. What could be stated with reference to every category of questions applies most forcefully in the evaluation area--this type of question is not possible without a sound basis in knowledge. This is not to suggest that somehow extensive knowledge must be learned before it is applied. It simply means that neither knowledge nor intellectual process can survive without the other.

If knowledge is a prerequisite for higher operations, and if the acquisition of knowledge is not in itself a separate stage in the process of learning, then how and when is it to be learned? There are
four principles which can partly answer this question and avoid the
painful learning by rote:

... In the first place, it has been shown that
information can be acquired at the same time that
students are learning to solve problems ...

A second suggestion is to select only important
information as worthy of remembering.

A third suggestion is to set up situations in which
the intensity of impression of the information will
increase the likelihood of remembering these important
items.

A fourth suggestion is to use these important items
of information frequently and in varied contexts.\textsuperscript{139}

In a very real sense, we may consider the reflective approach to
social studies teaching as revolving around the proper use of ques-
tions. It is not the purpose of this study to relate question types
to particular situations, but only to expose the possibilities for
improving foreign language teaching through greater use of questions.

It has been reported, for example, that questions may serve the follow-
ing objectives:

1. To find out something one did not know.
2. To find out whether someone knows something.
3. To develop the ability to think.
4. To motivate pupil learning.
5. To provide drill or practice.
6. To help pupils organize materials.
7. To help pupils interpret materials.
8. To emphasize important points.
9. To show relationships, such as cause and effect.
10. To discover pupil interests.
11. To develop appreciation.
12. To provide review.
13. To give practice in expression.
14. To reveal mental processes.
15. To show agreement or disagreement.
16. To establish rapport with pupils.
17. To diagnose.
18. To evaluate.
19. To obtain the attention of wandering minds.

Good questions are clear, succinct, thought-provoking, and, above all, adapted to the students for whom intended. Moreover, different question types call for different approaches. Fact questions demand brief answers; thought questions require reflection and sustained answers. For this reason, they are not recitation questions, but must be built on discussion and significant experience. This is another way of saying that questions must be carefully planned.

One strategy for effecting group-thinking in the classroom is to ask an open-ended question like "What?" "Why?" "What does it mean?", and then to solicit a number of responses before moving to the second question. This permits responses on a variety of levels of abstraction and complexity and establishes a variety of thought models. Hilda Taba describes this process as "extending thought" on a given level. It has the value of allowing a sufficient amount of assimilation of information before changing to another level of thinking (via another
question). Similarly, group-thinking benefits when questions are planned so that the level of thought is gradually lifted, culminating perhaps in a generalization.

Despite the importance and attractiveness of higher-level questions, teachers dare not underestimate the necessary foundations for their use. Above all, a teacher must be steeped in his subject matter; he must know "the big working ideas." Polished textbooks discourage thinking. Therefore, the teacher must have examples of a principle from sources other than the text. He must have several examples of each principle to be presented in different ways and to be used with students of varying abilities. Often the teacher must give the factual information in order to have time for the thinking operations. Finally, he must realize that activities selected from a cognitive taxonomy can provide no assurance that students will want to participate in the learning experience. In brief, he must provide the whole stimulus that comes from beyond any cognitive classification of behaviors.

E. Organizational Strategies

1. The Carnegie Format

The Carnegie social studies materials provide students of methodology with an approach that illustrates many of the modern themes in curriculum development. The student manuscript consists of a series of integrated daily readings rather than a uniform textbook. A unit is organized around a single issue which is learned inductively in that students are expected to reach their own conclusions from the material presented. The completed course includes material to be used with the
overhead projector, a number of tapes, a few films, and "a little" programmed learning. With respect to coverage, classes study economic and political systems other than the American system to a much greater degree than usual. Formal classes meet only four days per week, with the fifth day devoted to committee work on projects, to independent analysis, and/or to individual remedial work with the teacher.

The organization of each unit appears the utmost in simplicity. The first reading (found in every unit) entitled "Stating the Issue" sets forth the purpose of the unit without revealing specific conclusions which may emerge from the readings. Each reading within a unit is preceded by an introduction which relates the reading to other readings in the course and supplies essential background information. This is followed by study questions to focus attention on the important points of the reading in preparation for classroom discussion, and finally, by the article itself, which contributes a few major ideas about a subject. Each lesson also contains a glossary and occasional supplementary readings. Both objective and essay-type questions are used.

In the teacher's manual, lesson plans are outlined with the following components:

Subject objectives: To know that ---------------

Skill objectives: This is always a code reference to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (cognitive domain).

Materials:

Procedures:

Audio-visual aids (if any):
After the appearance of *Comparative Economic Systems* (ninth-grade materials), the first of the Carnegie materials, the following self-criticism was reported:

1. The curriculum guide did not state all the facts and generalizations which had to be learned by the students.

2. Bloom's cognitive levels were not applied to specific activities.

3. Objectives were not stated behaviorally.

4. Questions often did not require open-ended reflective responses. Too often there was "a right answer."

5. The problems used in the small-group work were too remote from student background to be meaningful.

The preceding evaluation was included here to show the limitations of even the most current social studies projects. Actually, in the second set of materials, *Comparative Political Systems* (tenth grade), the format was kept, but greater care was exercised in the development of the units.

2. The Developmental Lesson Plan

According to the New York City guide, the developmental lesson plan is unique in at least three respects: "its aims are usually achieved within a single class session; the aim, formulated as a problem, and its subordinate concepts are developed principally through challenging questions rather than through other pivotal devices; and the accent is on social interaction among pupils engaged in a cooperative endeavor to find solutions to problems."

In a developmental lesson plan, there is only one primary focus (aim), and it is usually recorded in the form of a problem, the solution to which is evolved through the logical presentation, organization
and analysis of data. Where the unit teaching method (the resource unit) relies on a wide variety of pivotal measures (techniques), the aim in the developmental lesson plan is usually achieved through the developmental questioning technique.

After determining the aim, the next step in planning is to make a simple outline of the content, limited to five or six items. One way to avoid encyclopedic listing is to use categories like the following: "political, social, economic, religious; immediate and fundamental; causes and results; legislative, executive, judicial; acts, provisions, group benefited."

Following the outline comes the pivotal device called "motivation." In the thinking of the New York City social studies specialists, the motivation must serve three purposes: "to enhance interest and create a desire to solve the problem; to clarify and elicit the aim of the lesson; and to evoke a number of pupil responses that serve as a basis for further discussion." Recommended sources of motivation are quotations, source materials, anecdotes, visual materials, newspaper headlines, dramatizations, public opinion polls, poetry, and especially, carefully-worded pivotal questions. After the motivation, content is listed side by side with pivotal questions (subordinate questions) organized logically so that a concept may be built up gradually and sequentially.

While the first question relates to the motivation, the second series of questions should address themselves to student responses to the first question. The similarity to directed discussion is now striking. There is a series of questions for each concept and a series
of summary questions to clinch the solution to the problem. This might be followed by an application phase in which the material learned is used to form a broader generalization (or hypothesis) or is in some way related to past knowledge and experience.

In the unfolding of the plan, the specialists stress pupil participation through careful construction of questions, unobstrusive corrections, wide distribution of questions and the practice of turning pupil questions back to the class whenever they are relevant.

A developmental lesson plan for foreign language classes will be illustrated in Chapter V.

3. The Multi-Text Approach

One variation of the problem-solving approach to social studies is known as the multi-text method. This is simply a name for problem-solving with an emphasis on the use of more than one text. The rationale for this method is that different texts in the same subject usually contain almost the same basic factual content but varying interpretations of the facts. Sometimes there are great differences in interpretation. If a teacher can find a number of texts with differing philosophical points of view, he will have a body of data that can be made to illustrate a topic or problem in a variety of ways. The study of causal relations in history offer strong examples of differing interpretations. In some cases the interpretations will differ so widely as to obscure the basic facts.

It would seem that there are two requirements for this approach. The unit must start with other more common techniques like an initiating activity, discussion and identification of a problem. It is only after
a problem has been identified that the comparative study begins. In other words, it evolves from a problems approach. Also, the nuances of opinion must not exceed the powers of perception of the students. If the material is carefully screened and related to the abilities and interests of the class, it might well serve to develop the sensitivity for multiple sources of evidence which lies at the center of critical thinking.

A brief multi-text unit will be outlined in Chapter V.

4. The Case Study Approach

According to one state social studies supervisor, the case study method is the most successful of the newer methods in that generally teachers have little difficulty using it effectively. This is significant in view of the widespread criticism that social studies teachers generally do not implement the inquiry objectives which they profess so vocally.

The Harvard Social Studies Project operates on the case-study assumption, that intensive study of detailed situations will lead the student toward valid generalizations. The authors of these materials, Fred Newmann and Donald Oliver, state that case studies are employed for at least two general purposes: to illustrate foregone conclusions or to provoke controversy and debate over issues for which "true" conclusions do not yet exist (open-ended issues). Case studies also perform more specific functions. They are used to teach factual information by embedding the facts in a dramatic narrative. By using the suspense or value conflict of a well-told story, they tend to involve students emotionally. They may translate definitions of
key concepts or technical terms like boycott. They may be used for
discovery learning. Or, they may be used to support certain prescrip-
tive or moral lessons. In the Harvard materials their principal func-
tion is to stimulate inquiry by providing data relevant to controversial
historical and factual issues. Answering the questions usually raises
difficult definitional or policy issues. There is generally no correct
answer. Rather, the student is taught to analyze various positions
before taking a position and justifying it rationally. Moreover, stu-
dents are evaluated, not on the mastery of substantive truth, but on
the production of reasonable justifications for their positions.

As we inspect the various styles of case studies, the possibili-
ties for their use increases. Already mentioned is the story, so useful
for the emotional impact. There is also the vignette, which is "a short
concept or slice of experience" without a plot. There is the journal-
istic historical narrative, which "often describes the actions of
institutions as well as individual people." Also, documents may be
used as cases for an idea or point of view, as can research data in
genral. A very common type is the text case study.

The text describes general phenomena and institutional
trends; detail and specifics about individual humans are
included mainly to illustrate generalizations. The text
also explains, by giving definitions, causal theories and
explicit reasons for the occurrence of the events . . . It
presumably offers objective knowledge--information which
the reader accepts at face value, because he assumes it to
be unbiased truth.151

In this sense every textbook can be considered a case study.
Because a text is packaged as objective truth, readers should learn the
skill of comparing texts. The strength of the multi-text approach is
that it teaches the habit of viewing each textual specimen as an individual case study, capable or representing well or poorly a truth, concept, or principle.

Like the text case study, the interpretive essay is more general in nature. Intended as explanation and evaluation, it reaches interpretive conclusions about abstract issues. The tone of such a case study is clearly persuasive.

It is in the nature of case studies to be rooted in particular circumstances. What would happen if the principles for action in one case are applied to another separated in time (historically) and space (geographically and culturally)? Can the rules and customs of life be transferred this way? Are they actually transferred (that is, what are the similarities in time and across cultures?)? These are the questions which make of the case study approach a powerful and useful technique for a variety of content courses. It is from the juxtaposition of differing but similar cases that students can learn to identify moral and social guidelines, and more important, to define the limits within which these principles are to operate.

Applied to foreign language sociocultural material, the case study performs similar functions. Being fashioned from particular circumstances, it shows how cultural differences are translated into behavioral patterns and ideas. Consequently, in using case studies, foreign language teachers ought to insure that students perceive what is being described and the ways in which it differs from what one would expect
in the native culture. Nowhere is the admonition "Know the facts" more essential than in the foreign language class using case study materials. Usually this will mean questions and devices for demonstrating comprehension of the content.

Important as the need for understanding content may be, the process cannot stop there if reflection is to result. Comprehension is an individual process and can be tested accordingly. Progress in reflection is likely only if the students are guided in a discussion of the meaning behind each case. Again the teacher plays a vital role, especially in the foreign language setting. For it is he who must see to it that students can and do use what they know in the foreign language to move the discussion in a relevant direction. He must use far more control than would a native-language social studies teacher, without putting conclusions in the minds of his class. He must give them freedom to speak within their linguistic limitations. He must be a facilitator who anticipates questions, rejoinders, structures and vocabulary, and who has prepared brief remedial exercises to enable students to say what they want to say. He must maintain continuity of thought through the judicious use of oral resumes and directed dialogue exercises. Especially, he must himself understand the foreign language generalization behind the case study and be prepared to ask questions and make comments which will move the class closer to its discovery. Only by knowing the facts and the values underlying them in both cultural systems, will the teacher be able to begin to lead the class toward the discovery of meaningful generalization. Only by knowing
which aspects of the two systems are likely to be perceived with interest by his students will he be able to lead them along the inquiry path.

There is no single procedure associated with the case study approach. After clarifying their perceptions of what the case study is all about, students frequently benefit from the personal question, "If you were --------, what would you have done (believed, felt, etc.)?"

With cases dramatizing cross-cultural differences, the teacher should certainly try to lead students through an analysis of values behind the factual differences. Where the rationale for the foreign viewpoint is subtle, the class may have to limit itself to a description of the visible differences. The teacher could then present an interpretative essay, statement or quotation, which would relate to the case study. Students could then be asked how the particular case illustrates the point in the general statement. The teacher should always provide that which the students cannot reasonably discover for themselves. This is one way of bridging the gap between the concrete and the abstract. Both inductive and deductive approaches should be used in connection with case studies.

The case study approach is vital to the foreign language program. One might even read into the views of Nelson Brooks an identification of this method with the very essence of culture:

There is no reason why the facts of history and geography, the data of economics and sociology, information about and examples drawn from literature and the fine arts should not find their way into the content of language courses to the extent that they do not detract from the principal business at hand: language learning. But until such information has been related to a boy or a girl, a man or a woman with a name, a position in life described, and with a personal interest in
and relations to the facts presented, we are not yet within the territory identified as culture. Whether this person is someone in real life or a character in fiction is not important. What is important is to see an individual relating to the people and the life around him. As long as we provide our students only with the facts of history, or geography, economics or sociology, as long as we provide them only with a knowledge of the sophisticated structures of society such as law and medicine, or examples and appreciative comments on artistic creations such as poems, castles, or oil paintings, we have not yet provided them with an intimate view of where life's action is, where the individual and the social order come together, where self meets life.
CHAPTER V

TECHNIQUES AND STRATEGIES: APPLICATION

This chapter attempts to illustrate important techniques and strategies for advanced foreign language classes in which social or cultural content is expressly taught. It is a series of "Exhibits" covering some of the approaches already described plus one or two necessary skills not treated formally thus far (for example, the skill of notetaking). Each exhibit is an illustration of a social studies strategy, technique, or skill applied to foreign language content.

EXHIBIT A - Notetaking in an advanced foreign language class

If lecture is to remain as a possible technique for transmitting substantive information in social studies and foreign language classes, it becomes imperative for students to learn the skill of notetaking as early as possible. College students often learn to their dismay that this skill does not develop automatically but must be understood and practiced. Notetaking in a foreign language involves the special problem of recognizing key foreign language structures and vocabulary as well as the following general problems of notetaking:

1. The student does not have time to summarize a paragraph the minute the teacher finishes it. Otherwise, he will miss the beginning of the next paragraph.

2. The student has very little time to condense and express the teacher's thought.
3. He does not succeed in eliminating the details in order to grasp the essential ideas.

4. He has not been able to find the typical (standard) expressions to paraphrase an idea by a single word or image.\textsuperscript{153}

To overcome these problems, the following exercises might prove useful:

Exercise 1 Scrambled Outline

Before attempting the active skill of creating an outline for a lecture, students should have practice visualizing ideas as a unified whole. Norris Sanders\textsuperscript{1} "scrambled outline" is a recognition exercise which forces students "to see the forest as well as the trees." As a question type, it falls into the interpretation category.

The following material might be used as a lecture for a scrambled outline:

GRANDS PROBLÈMES -- Le grand obstacle au relèvement de la France depuis 1945 a été la guerre qui pour elle s'est continuée en Indochine et en Algérie. Elle vient enfin de se terminer. Les crédits qu'elle nécessitait sont maintenant employés à bâtir plus de ces logements clairs et pratiques que nous offre l'architecte moderne. Il y a encore une crise du logement en France, causée par la guerre et aussi par la tradition qui veut que le Français ne mette pas pour son loyer plus que dix pour cent de ses revenus; c'est le quart que l'on met en Amérique.

L'alcoolisme est la plaie de bien des pays et en particulier de la France, car le vin, l'alcool, les apéritifs y sont bon marché. Le Français aime bien aller au café; c'est pour lui une sorte de club social et intellectuel. On note pourtant avec plaisir que les jeunes emploient plutôt leur argent à se loger, à acheter une petite voiture, à faire du camping, du ski etc.
Naturellement l'insécurité mondiale pèse sur la France comme sur les autres nations. Ses jeunes gens sont obligés de faire un service militaire de dix-huit mois; des sommes folles sont dépensées pour faire exploser des bombes atomiques et envoyer des satellites dans l'espace alors qu'on en a tant besoin pour découvrir un remède efficace contre les maladies de cœur, le cancer et même le rhume ordinaire.154

After hearing the lecture, students would be given a sheet containing these directions:

The following ideas from the lecture fit logically into the outline below:

I y a une crise du logement causée par la guerre.
L'alcoolisme est la plaie de la France.
L’insécurité mondiale pèse sur la France.
Le grand obstacle au relèvement de la France a été la guerre.
Le vin, l'alcool, les apéritifs sont bon marché.
Les jeunes gens sont obligés de faire un service militaire.
Le français aime aller au café.
La guerre vient de se terminer.
Des sommes folles sont dépensées pour des bombes et des satellites.

Blank outline: Grands Problèmes

I
A
B

II
A
B

III
A
B
When completed, the outline should look as follows:

I - Le grand obstacle au relèvement de la France a été la guerre.
   A. La guerre vient de se terminer.
   B. Il y a une crise du logement causée par la guerre.

II - L'alcoolisme est la plaie de la France.
   A. Le vin, l'alcool, les apéritifs sont bon marché.
   B. Le français aime aller au café.

III - L'insécurité mondiale pèse sur la France.
   A. Les jeunes gens sont obligés de faire un service militaire.
   B. Des sommes folles sont dépensées pour des bombes et des satellites.

In reviewing the scrambled outline exercise, and indeed all notetaking exercises, the teacher should allow and encourage students "to use their own words" and short forms in recording notes, provided there is a consistent pattern of using authentic French phraseology. Thus, if a student prefers to express "le grand obstacle au relèvement de la France a été la guerre" by "Le grand obstacle--la guerre," the thought should be considered functionally expressed. Similarly, in a notetaking exercise, "Elle vient de se terminer" might well become "Elle est finie" or any other authentic sequence of French words expressing the idea.

Notes are at least as significant by what is left out as by what is included. The parenthetical information about the role of tradition in creating the housing shortage does not relate directly to "la guerre" and should not be accepted in an exercise identifying main ideas.
One final point should be made with reference to notetaking. If students are to think in the foreign language, then all notes should be written in the foreign language rather than in English. Otherwise, we can expect to find an inordinate amount of time spent on translation and an insufficient amount of attention to foreign language sound sequences.

Exercise 2

This is an exercise in which students are presented isolated spoken sentences expressing a thought. They are instructed to record the thought by paraphrase or by recording the single-word images capable of carrying the thought. Because the sentences are out of context, the teacher would do well to explain the general topic of each thought without giving away the specific relationships expressed in the sentence.

Model Sentences:

1. Topic: Le dix-huitième siècle

   Le développement de l'esprit scientifique et critique amena une réaction contre la tradition et l'autorité.

   Possible paraphrase: L'esprit scientifique-réaction contre l'autorité.

2. Topic: Blaise Pascal, célèbre auteur du 17e siècle

   Blaise Pascal fut un homme de science, mais la science n'était pas assez pour lui.

   Possible paraphrase: Pascal fut plus qu'un scientiste.

3. Topic: L'agriculture française

   Les produits agricoles les plus importants sont les céréales, les pommes de terre, le lait (y compris le beurre et le fromage) et le vin.

   Possible paraphrase: Produits--céréales, pommes de terre, le lait, et le vin.
Of course there will be many variations in student notes. The important concerns are that the student paraphrase be in fact a shorter, simplified version of the original communication and that it use recognizable authentic French sequences of words, although not necessarily sentences.

Exercise 3

In the remaining notetaking exercises only the steps will be listed. It is felt that these techniques will be clear enough without further applications.

Step 1. The teacher or resource person records a short lecture with simple vocabulary organized around a strict outline.

Step 2. The teacher plays the lecture for the class while both teacher and students take notes.

Step 3. The teacher writes his notes on the chalkboard.

Step 4. Differences between teacher and student notes are compared.

(Note: When recording, the teacher paces the lectures to the listening abilities of his students. Speed can be gradually increased. If necessary, the teacher stops the machine to give students a chance to catch up.)

Exercise 4

This exercise is the same as 3, except that the teacher has prepared his outline in advance and presents it on a transparency, using an overhead projector.
Exercise 5

Step 1. A teacher or resource person records a slightly longer, slightly more difficult lecture organized around a strict outline.

Step 2. The teacher plays the tape once while students note obscure terms and unfamiliar vocabulary. The first playing is followed by questions on the unfamiliar vocabulary, which the teacher has anticipated.

Step 3. The teacher plays the tape a second time while students note the main idea, which is subsequently identified through discussion.

Step 4. The teacher plays tape again while students enumerate the main parts developing the idea. They too are identified through discussion.

Step 5. The teacher provides a text of the lecture. Students underline with pen key words expressing the main idea. Their choice of words is discussed.

Step 6. Students are instructed to underline key words in each sub-part with pencil. Choice of words is discussed.

Exercise 6

Step 1. The teacher or resource person records a moderately difficult lecture organized around a strict outline.
Step 2. The teacher plays the tape once for general understanding. The first playing is followed by questions on unfamiliar vocabulary.

Step 3. The teacher plays the tape a second time while students take notes on the main idea, which is afterward identified through discussion.

Step 4. Students are then given an outline containing the main idea but with spaces left for the sub-parts. There is, however, no indication as to how the sub-parts are to be developed.

Step 5. During the third playing, the tape is stopped after each part and the students identify the essential idea and the significant facts. They write in the sub-parts and underline key words.

Step 6. The teacher gives the class fifteen minutes to note the views which contradict or corroborate their own personal views. He collects the outlines and corrects them individually. An alternative to this would be for the students to present their views orally.

Exercise 7

Step 1. The teacher or resource person records a lecture of moderate difficulty.

Step 2. Students listen to the first playing without taking notes.
Step 3. During the second playing the students take notes and identify the main idea and the sub-parts.

Step 4. The teacher collects the notes and corrects them individually.

Step 5. After reporting to the class on their general progress, the teacher returns the papers for small-group discussion of corrections. During the discussions the teacher circulates around the room asking judicious questions to determine whether understanding of the outline is complete.

Exercise 8

Step 1. The teacher or resource person records a lecture of moderate difficulty.

Step 2. The teacher plays the tape and the students take notes.

Step 3. The students exchange papers or divide into small groups to correct each other's outlines. The teacher must occasionally remind the group of the main idea, the outline, and the need to limit parenthetical information. When uncertainties arise, the tape is at the disposal of the class.

Step 4. Teachers and students discuss the lecture.

It should be pointed out that the above exercises do not represent a strict sequence which must be followed to the letter. They are merely suggestions. Also, tapes should always be available so that students might practice in the language laboratory. It would seem that the last
two exercises are especially important for encouraging self-evaluation and social interaction. It would also seem logical that if a number of exercises is to be employed, the content should be varied and the exercises spaced out to avoid monotony. Moreover, students should eventually learn to work with lectures that are not logically designed. Ideally, practice in notetaking should emerge as part of the normal content learning in the classroom. However, lectures for notetaking exercises should probably not exceed five minutes because of the intensive concentration required and the need for re-playing the material.

EXHIBIT B - Directed Discussion in a Foreign Language Class

To illustrate the possible development of a foreign language directed discussion, let us take a short reading passage and reflect upon the kinds of questions a teacher might actually use and the kinds of decisions he might be called on to make.

Désignant le stand de la General Motors au Salon de l'automobile, M. Pierre Dreyfus, président directeur générale de la Régie Renault, disait au général de Gaulle:

---'Monsieur le président, voilà l'ennemi . . .'

---'Monsieur le directeur, il y a vingt ans que je le dis,' répondit le président de la République.'155

Even before this communication is presented to the class, the teacher must decide upon the point to be discussed. This is his initial activity. As mentioned in Chapter IV, directed discussion may lead students to induce a concept or to become involved in discussion of a controversy. Relating the directed discussion to a particular objective is the first decision of the teacher.
Let us assume that in this instance the teacher wants to use a directed discussion primarily to expose student feelings about the French people, and President De Gaulle in particular, as an introduction to a study of French foreign policy. That is, he wants to involve students in discussion of a controversial topic. If it be objected at this point that there are not many controversial topics in foreign language study, we might reply with the statement of Massialas and Cox about controversial questions, "the position taken in this book is that many questions are noncontroversial simply because no one has studied them in a probing way that identifies alternatives."156

After the point for discussion has been selected, the second task for the teacher is to choose an appropriate activity to initiate the discussion. In most cases this will mean presenting students with a short reading passage, recording, or lecture. The initiating activity may include any of the devices already listed as "motivations" in the developmental lesson plan approach. Initiating activities may be unusual devices, but this is not necessary if students are genuinely interested in the subject being learned. There is no firm rule to follow in choosing an initiating activity.

In our illustration, the brief dialogue between the French businessman and General DeGaulle appears to offer an easy sample of reading containing a summary expression of one tension in Franco-American relations. It is, moreover, reported with a wry humor that makes it more attractive. Nevertheless, these few lines of dialogue contain possibilities for expansion into a social-political-economic unit.
Directed discussion must be based on knowledge of a factual situation. Therefore, the teacher must be sure that his students understand what they have read or heard. His third set of decisions will pertain to testing that knowledge. Thus, with any particular group he might ask himself the following questions:

1. Are the structures and lexical items in this reading (or recording) ones with which the students are familiar?

2. If not, are there any structures or lexical items which will prevent students from understanding the communication?

3. If so, are these items best clarified through use of (a) a footnote, (b) an oral explanation, (c) a drill, (d) an audio-visual aid, (e) a combination of these?

4. If a drill or exercise is called for because the item is within the active inventory of the foreign language program, should it be done (a) before the exercise begins (b) after the reading and explanation but before the directed discussion begins (c) after the directed discussion has begun?

5. At what points will re-entry of these "active items" probably occur? Through what means? Teacher statement? Teacher questions? Directed dialogue? Teacher resume of the discussion? Student resumes? Student generalizations based on the discussion?

6. What is the important information in the communication?

7. How can I word a question which elicits this information and which is not too difficult for the class?

8. Is this information brief enough to be elicited orally or would a self-corrected written quiz be more effective?

In the above reading a teacher might decide upon three oral questions to test understanding:

1. Quelle sorte de travail fait M. Pierre Dreyfus?

2. Qui est l'ennemi?

3. Pourquoi?
It may be noted that the last question involves more than recognition of stated facts because the student is required to "read between the lines." It is thus an interpretation question, but nonetheless necessary to test student understanding of the dialogue.

The fourth area of responsibility for the teacher is one which must cover two contingencies. Ideally, a directed discussion should start with student questions and rejoinders spontaneously made. In this case, the teacher simply anticipates student reactions and then sits by passively until his presence is needed to reorient the discussion. This pattern of behavior is certainly to be expected once the class is accustomed to the technique. However, while this technique is still new to the class, the teacher will probably want to prepare a statement or a question to start the discussion in the direction he wants. If he decides to use a question, he will have to decide between a general or a specific one. In our illustration, he might select "Que pensez-vous de ce dialogue?" with a class that is competent in speaking and sensitive to deeper levels of meaning. In a somewhat slower class he might use "Pourquoi le général De Gaulle n'aime-t-il pas les Américains?" He might make a provocative statement like "Ce dialogue prouve que De Gaulle est l'ennemi des Etats-Unis. Etes-vous d'accord?"

At this stage the important criterion for evaluating the learning situation is the extent of participation by the class.

The crucial problem to be anticipated in a foreign language setting concerns the inability of students to say what they want to say. Of course substantive cannot be taught to students who do not
have at least a "good" rating on standardized tests. But given this
minimal ability, students will still need occasional cues from the
teacher if the discussion is to keep moving. **Sustaining the conver-
sation is the fifth role for the teacher in directed discussion.** The
teacher should therefore have in reserve a number of "Est-ce que" and
"Est-ce que---ou---" questions to pick up the tempo of the discussion
once it starts to falter. Meiden and Murphy have created a design for
classroom discussion which starts with these two question types. 157

In a directed discussion the teacher provides periodic summaries
of ideas expressed. **This is his sixth area of responsibility.** It is
even more important in a foreign language situation because of the
concentration required to follow immediate utterances. In summarizing,
the teacher may do it himself orally by saying something like "Revoyons
maintenant ce que vous avez dit. Jean a dit (affirmé) que ------------.
Marie croit que ------------. Et Lucien n'est pas d'accord parce
que ------------." He may also list key ideas on the chalkboard (which
would also be an indirect lesson in notetaking). Or, in a very strong
class, he may delegate the summaries to one or more students. At some
point in the discussion there should be a written record of views so
that the class may compare changes in thinking as the unit develops.
In most cases this will be the responsibility of the teacher. When
summarizing, the teacher should not hesitate to provide summary adject-
ives and verbs that characterize what the students have said and
thought. When related to a personal expression of thought, the likeli-
hood that they will be remembered is greatly increased.
Another vital role the teacher must play is to ask probing questions. It is also a delicate role because if the teacher appears too argumentative, the discussion will break down. Teacher rejoinders that might apply to our discussion are the following:

Episode 1:

Student: De Gaulle est un ingrat.
Teacher: Pourquoi?
Student: Parce qu'il a reçu tant d'aide américaine et maintenant il nous chasse.

Episode 2:

Student: De Gaulle est fou.
Teacher: Que voulez-vous dire par "fou?"
Student: Il ne sait pas ce qu'il fait.

Episode 3:

Student: Les français nous détestent mais ils prennent notre argent.
Teacher: Est-ce que nous prenons leur argent aussi?
C'est à dire, est-ce qu'ils achètent des produits américains?
Student: Ils prennent plus qu'ils n'achètent.

It is clear that episode one is a statement of value that hinges on one's definition of "ingrat." Such a proposition would be difficult to test through the reflective method, that is empirically. The student has, however, been forced to examine the reason for his prejudice, and that is perhaps all that a social studies class can accomplish for some individuals. The second episode has resulted in a definition of "fou" which, if conceded by the teacher, could form the hypothesis on which a
study of French foreign policy might proceed. In this case the hypothesis would entail a search for facts to answer the question: "Is there a logical basis for De Gaulle's behavior or doesn't he know what he is doing?"

The third episode could either form a similar hypothesis to be examined by the class based on common readings or could become an individual project for a few students, if the unit were planned to move in another direction. It too is a dispute over a factual issue.

In reacting to all student rejoinders, the teacher must be prepared to refer to or present additional materials, and in this respect he is a resource specialist. It is a tragic waste that interesting materials organized around social and cultural topics are not available for use in the schools. Thus, we must warn the teacher not to entertain or encourage questions for which at least some evidence is available. To do so would be to take a class away from the goal of reflection.

The final task of the teacher is to guide students in the production of a summary (if no concept has been taught) or a generalization, if the purpose of the directed dialogue was to teach a concept. In our illustration, different situations might prevail. Most probably students will simply express dislike for De Gaulle and confusion over his policies. In a real foreign language classroom a testable hypothesis might or might not have emerged. Since the purpose of this directed discussion was simply to involve students in discussion of a controversial topic as an introduction to a related study (French foreign policy), it does not really matter. Without a testable
EXHIBIT C - An Open-Textbook Lesson: Fact versus opinion in foreign language reading

Objective: To teach the skill of separating fact from opinion in foreign language news reporting through a self-teaching approach

Procedures:

1. Students will receive a study guide for the day which will include:
   a. A definition of the critical reading skill they will be practicing.
   b. Examples of facts and opinions.
   c. Thought questions based on the examples.
   d. A reprint of the news article to be analyzed.
   e. Classroom exercises.
   f. A second article for homework practice.

2. Teacher will make a brief statement describing the general content of the article and stating its interest for the American reader.

3. Teacher will read the article aloud while students follow visually.
4. Students work on the assignment individually while the teacher circulates and observes progress. Students are free to direct questions to the teacher or to another student, but an atmosphere of seriousness is required. As he circulates, the teacher asks questions from the study guide and provides help as needed.

5. Shortly before the end of class, teacher and students review the assignment.

6. The class is directed to apply what they have learned to the homework assignment.

7. The next day the assignment is reviewed and a decision is made whether to continue formal practice in the skill.

Study Guide:

Date--April 8, 1968

Grade--12

Skill--The ability to distinguish between an author's factual statements and his interpretation or opinion.

Examples:

Fact--(1) M. Stokley Carmichael est arrivé au Caire.

(2) Après quatre jours de cessez-le-feu les troupes chinoises et indiennes échangent leurs morts.

(3) Un journaliste américain accuse le président Johnson d'avoir "torpillé" une possibilité de discussion avec Hanoï.
(4) Les ministres des finances d'Afrique noire francophone se réunissent à Dakar.

(5) Pour la première fois depuis le 5 juin dernier, l'hebdomadaire Paris Match a été mis en vente samedi à Alger.

Opinion (1) L'Institut Gallup estime que la montée de la popularité de M. Rockefeller est le fait politique le plus important depuis plusieurs semaines.

(2) Pour la majorité des observateurs, il est peu probable que le nouvel appel du secrétaire général de l'O.N.U. soit suivi d'effet à brève échéance.

(3) Aux yeux du secrétaire général de l'O.N.U., une négociation entre Washington et Hanoi aurait seulement pour but de "faciliter la participation des Vietnamiens à l'élaboration de leur propre destin."

(4) La liberté explose à l'est.

(5) Londres, cette cité né de l'eau, si belle dans l'air froid qui porte déjà les promesses du printemps, semblait la semaine dernière, à la fois frivole et accablée.

Questions based on the Examples:

(1) In the fact sentences 1, 2, 4, and 5, what do all the verbs have in common? (action, describe an event etc.)

(2) In sentence 3 the writer states a fact, but there is also an opinion. What is the fact? What is the opinion?

(3) The underlined words in the opinion sentences 1, 2, 4, and 5 are responsible for the sentences being opinions. Why?

(4) In sentence 3 the verb "explose" is an action verb. Why does it not express a fact here?
In the following sentence there is both an opinion and a fact. Can you distinguish the two?

On trouve de tout dans les partis communistes et il serait imprudent de généraliser.

On what basis did you select the opinion part? (the conditional tense)

Reading: "Vietnam: Le plan en sept parties du général de Gaulle" par Raymond Tournoux--Paris Match

Le grand dessein de 'l'indépendance nationale' reste évidemment celui qui domine sans cesse les préoccupations du général de Gaulle. Le voyage en U.R.S.S. de M. Alain Peyrefitte, ministre délégué, chargé de la recherche scientifique, la mise au point d'accords de coopération franco-soviétiques, les projets laborieux et difficiles concernant la collaboration en matière spatiale, révèle le souci gaulliste d'essayer de contrebalancer, autant que faire se peut, la puissance américaine sur le plan technique.

Sur le Vietnam, de Gaulle a précisé ce qui pourrait tenir lieu de plan en sept points.

---Arrêt de combats; engagement de départ de toutes les troupes étrangères pour une date fixe (dans un délai de deux ans); négociation en vue du retour à une conférence internationale du type Genève; établissement de contrôles rigoureux au Vietnam-Nord et au Vietnam-Sud; interdiction de toute ingérence; engagement par les deux Vietnam de respecter une politique de stricte neutralité; maintien des deux Vietnam pendant une période indéterminée, le problème de la réunification relevant exclusivement d'Hanoï et de Saigon; signature d'un traité international par les grandes puissances et les pays directement intéressés.

A Paris tout comme à Washington devant le Président Johnson, M. Couve de Murville a expliqué que plus le temps s'écoulerait, plus le danger grandirait de voir s'établir à Saigon un gouvernement communiste. Un risque existe, a-t-il dit, mais ce risque n'est pas encore tout à fait inéluctable. Selon le ministre des Affaires étrangères, des différences assez sérieuses existent entre le Nord et le Sud, sur le plan historique, économique etc., pour permettre de penser que 'le gouvernement du Sud ne serait pas le même que le gouvernement du Nord.'
Au fond de ces analyses se retrouve une idée de base, à savoir que l'époque est révolue, du monolithisme communiste. Illusion pour d'autres, l'espoir du général de Gaulle demeure celui-ci: débarrassés du conflit, Hanoi et Ho Chi-minh retrouveraient rapidement la voie de leur indépendance par rapport à la Chine.

Class Assignment:

(1) Est-ce que la phrase "l'indépendance nationale domine les préoccupations du général de Gaulle" est (a) un fait ou (b) une opinion? Réponse -------------(une opinion)

(2) Le voyage de M. Alain Peyrefitte est:  
(a) un fait (b) une opinion Réponse ----------(un fait)

(3) Les sept points du général de Gaulle représentent: 
(a) un fait (b) une opinion Réponse ----------(un fait)

(4) L'explication de M. Couve de Murville au Président Johnson est: 
(a) un fait (b) une opinion Réponse ----------(une opinion)

(5) Où sont les opinions dans le dernier paragraphe?

(6) Enumérez tous les mots dans cet article qui introduisent une opinion.

(7) Est-ce que cet article est plutôt informationnel ou interprétatif? Pourquoi?
EXHIBIT D - From Dialogues to Role-Playing

For students in advanced foreign language classes who are thoroughly familiar with forms of address, basic structures, a wide range of vocabulary (at least Le Français Fondamental), it should be possible to convert some cultural, social or historical information into a brief dialogue illustrating a practical situation. It would seem crucial, however, that any group attempting such an exercise should possess two vital characteristics. First their language skill development must be at a level where conversational expressions and basic (Level I and Level II) structures are used regularly and automatically. Translating ideas conceived in a native-language framework will not produce any meaningful simulation. Second, role-playing must be viewed as a possible culminating activity to be used only after a cultural (or social or historical) concept has been recognized and generalized through case-study learning.

With these requirements met, it might be possible to allow students to place themselves in a situation where the knowledge could (or perhaps had to) be applied. Of course, no simulation by non-natives could ever come close enough to reality to satisfy a native observer. A foreign language teacher, however, may have other objectives in mind by permitting the class to play this game. If they succeed in setting
up a situation which is essentially correct (for example, in the kinds of transactions one might expect in a French drugstore), but not accurate in the language used, they have at least assimilated information which might have slipped away as "just another fact." Actually, if the teacher works individually with groups preparing a skit or simulated experience, he can teach much language which the class might not have encountered under normal circumstances. In fact, role-playing cannot be useful for foreign language classes unless the teacher works with the students while they are preparing their roles. Finally, role-playing affords advanced classes a rare opportunity to use the language again in a more natural situation than is usually found in content-oriented classes.

Role-playing is most frequently based upon narrative or descriptive content. Roles have a factual basis. Therefore, the first teacher responsibility in setting up a simulated learning experience would be to identify narrative or descriptive material containing authentic and interesting cultural roles. Some cultural readers are better for this purpose than are others. Let us illustrate the process of conversion by selecting a passage from Laurence Wylie's *Le Village en Vaucluse*:

Le Café, Terrain Neutre

Tandis que la famille offre à chacun de ses membres ses distractions et ses travaux, le café demeure à peu près le seul endroit où les gens peuvent se distraire en public.

Ce n'est d'ailleurs pas la seule fonction du café. Spécialisé dans la vente des boissons, alcooliques ou non, le café, ici, est en même temps un 'tabac.' C'est à dire que le gouvernement l'autorise à vendre tous les articles dont il a le monopole: allumettes, briquets, cigarettes,
tabac, timbres-poste, etc. Mais le café est avant tout un lieu public où tout le monde entre librement, pour se reposer ou se rafraîchir. Pour y discuter d'une affaire, en privé et sans être dérangé, il y a toujours une table tranquille.

Tant de gens de tous les milieux fréquentent le café, tant d'histoires s'y racontent, et tant de nouvelles y circulent qu'il devient tout naturellement une sorte de bureau de renseignements. Le secrétaire de mairie y passe deux fois chaque jour. Le docteur y prend l'apéritif toutes les fois qu'il s'arrête au village. Les habitants éloignés de la commune, qui ne viennent à Peyrane que pour affaires sérieuses, y entrent toujours dire bonjour au cafetier et à sa femme; ils prennent un verre et ils donnent des nouvelles de leur secteur. Le facteur y laisse les commissions orales dont il a été chargé au cours de sa tournée. Et ainsi le cafetier et sa femme se trouvent-ils être informés de tout ce qui se passe dans la commune. 159

After teaching a unit on "Le Café", preferably using several kinds of materials, a teacher might return to the above passage and consider its possibilities for role-playing in the following way.

What behavioral information is reported here? The first paragraph mentions "se distraire" (amusement), but this is too general to be of much help. The second paragraph enumerates functions that are much more specific. There is, of course, "la vente des boissons" (sale of drinks). But the café is also a "tabac" (tobacco shop), and this certainly sets it apart from the American bar. However, if this information is to be of practical significance, students will have to know something about the kinds of cigarettes and tobacco sold in a café. Therefore we might furnish the class with a distinction between "cigarettes américaines" et "les gauloises." At this point in the planning it is beginning to become clear that students will need at least three types of information before they can begin writing a
dialogue. They will need a roster of possible players or characters. They will need a list of functions or action words introduced by a verb, to suggest the kinds of things the players can do in the foreign culture. They will also need a descriptive reference list or body of information suggesting things that the players might talk about. When role-playing is first introduced, the teacher himself will have to provide these aids. Students might eventually select their own resource materials. Returning to our illustration, the teacher might prepare the following aid for his class:

**Actions that take place at a café**

1. Vendre des boissons, alcooliques ou non
2. Vendre des allumettes, des briquets
3. Vendre des cigarettes, du tabac
4. Vendre des timbres-poste
5. Rencontrer n'importe qui
6. Trouver une table tranquille
7. Raconter des histoires
8. Dire bonjour au cafetier et à sa femme
9. Prendre un apéritif
10. Jouer aux boules
11. Jouer aux cartes (à la manille, à la belote)
12. Voir un film
13. Echanger des patins (gossip) locaux
14. Se renseigner
15. Offrir une tournée
People who frequent the café

1. Le secrétaire de mairie
2. Le docteur
3. Le communiste locale
4. Le maire
5. Le "réguliers"
6. Les habitants éloignés qui reviennent de temps en temps
7. Un étranger
8. Le facteur
9. Un homme du village (membre d'un cercle d'amis)
10. Un petit garçon qui cherche son père

Useful information

1. Une gauloise—une cigarette française, beaucoup plus forte que les cigarettes américaines et le plus bon marché des cigarettes françaises

2. Boissons: une fine (brandy), un apéritif (un "cocktail" que se boit le plus souvent de midi à une heure et de six heures à sept heures); pastis (boisson de couleur laiteuse, au parfum d'anis, assez doux, l'apéritif le plus populaire du Midi)

3. Les boules—un jeu où chaque joueur à son tour lance une boule de bois (le bouchon) dans n'importe quelle direction et puis lance une boule d'acier aussi proche du bouchon que possible. Toutes les boules plus proches du "bouchon" que celles de l'autre équipe gagnent chacun un point.

4. La manille—un jeu de cartes où le "10" appelé "manille" est la forte carte.

5. La belote—le jeu de cartes le plus populaire en France.

Equipped with this and other specific information, students are guided in their choice of content and expression for simulated experiences. Imaginative students will certainly want to include information
learned in other units, provided the role-playing exercise is treated by the teacher as a serious learning experience. If it is, dialogues will be carefully prepared, practiced, and evaluated.

Classes less developed in language proficiency will need more guidance in preparing a simulated experience. If we think of simulation (role-playing) as a model or scaled-down replica of reality (which it is), the teacher can be viewed as someone who provides more or fewer parts for the model. Another technique for bringing control to the game is the use of questions which when answered will form the basis for a conversation. For example:

1. Comment est-ce qu'on commande des cigarettes dans un café?
2. Quelle réponse le cafetier pourrait-il y faire?
3. Quelle réponse le client pourrait-il faire ensuite?
4. Comment est-ce qu'on accueille un ami?
5. Comment est-ce qu'on l'invite à sa table pour partager les potins locaux?
6. Quels potins pourrait-on lui dire?
7. Comment pourrait-il réagir à ces potins?
8. Quels boissons pourrait-on commander?
9. Pour quelle raison pourrait-on prendre congé de cet ami?
10. Quand pourraient-ils se retrouver?

We might think of these as undirected questions to which a student might answer with relative free choice. For students who have never
written a dialogue before, the teacher might want to go so far as to stipulate the content of the message in a series of steps resembling directed dialogue. For example:

1. M. Fouquet entre dans le café, retrouve son ami, le docteur Jibelin et l'invite à prendre un apéritif.
2. Le docteur refuse l'apéritif mais commande un café.
4. Le docteur accepte.
5. M. Fouquet l'interroge au sujet de sa femme qui rend visite à une sœur aux États-Unis.
6. Le docteur Jibelin lui répond qu'elle est assez contente mais qu'elle se plaint de la nourriture.
7. M. Fouquet parle de son séjour à New York où on lui a volé tout son argent dans le métro.
8. Le docteur Jibelin se décrit comme "célibataire" et il l'invite à un jeu de belote ce-soir-là.

It may be argued that when controlled to this extent, role-playing loses its creativity and therefore its synthesizing characteristics. What is being suggested here is simply that the steps from
foreign language dialogues to role-playing can be placed along a continuum, each point of which characterizes a given level of language proficiency. Schematically, it might appear thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Changes</th>
<th>Person, No., Tense Changes</th>
<th>Lexical Changes (open-ended)</th>
<th>Lexical &amp; Structural Changes (open-ended)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dial.</td>
<td>Directed</td>
<td>Directed</td>
<td>Directed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dial.₁</td>
<td>Dial.₂</td>
<td>Dial.₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical &amp; Structural &amp; Genre Changes</td>
<td>Questions &amp; Lexical Changes</td>
<td>No questions</td>
<td>players, functions or information &amp; lexical &amp; structural Changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical &amp; Structural Changes</td>
<td>Structural Changes</td>
<td>Genre &amp; Substantive Changes</td>
<td>Lexical &amp; Structural &amp; Genre Changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical &amp; Structural &amp; Genre Changes</td>
<td>&amp; Genre Changes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Substantive Changes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dialogues are now common enough that they need not be illustrated here. The same is true for simple person, number, tense changes in directed dialogue. In such exercises the teacher merely instructs a student to ask or tell something to a second student. Directed dialogue₁ occurs when students are given the opportunity to select a lexical unit for the communication. For example, "Demandez à Jean-Christophe la couleur de sa nouvelle voiture." Directed dialogue₂ is also open-ended, but involves both lexical and structural changes. "Dites à Raoul ce que vous pensez du film que nous venons de voir."
The above conversation between M. Fouquet and Dr. Jibelin could be made into a directed narration by stating the situation in narrative form in English.

M. Fouquet entre dans le café, retrouve son ami le docteur Jibelin et l'invite à prendre un cocktail. Le docteur refuse (il ne boit jamais au travail), mais consent à prendre un café. M. Fouquet aperçoit une table au fond du café et invite son ami à s'y installer. Encore le docteur y consent. M. Fouquet l'interroge au sujet de sa femme qui rend visite à une sœur aux États-Unis et il apprend qu'elle s'amuse bien sauf pour la nourriture (quelle critique un Français pourrait-il faire de la nourriture américaine?) M. Fouquet se rappelle son voyage à New York où on lui a volé tout son argent. Le docteur Jibelin se sent célibataire puisque sa femme est absente, et il passe la plupart de son temps au café. Il invite M. Fouquet à jouer aux cartes (à la belote) ce soir-là. Celui-ci accepte l'invitation, aperçoit l'heure, et prend congé de son ami.

The next advance from directed narration is role-playing, which is characterized by free choice of substantive content on the part of the student, but with the aid of guidance questions, some of which are determined by a correct cultural rejoinder ("what drinks might you order?") , some of which are open-ended ("what reason might you have for leaving?"). Students whose creativity and language skills are beyond the need for guidance questions (role-playing), might be given only a list of suggested players or characters, functions that operate within sociocultural context, and information with which the foreign characters would certainly be equipped. This was illustrated in the earlier part of this exhibit. As mentioned earlier, students might well decide to use knowledge from outside these three categories, but they would not be required to do so.
In the final stage (role-playing), certain members of the class, after having been immersed in a given social studies or cultural topic, are simply given the option to create a model situation as a means of tying together what was learned in the unit. It would be an optional project as part of a resource unit. It would probably constitute the highest form of problem-solving to be found in a foreign language course--an activity with the least amount of teacher direction (although the foreign language teacher can never retire from the scene completely). Only the most advanced and creative students should be allowed to "do it all themselves."

The progression from dialogue to role-playing should ideally be a steady one spaced over at least four years of secondary-school learning. It is true that certain points along the continuum are more appropriate for one group of students than for others. Nevertheless, maximum growth in both language learning and in reflection can be expected only when the whole process is seen as dynamic, moving from planned teacher direction and student memorization to planned free selection of information by students in advanced levels. It is unlikely that much benefit will accrue to classes who jump to role-playing without having gone through the preparatory stages.
Il y a dans tous les systèmes d'éducation deux tendances opposantes, dont l'une est orientée vers la liberté et l'autre, vers la contrainte. En intégrant ces deux tensions, chaque société crée une forme d'équilibre qui ne ressemble à celle de nul autre pays. Telle société insiste sur la liberté; une autre met en relief la discipline imposée de l'extérieur.

Dans cette partie nous allons examiner quelques documents sur l'instruction en France, et étudier des cas particuliers. Nous aurons comme but d'identifier certains points de vue français sur le rôle de discipline dans la formation des enfants. Nous nous servirons d'information qui est à la fois historique et contemporaine, littéraire et "réelle." Il est bien possible que chaque lecture comporte un intérêt et une valeur uniques. C'est à vous, les étudiants, de juger les mérites de chaque contribution, de la comparer à ce que vous avez ressenti à l'école, et enfin, de l'intégrer dans votre propre système d'attitudes et de connaissances.

Nous vivons à une époque où tout change presque tous les jours. Cependant, nous sommes héritiers, comme les Français, d'une culture qui est difficile à rejeter, parce qu'elle nous a si bien servi. Pendant la durée de cette partie, vous serez invité à réfléchir sur l'éducation que vous avez reçue afin de la comparer aux idées présentées dans les
lectures et pour l'évaluer par rapport aux besoins de la vie moderne. Il y aura, naturellement, des exercices à vous aider dans cette tâche.

LECTURE I - EMILE

A. Introduction

Jean-Jacques Rousseau, grand écrivain du XVIIIe siècle incarne les sentiments les plus extrêmes de ceux qui opposent une formation rigide et sévère. Aussi, a-t-il écrit en 1762 un traité célèbre sur l'éducation, intitulé Emile. L'extrait suivant exprime la pensée centrale de cette œuvre.

B. Questions analytiques

1. Quel est le thème de cette lecture?

2. Comment Rousseau justifie-t-il sa position?

3. Est-ce que les arguments de Rousseau pourraient être répétés aujourd'hui? Le sont-ils?

4. Quel fait mentionné par Rousseau n'est plus vrai?

C. Lecture: L'enfant doit jouir de la vie

Quoiqu'on assigne à peu près le plus long terme de la vie humaine et les probabilités qu'on a d'approcher de ce terme à chaque âge, rien n'est plus incertain que la durée de la vie de chaque homme en particulier; très peu parviennent à ce plus long terme. Les plus grands risques de la vie sont dans son commencement; moins on a vécu, moins on doit espérer de vivre. Des enfants qui naissent, la moitié, tout au plus, parviennent à l'adolescence; et il est probable que votre élève n'atteindra pas l'âge d'homme.

Que faut-il donc penser de cette éducation barbare qui sacrifie le présent à un avenir incertain, qui charge un enfant de chaînes de toute espèce, et commence par le rendre misérable pour lui préparer au loin je ne sais quel prétendu bonheur dont il est à croire qu'il ne jouira jamais?... L'âge de la gaïeté se passe au milieu des pleurs, des châtiments, des menaces, de l'esclavage. On tourmente le malheureux pour son bien; et l'on ne voit pas la mort qu'on appelle, et qui va le saisir au milieu de ce triste appareil. Qui sait combien d'enfants périssent victimes de l'extravagante sagesse d'un père ou d'un maître?
Hommes, soyez humains, c'est votre premier devoir; soyez-le pour tous les états, pour tous les âges, pour tout ce qui n'est pas étranger à l'homme. Quelle sagesse y a-t-il pour vous hors de l'humanité? Aimez l'enfance; favorisez ses jeux, ses plaisirs, son aimable instinct. Qui de vous n'a pas regretté quelquefois cet âge où le rire est toujours sur les lèvres, et où l'âme est toujours en paix? Pourquoi voulez-vous ôter à ces petits innocents la jouissance d'un temps si court qui leur échappe, et d'un bien si précieux dont ils ne sauraient abuser? Pourquoi voulez-vous remplir d'amertume et de douleurs ces premiers ans si rapides, qui ne reviendront pas plus pour eux qu'ils ne peuvent revenir pour vous? . . .

Que de voix vont s'élever contre moi! J'entends de loin les clameurs de cette fausse sagesse qui nous jette incessamment hors de nous, qui compte toujours le présent pour rien, et poursuivant sans relâche un avenir qui fuit à mesure qu'on avance, à force de nous transporter où nous ne sommes pas, nous transporte où nous ne serons jamais.160

D. Lesson Plan - First Day

1. Subject objectives: To know that the ideas of Jean-Jacques Rousseau provide the basis for permissive approaches to education (1.12-knowledge of specific facts)
   To know that Jean-Jacques Rousseau was a famous 18th century French writer who wrote Émile. (1.12)
   To know the arguments of Rousseau in support of his thesis. (1.12)

2. Skill objectives: To be able to paraphrase Rousseau's thesis (2.10--translation, which in this context means the ability to change a communication from one form into another)
   To be able to produce a new view of Rousseau's ideas (2.20--interpretation)
To be able to relate present conditions in education and society in general to those described in the original communication (2.30--extrapolation).

3. Materials
   a. Class handout containing the reading passage
   b. Tape recording of the passage, recorded preferably by a French actor or public speaker.

4. Procedures
   a. Play the tape first for listening practice.
   b. Play again the key sentences (which are repeated at the end of the recording).
      (1) L'âge de la gaiété se passe au milieu des pleurs, des châtiments, des menaces, de l'esclavage.
      (2) Hommes soyez humains, c'est votre premier devoir.
      (3) L'humanité a sa place dans l'ordre des choses; l'enfance a la sienne dans l'ordre de la vie humaine: il faut considérer l'homme dans l'homme, et l'enfant dans l'enfant.
   c. Distribute the handouts--go over the vocabulary helps together.
   d. Choral reading with simultaneous playing of the tape. Students imitate as closely as possible the pronunciation and intonation of the speaker.
   e. Teacher elicits an oral paraphrase of the reading from a student.
f. Directed dialogue (with several responses solicited):
"Etienne, demandez à --------- s'il (elle) est d'accord avec le résumé de ---------; s'il (elle) trouve la pensée de Rousseau plutôt optimiste ou pessimiste et demandez aussi ses raisons.

g. Questions for small-group discussion (15 mins.) (Each group appoints a secretary who prepares an oral report for the group.)

(1) Croyez-vous que l'enfance se passe "au milieu des pleurs, des châtiments, des menaces et de l'esclavage?"

(2) De quelle façon l'enfant est-il toujours un esclave?

(3) Est-ce que l'éducation moderne témoigne des conditions dures décrites par Rousseau?

(4) Quelle est la place de l'enfance dans l'ordre de la vie humaine?

h. Oral reports on the discussion questions.

i. Assignment

(1) Write one paragraph completing one of the following thoughts:

Rousseau avait raison. Chez nous --------------.

Rousseau avait tort. Chez nous --------------.
j. Supplementary assignment (for the non-class day)
(1) Quelle sorte de personne était Jean-Jacques Rousseau?
(2) Dans quels circonstances a-t-il écrit *Emile*?
(3) Quelles autres idées importantes se trouvent dans cette oeuvre?
(4) Qu'est-ce que l'éducation progressive? Comment Rousseau y a-t-il contribué?

LECTURE 2

A. Introduction

La lecture suivante fut écrite par un professeur célèbre d'un lycée parisien. Elle témoigne d'une philosophie qui fait partie essentiellement du système français (jusqu'à nos jours du moins). Les personnes critiques du système ont toujours insisté qu'elle ne n'était utile qu'à un faible pourcentage de la population. Cependant, les Français sont tous fiers de l'attitude "sérieuse" qui règne dans leurs écoles. Il serait peut-être utile de savoir si cette philosophie fait l'objet dans une certaine mesure des critiques adressées au système. De toute façon, il est évident que la philosophie du Maître Alain diffère énormément de celle de Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

B. Questions Analytiques

1. Quelle est l'idée principale dans cette lecture?
2. Selon, Alain, quel est le rôle d'ennui dans l'éducation?
3. Qu'est-ce qu'il dit au sujet de l'étude des langues?
C. Lecture: "L'homme se forme par la peine"

Je n'ai pas beaucoup de confiance dans ces jardins d'enfants et autres inventions au moyen desquelles on veut instruire en amusant. La méthode n'est déjà pas excellent pour les hommes. Je pourrais citer des hommes qui passent pour instruits, et qui s'ennuient à La Chartreuse de Parme ou Lys dans la Vallée. Ils ne lisent que des œuvres de seconde valeur, où tout est disposé pour plaire au premier regard; mais en se livrant à des plaisirs faciles, ils perdent un plus haut plaisir qu'ils auraient conquis par un peu de courage et d'attention.

Il n'y a point d'expérience qui élève mieux un homme que la découverte d'un plaisir supérieur, qu'il aurait toujours ignoré s'il n'avait point pris d'abord un peu de peine. Montaigne est difficile; c'est qu'il faudra d'abord le connaître, s'y orienter, s'y retrouver; ensuite seulement on le découvre. De même la géométrie par cartons, cela peut plaire; mais les problèmes les plus rigoureux donnent aussi un plaisir bien plus vif. C'est ainsi que le plaisir de lire une œuvre au piano n'est nullement sensible dans les premières leçons; il faut savoir s'ennuyer d'abord . . .

Comment apprend-on une langue? Par les grands auteurs, non autrement. Par les phrases les plus serrées, les plus riches, les plus profondes et non par les niaiseries d'un manuel de conversation. Apprendre d'abord, et ouvrir ensuite tous ces trésors . . . Je ne vois pas que l'enfant puisse s'élever sans admiration et sans vénération; c'est par là qu'il est enfant; et la vérité consiste à dépasser ces sentiments-là, quand la raison développe sans fin toute la richesse humaine, d'abord pressentie.161

D. Lesson Plan—Second Day

1. Knowledge objectives: To be aware of the humanistic, literary tradition in French education. (1.12)

   To know some of the reasons given in support of this phenomenon. (1.12)

2. Skill objectives: To apply knowledge of the language to an evaluation of another student's written assignment. (3.00)

   To relate Rousseau's ideas to contemporary educational phenomena. (2.20)

   To paraphrase the principal thought in Alain's essay. (2.10)
3. Materials:
   a. Several pictures of students at work in French and in American schools.
   b. Pictures of students participating in extracurricular activities.
   c. Class handout.
   d. Tape recording of the reading.

4. Procedures
   a. Have students exchange and correct assignments while teacher circulates, making individual corrections.
   b. Have a few students read their assignments.
   c. Teacher holds up a number of educational scenes. He may either describe the scene or solicit student descriptions of it. He then asks, "Si Rousseau vivait aujourd'hui, est-ce qu'il approuverait cette forme d'instruction?" Very brief discussions of the answers, with the teacher assisting students in expressing their thoughts, if necessary.
   d. Play the tape of Alain's essay for listening practice. Re-play the key sentences, repeated at the end of the tape.

   (1) Je n'ai pas beaucoup de confiance dans ces jardins d'enfants et autres inventions au moyen desquelles on veut instruire en amusant.

   (2) Comment apprend-on une langue? Par les grands auteurs, non autrement.

   e. Distribute handouts. Answer "Questions Analytiques."
   f. Supplementary assignment (for the non-class day).

   (1) Quels événements historiques, littéraires et sociales du 19e siècle ont contribué à la chute de la philosophie de Rousseau? (Researched in reference French history books, literary anthologies and encyclopedias).

   (2) Quelles étaient les réformes (de l'éducation) de Napoléon I?
LECTURE III - SANCTIONS

A. Introduction

Partout où les hommes se réunissent, il faut de l'ordre. Les écoles ne sont pas exemptes de cette règle. S'il y a des points de vue différents sur l'activité particulière de l'école, il n'y en a pas moins sur la discipline. C'est surtout dans ce domaine que les différences culturelles sont les plus frappantes. Vous avez été assujettis à des disciplines différentes depuis une douzaine d'années, ce qui peut-être vous a déjà permis de réfléchir sur l'espèce de discipline la plus favorable à l'éducation. Dans cette lecture nous verrons un procédé souvent employé en France.

B. Questions analytiques

1. Résumez la première scène décrite dans la lecture.

2. Qu'en pensez-vous?

3. Quelle est la différence entre la correction employée par l'institutrice et celles que vous connaissez tous les jours?

C. Lecture: "Discipline: Courtoisie et Propreté"

En classe, une des sanctions les plus efficaces consiste à faire honte à l'élève et à dresser les autres contre lui. Un jour, dans la classe de Madame Vernet, j'ai été témoin de la scène suivante:

Ah, Monsieur, vous arrivez au bon moment, dit l'institutrice. Regardez cette dictée. Avez-vous jamais vu quelque chose de si peu soigné, de si mauvais? Six fautes en trois lignes, et une tache d'encre par dessus le marché! Regardez, Monsieur, elle a écrit ses au lieu de c'est, et la phrase n'a plus de sens. C'est stupide, stupide! Et moi qui croyait qu'elle était intelligente, c'est de la paresse. Elle ferait du bon travail si elle le voulait. Mais non, elle préfère rester là à rêver sur la chaise! Et dire qu'elle veut se présenter au Certificat!
Quelle honte ce serait pour l'école et pour ses parents! Je ne la présenterai point. Quel candidat réussirait qui écrit ses dans une dictée au lieu de c'est?

Situation délicat pour le visiteur. Les autres élèves riaient d'un air moqueur. L'accusée s'est mise à pleurer.

C'est ca. Maintenant tu pleures. Comme si cela pouvait t'aider à écrire une dictée. Non, tu resteras à l'école après la classe. Et nous referons cette dictée jusqu'à ce que tu la fasse bien!

Une autre façon de faire honte à un élève consiste à comparer les résultats de son travail avec ceux d'un camarade qui a mieux réussi qu'on y attendait.

---Sept fois neuf, Marie?

---Je ne sais pas, Madame.

---Ah! Elle ne sait pas combien font sept fois neuf. Toute la classe le sait. Tous ensemble, combien font sept fois neuf?

Dans un rugissement, toute la classe donne la réponse.

---Vous voyez, Marie, tout le monde ici le savait. Sais-tu combien font sept fois huit?

---

---Non, évidemment, elle ne le sait pas. N'as-tu pas honte? Même Alain le sait, et il est resté chez lui, malade, pendant un mois. Combien font sept fois huit, Alain?

---Cinquante-six, Madame.

---Tu vois, Marie, même Alain le savait, et tu es plus intelligente que lui. Tu n'as pas appris ta table de multiplication, n'est-ce pas?

---Non, Madame.

---Eh bien, tu resteras ici pendant la récréation, et tu apprendras la table de sept, et si tu ne la sais pas après la récréation, tu resteras encore après la classe. Compris?

---Oui, Madame.

Et l'enfant ainsi puni justement ne peut compter sur la pitié ou la sympathie de personne.
D. Lesson Plan--Third Day

1. Knowledge objectives: To see some evidence of the use of sarcasm as a sanction in French schools.

2. Skill objectives: To relate the philosophy of the two previous readings to the practical situation of this narration. (2.20)
To relate present knowledge of French viewpoints to other student roles. (2.30)

3. Materials
a. Class handout
b. Tape recording of the reading
c. Transparency for exercise 1

4. Procedures
a. Distribute handouts. Go over vocabulary helps.
b. Play tape. Students read and listen.
c. Review the "Questions analytiques," especially to get student reactions to the episodes.
d. Brief lecture by the teacher introducing the concept of role, with examples focusing on "le rôle des parents," and "le rôle de l'instituteur."
e. Using the transparency for exercise 1, the teacher gets students to summarize their knowledge by identifying whether a particular student role is more prevalent in France or in the United States.
Answers might be based on factual knowledge learned in the readings or on implications from that knowledge.

Exercice 1

Directives:
Lisez les rôles énumérés ci-dessous pour décider si chaque rôle tient une plus grande place dans la culture française ou dans la culture américaine. Si, à votre avis, un certain rôle se trouve également dans les deux cultures, mettez un "X" sous La France et Les-Etats-Unis. Autrement, ne mettez d' "X" que sous le pays correspondant. Le premier rôle est présenté comme exemple seulement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rôles</th>
<th>La France</th>
<th>Les Etats-Unis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Se soumettre aux règles</td>
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<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Copier et répéter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Exprimer sa personnalité</td>
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<td>4. Apprendre par coeur</td>
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<td>5. Se résigner à son sort</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Jouer</td>
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<td>7. Respecter les instituteurs</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Apprendre l'esprit d'équipe</td>
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<td>9. Etre stoïque</td>
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<td>10. Douter</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Etudier la morale</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Apprécier la grammaire</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
13. Apprendre beaucoup de faits
14. Discuter avec un instituteur

f. Assignement: Ecrivez un paragraphe qui résume ce que vous avez appris dans les trois lectures. Si vous voulez, vous pouvez suivre un des plans suivants:

(1) Dites ce que Rousseau a affirmé au sujet d'éducation;
Dites ce qu'Alain y pense;
Décrituez une situation où vous vous trouvez dans une école française; mentionnez les attitudes différentes que vous devez montrer.

(2) Ecrivez un petit dialogue entre un professeur français et un étudiant américain qui vient de s'inscrire dans un lycée parisien. Imaginez les conseils que le professeur donnerait à cet étudiant.

EXHIBIT F - A MULTI-TEXT APPROACH

Objectives: To distinguish factual and human approaches to the study of geography through comparative readings.

To identify geographical facts through an inductive approach to textual material.

Materials: 1. Reprints of four textbooks treatments of the topic "Situation de La France."
2. Taped recordings of the texts.
3. A large pull-down map of the world.

4. A large pull-down map of Europe.

5. A flannel board and cutouts of France, the United States, the high mountains, the low mountains, and the plains in France.

Procedures:

1. Play Reboussin's recorded introduction to the geography of France. Using the map of Europe, point to the boundaries of France as they are stated. Using the flannelboard, show what Reboussin means by "Les hautes montagnes," "les montagnes moyennes," and "les plaines."

Geographie physique de la France

Avant d'étudier l'histoire de la civilisation française, il est bon de connaitre le pays où elle s'est développée. C'est lui que nous voulons vous présenter.

Regardons la carte. La France a la forme d'un hexagone, dont les limites sont marquées par la nature sur cinq côtés; la mer du Nord, la Manche, l'océan Atlantique, les Pyrénées, la mer Méditerranée, les Alpes, Le Jura et le Rhin; mais sur le sixième côté, la frontière est conventionnelle; rien ne sépare la France de l'Allemagne, du Luxembourg, et de la Belgique. A l'échelle américaine, le territoire ainsi délimité est petit: 550,000 kilomètres carrés (212,000 sq.m.), soit environ 1/15 des États-Unis. Pourtant, à l'exception de la Russie, la France est le plus grand état de l'Europe. Et c'est surtout un pays très varié, bien que l'histoire et la culture aient formé là une nation unie.

Nul autre pays de superficie comparable ne présente des régions aussi diverses. Pour en faire l'étude nous allons les grouper d'après le relief et la nature du sol: telles sont en effet les deux données géographiques qui ont l'influence la plus profonde sur le mode de vie des hommes. Ressources, répartition de la population, climat même, tout change selon que l'on considère la haute montagne, la moyenne ou basse montagne, ou les plaines.163

2. Summarize Reboussin's introduction

a. Teacher asks: "Qui peut construire une question sur la géographie de la France?" When he gets the question, "Quelle forme a la France?" a student will answer "La France a la forme d'un hexagone."
b. Teacher then asks "Qui peut nous montrer les frontières de la France?" A student will then point them out on the map.

3. Have students read Denoeu's "situation" while listening to the tape. Again the teacher points to the boundaries of France as they are stated. This time the teacher uses the map of the world. As the speaker compares points in France with points in the United States, the teacher runs the pointer across the map to situate the two points. Afterward, the teacher asks the following questions:

a. Est-ce que le point de vue géographique de Denoeu est plus grand ou plus petit que celui de Reboussin?
De quelle façon?

b. Laquelle des deux descriptions était plus intéressante?
Pourquoi?

(This question should elicit recognition of the non-geographic information and implications in the second account.)

Présentation de la France (Denoeu)

LA SITUATION -- La Superficie. Mes amis, regardez une carte d'Europe. Voyez comme ce continent devient plus mince vers l'ouest. Le Portugal et l'Espagne en sont les pays les plus occidentaux. C'est ensuite la France qui semble s'avancer joyeusement vers l'Amérique pour lui souhaiter la bienvenue, tête haute et bras levé. Cette tête c'est la Bretagne; ce bras s'est la presqu'île où les armées alliées du général Eisenhower percèrent le front allemand (1944).

La France est située à égale distance du pôle nord et de l'équateur. Elle se trouve à peu près en face de la frontière qui sépare les États-Unis du Canada, mais à environ trois mille milles à l'est. L'heure de la France est donc en avance de cinq heures sur celle de l'Est américain--six heures en hiver car on n'y retarde pas les horloges. L'extrémité nord de la France est à la hauteur de la baie d'Hudson; son extrémité sud se trouve à la latitude de Détroit. Paris est à peu près à la latitude de Québec et de Seattle. Si le
Gulf Stream, qui coule vers elle à la vitesse de cinq milles à l'heure, ne réchauffait pas ses côtes, la France aurait, l'hiver, un climat plus rude que celui du nord des États-Unis.

Comparée aux États-Unis avec ses cinquante États, la France est un pays bien petit, dix-sept fois plus petit. Elle est moins grande que l'état de Texas, un tiers plus grande que la Californie et quatre fois plus grande que l'état de New York; et pourtant la France est après la Russie le pays le plus vaste de l'Europe.

Les dimensions de la France sont à peu près les mêmes du nord au sud—de Dunkerque aux Pyrénées—and de l'ouest à l'est—de Brest à Strasbourg--, c'est à-dire environ six cents milles à vol d'oiseau. C'est la distance approximative de San Francisco au Grand Canyon. En deux jours, sans trop se presser, on peut traverser la France en automobile. Ce serait encore aller trop vite car il y a tant de belles choses à voir et tant de braves gens avec qui bavarder!

La forme de la France est celle d'un hexagone presque régulier; elle est compacte comme celle des États-Unis qui est plutôt un rectangle.

Les frontières. La France est limitée au nord par le pas de Calais et la mer du nord; au nord-est par une ligne conventionnelle qui la sépare de la Belgique, du Luxembourg et de l'Allemagne; à l'est par le Rhin, le Jura et les Alpes qui la séparent respectivement de l'Allemagne, de la Suisse et de l'Italie; au sud par la mer Méditerranée et les Pyrénées; à l'ouest par l'océan Atlantique et la Manche. La France a donc des frontières naturelles sur cinq côtés de l'hexagone; qu'elle forme. Elle est pourtant loin d'être isolée; elle met en communication les pays méditerranéens et ceux qui baignent l'océan Atlantique et la mer du Nord. Elle occupe une position géographique privilégiée, au cœur de l'Europe occidentale.

4. Play Lowe's description while students read the text. Afterward, the teacher asks:

a. Comment cette description éclaire-t-elle notre connaissance de (1) la frontière nord-est de la France?

(2) la frontière est?
b. Discuss student answers until the following facts emerge:

(1) The German attacks on Luxembourg and Belgium illustrate the importance of France's natural boundaries.

(2) The eastern boundary is no longer the same kind of boundary because of the tunnel to Italy.

Un peu de géographie (Lowe)

Si l'on la compare aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique, la France est un petit pays, ayant environ 555,000 kilomètres carrés, ce qui représente à peu près deux fois la superficie de l'état de New York. Mais c'est le pays le plus grand de l'Europe--à l'exception de la Russie, qui est dix fois plus grande. Il y a en France actuellement plus de quarante-cinq million d'habitants, parmi lesquels on compte environ un million et demi d'étrangers. Par sa population donc, la France occupe le douzième rang dans le monde. En Europe elle arrive en cinquième rang, derrière la Russie (200 millions), la République fédérale d'Allemagne (55 millions), la Grande-Bretagne (52 millions), et l'Italie (50 millions).

Si vous regardez la carte d'Europe, vous verrez que la France est située à l'extrémité occidentale du continent. Comme pays voisins elle a la Belgique au nord, l'Allemagne, la Suisse et l'Italie à l'est, et l'Espagne au sud. Les Pyrénées séparent la France de l'Espagne. Les Alpes et les Vosges se trouvent entre la France et deux de ses voisins à l'est, l'Italie et la Suisse, mais la frontière du nord-est n'a pas de défenses naturelles. Cette frontière, qui a environ 450 kilomètres, sépare la France de l'Allemagne, du duché de Luxembourg... C'était pour éviter les places fortes installées par les Francais du côté de la frontière allemande que les armées allemandes ont attaqué la France deux fois (1914 et 1939) en passant à travers le Luxembourg et la Belgique.

De la frontière espagnole à la frontière belge, c'est-à-dire des Pyrénées à la mer du Nord, la France a une longueur de 975 kilomètres environ, sur une largeur moyenne de 880 kilomètres; du nord au sud donc, on traverse à peu près la même distance que de New-York à Chicago. Sa latitude, à égale distance du pôle Nord et de l'équateur, place la France en pleine zone tempérée, mais le climat de ce pays n'est pas le même partout. La région du nord, par exemple, est humide et exposée aux vents de la mer. Le Midi, d'autre part, qui est baigné par la Mer Méditerranée, possède un climat plutôt sec avec des étés assez chauds et des hivers doux.
A l'ouest de la France se trouve l'Océan Atlantique. Les Français donnent le nom de la Manche à la mer qui les sépare de l'Angleterre. Pour traverser la Manche de Douvres à Calais, une distance de 39 kilomètres, il faut seulement une heure à une heure et demie de bateau. À cause du Marché Commun, on parle beaucoup de nos jours de construire un tunnel sous la Manche ou un pont capable de réunir les deux pays par chemin de fer et automobile.165

5. a. Play Bottke and Joyaux's introduction while students follow in the text.

Géographie

La France est située à l'extrémité occidentale de l'Europe. En gros, elle a la forme d'un hexagone, c'est-à-dire d'une figure géométrique à six côtes. Sur trois de ces côtes elle est bordée par des mers. Au nord-ouest, la mer du Nord et la Manche la séparent de l'Angleterre. À l'ouest se trouve l'Océan Atlantique et au sud la mer Méditerranée. Deux autres côtes la rattachent à l'Europe continental : au nord-est, c'est une frontière conventionnelle qui la sépare de la Belgique, du Luxembourg et de l'Allemagne. À l'est, une frontière plus ou moins naturelle (le Rhin, puis des chaînes montagneuses) la rattachent à l'Allemagne, à la Suisse et à l'Italie. Le dernier côté de l'hexagone est formé par la chaîne des Pyrénées qui sert de frontière entre la France et l'Espagne.

De Dunkerque au nord à Perpignan au sud, et de Brest à l'ouest à Strasbourg à l'est, la distance est à peu près la même, 1,000 kilomètres, soit environ 600 'miles.' La superficie de la France est de 500,000 kilomètres carrés, c'est-à-dire qu'elle est 16 fois plus petite que les États-Unis. Au dernier recensement, en 1957, on comptait 44 million d'habitants, ce qui donne une densité moyenne de population de 84 habitants au kilomètre carré, alors qu'aux États-Unis la densité moyenne n'est que de 21.

Il y a cinq massifs montagneux en France : le Jura, les Vosges, le Massif Central, les Pyrénées et les Alpes. Comme la carte l'indique, ces montagnes occupent la moitié sud-sud-est de l'hexagone, tandis que le reste est plus ou moins une grande plaine prolongeant la vaste plaine du nord-ouest de l'Europe.

Le Massif Central, comme son nom l'indique, occupe le centre de la France. C'est une vieille chaîne de montagnes où l'on trouve un grand nombre de volcans éteints. Les Vosges à l'est sont également des massifs anciens aux sommets arrondis et peu élevés. Les Pyrénées, au sud-sud-ouest, sont des montagnes beaucoup plus jeunes dont certains sommets atteignent plus de 3,000 mètres. Des passages, appelés, 'portes' permettent de traverser la chaîne montagneuse et de pénétrer
en Espagne. Enfin le Jura, et surtout les Alpes, de formation récente eux aussi, couvrent une grande partie de l'Europe méridionale. Dans les Alpes on trouve des pics très élevés et dentelés appelés "aiguilles" et des neiges éternelles. C'est dans les Alpes qu'est situé le Mont-Blanc, le plus haut sommet de France et d'Europe (4,807 mètres). 166

b. The teacher then asks, "Qu'est-ce qu'il y a de nouveau dans ce passage?" The teacher solicits a number of different answers to this question until students identify the emphasis on the mountains. The teacher summarizes the student comments and introduces a filmstrip on either "Les Pyrénées," "Les Alpes," or "Le Jura." Color filmstrips of these areas are available at the Wible Language Institute, Allentown, Pennsylvania.

c. Assignment:

Directions: Re-read the four geographical presentations introduced in class. Identify as many facts as possible in which all the authors concurred. Enter these under "Faits Unanimes." Find facts about which there was disagreement and enter these under "Désaccords." Finally, state some facts or opinions which made the readings different and which you found relatively interesting. Enter these under "Contributions particulières."

FAITS UNANIMES  DÉSACCORDS  CONTRIBUTIONS PARTICULIÈRES

d. The next day have students write some facts from each category on the board.
e. After identifying a list of "faits unanimes" and discussing the "désaccords" and "contributions particulières" the class should take the following quiz:

En discutant l'étude de géographie dans les écoles françaises, Laurence Wylie dit:

"En géographie, on explique d'abord à l'enfant son petit pays, puis la région environnant, puis la France, puis le monde. Et toujours on insiste sur les rapports différents entre les diverse parties de cette ensemble."167

Laquelle des quatre lectures que nous avons faites correspond le mieux à cette méthode d'étudier la géographie? Pourquoi? (un paragraphe).

EXHIBIT G - A Taxonomy of Foreign Language Questions

Norris M. Sanders has expanded the ideas in Benjamin S. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives to include a classification of question types which parallel Bloom's cognitive categories. His purpose was "to describe a practical plan to insure a varied intellectual atmosphere in the classroom."168 Questions used in foreign language classes have generally remained at the memory level. This is due partly to the high degree of skill required to answer foreign language questions of a higher order and partly because the teachers are unaware of the possibilities among question types.

A taxonomy of native-language questions will of necessity be simpler than a taxonomy of foreign language questions because, to be pedagogically useful, the latter ought to include a dimension of linguistic difficulty as well as cognitive level. Therefore, in our taxonomy, questions will be ordered in a way most useful for foreign
language teachers, by cognitive level, and, within a cognitive category, by level of linguistic difficulty. Since this is the first attempt to make such a complex distinction, we shall simplify the linguistic dimension by establishing two discrete sub-categories: questions involving structures assumed to be mastered by students of a given level (LM) and questions involving structures which require practice (LP). Thus, the second sub-category refers to questions whose use will depend upon prior or subsequent practice via repetition drills, pattern practice, chain drill, directed dialogue and other lower-level techniques. These techniques have proved their value in the teaching of skills and should continue to be used when needed. Schematically, the taxonomy appears as follows:

**Taxonomy of Foreign Language Questions (L'Echelle des Questions)**

- **Septième Etape**
  - Evaluation
  - LM
  - LP

- **Sixième Etape**
  - Synthesis
  - LM
  - LP

- **Cinquième Etape**
  - Analysis
  - LM
  - LP

- **Quatrième Etape**
  - Application
  - LM
  - LP
The taxonomy was designed in this way to demonstrate certain principles to the foreign language teacher:

1. That there is a probable (but not proved) progression from memory to evaluation-type questions.

2. That far from being useless, memory questions form the foundation for the entire chain.

3. That although each succeeding question type has a higher value than the one below it, the total population of higher-level questions capable of being used by foreign language students grows increasingly smaller according to its position in the taxonomy.

4. That in foreign language classes there is a much stronger assumption of dependency of higher-level questions on lower-level ones.
5. That critical thinking in a foreign language is impossible without prior knowledge of content demonstrated through the ability to answer memory and translation questions.

Because questions in the categories above interpretation usually involve extensive problem-solving situations not yet found in foreign language learning, only the first three levels will be illustrated in this exhibit. However, it should be noted that role-playing 1, 2, and 3 in exhibit D involve both application and synthesis types of cognition.

I - Memory Category

As noted by Sanders, the principal problem in writing good questions for the memory category is to know what facts, definitions, generalizations, values, and skills are most important. To this requirement the foreign language teacher will have to add "and to know which structures are appropriate to elicit the desired response." For the most part questions in this category will be introduced by the interrogative words "Est-ce que," "Quand," "Qui--que (and their derivatives)," "Quel (quelle, quels, quelles)," when it requires the choice of a specific item of information rather than a definition, "Comment," and "Pourquoi" when they simply ask for information already plainly stated in the reading. In other words, almost any interrogative word may introduce a memory question, depending on the way in which the answer was learned.
Illustration I (Level III History of France Course):

Bonaparte avait été nommé en 1800 Consul pour dix ans. Il se fit nommer en 1802 Consul à vie. Mais il désirait davantage: il voulait être véritablement le successeur des rois de France. En 1804, il se fit donner le titre d'empereur; il prit le nom de Napoléon Ier. 169

Questions: 

LM—Quand Bonaparte avait-il été nommé Consul?

LP--Pourquoi s'est-il fait empereur?

It should be noted that the symbols LM and LP are here assigned arbitrarily, and most probably always will have to be assigned arbitrarily in planning a unit. The assumption is that question one will not require an answer containing a structure that is difficult for the class, but that question two will, since it takes an answer involving a reflexive verb. Assigning a code is a decision which only a particular teacher can make in view of the language abilities of his own group.

LP does not mean that the structure must be drilled prior to its use, since this is one of the characteristics Twaddell referred to as distinguishing Levels I and II. LP does mean that re-entry of the structure is called for. In our illustration, the teacher might teach "se faire" by applying it to other events in the life of Napoleon as well as by the more usual types of drill.

The number of factual questions available for classroom use is almost unlimited. If they are not to be selected in haphazard fashion, they must be related to linguistic skill development and to future
higher-level thought processes. The following factual questions based on the illustration are ordered to provide both language practice and important information for future use:

1. Quand Napoleon s'est-il fait premier consul? (1800)
2. Quand Napoleon s'est-il fait consul à vie? (1802)
3. Quand Napoleon s'est-il fait empereur? (1804)
4. Comment Napoleon s'est-il rapproché de l'église? (par un traité avec le pape, par le Concordat)
5. Comment Napoleon s'est-il rapproché de l'Angleterre? (par le Traité d'Amiens en 1802)
6. Comment Napoleon s'est-il rapproché des loyalistes? (en rappelant les émigrés)
7. Comment Napoleon s'est-il fait aimé des Français? (here a number of rejoinders would fit—par son énergie, par ses réformes, par ses victoires militaires, par sa personnalité attirante etc.)

The answers to factual questions may be produced by the students themselves, or they may be given by the teacher through lecture or through learning drills. If students are oriented from the beginning toward acceptance of occasional repetition drills, the teacher may indirectly teach answers which can form a basis for subsequent questions.
II - Translation Category

Illustration II: ... les difficultés financières croissantes du roi Louis XVI l'obligèrent à consulter la Nation. De sorte que le roi a dû à contrecœur convoquer pour la première fois depuis 1614, les Etats-Generaux, l'assemblée où siégeraient les représentants de la nation toute entière, c'est-à-dire, les députés du haut clergé, de la noblesse, et du peuple.170

Questions: LM--Qu'est-ce que l'assemblée des Etats-Généraux?
Réponses possibles: C'était une assemblée de toute la nation. C'était une assemblée du haut clergé, de la noblesse et du peuple.

The imperfect tense of être may be considered fully mastered by Level III. For this reason, the structure is LM.

Illustration III:

Cette Europe a un passé glorieux. Un petit cap déchiqueté, qui ne représente que 5% des terres de la planète, a tout inventé, tout créé, tout exporté. La civilisation occidentale a été acceptée par l'Amérique, par l'Afrique, par l'Océanie et, en partie, par l'Asie. Qu'était cette civilisation? Elle tenait de la Grèce, la liberté; de Rome, la loi; du christianisme, venu de Judée, l'amour. Cette triple force lui avait permis de devenir universelle. La barrière de l'Islam lui ayant interdit les routes de l'Est, elle s'était jetée bravement vers l'Ouest, vers l'Océan. Aux bords mystérieux du monde occidental, elle avait fondé de grandes nations: les Etats-Unis, le Brésil, l'Argentine, le Canada. Plus tard, elle avait dominé l'Afrique. Pourquoi ces succès? Parce qu'elle avait le goût de l'action et parce qu'elle avait découvert la méthode expérimentale qui, en deux siècles, a bouleversé sciences et techniques . . .171

Question: LP--En quoi consistait la gloire de la civilisation:
Réponses possibles:
La gloire de la civilisation occidentale consistait en une triple force: la liberté, la loi, et l'amour.
La gloire de la civilisation occidentale comprenait le goût de l'action et la méthode expérimentale. La liberté, la loi, l'amour, le goût de l'action tous faisaient partie de la gloire de la civilisation occidentale.

(LP structures are underlined.)

It should be obvious that translation questions are elicited by the definitional form "Qu'est-ce que (Qu'est-ce que c'est) as well as by the expression "Quel est" when it asks for the general nature of something. Other introductory expressions requiring translation are "Résumez," "Décroivez," and "Racontez."

A common form of translation activity requires the student to change verb forms from the past definite tense of literary writings to the imperfect or past indefinite of conversation.

As in factual questions, students may be helped with their answers. For example, in the illustration, the terms "le haut clergé," "la noblesse," and "le peuple" could have been written on the board in advance so that the students would have to provide only the structural shell for the answer. It should also be possible to turn a resume question into a group project by having each student called on provide only part of the answer. We will see this in the following classroom episode.
Illustration IV:

Il N'est Pire Aveugle Que Celui Qui Ne Veut Point Voir

Louis XV (1710-1774) eut une nuit un rêve bizarre. Il crut voir quatre chats qui se battaient près de lui: un gras, un maigre, un borgne et un aveugle. Ce songe troubla profondément le roi; il en fut si frappé qu'il parut tout soucieux le matin à son valet de chambre. Celui-ci s'inquiéta de ce qui troublait Sa Majesté, et Louis XV, sans se faire prier, raconta son rêve. Le valet de chambre l'écoute gravement, le menton dans la main, puis il dit, avec toute la déférence possible:

Si Votre Majesté le souhaite, je puis lui donner l'explication de ce rêve. Le roi assentit en inclinant la tête.

--- Parle donc, fit le souverain.

--- Mais que Votre Majesté ne m'accuse pas ensuite d'avoir oublié un instant le respect que je lui dois.

--- Non, continue, parle avec confiance, te dis-je.

--- Eh bien! Sire, dit le domestique, le chat maigre représente votre peuple.

--- Ah, dit le roi, un peu confus.

--- Le chat gras est le corps des financiers.

--- Je le crois, dit le roi. Et il sourit pour encourager le valet, qui continua ainsi:

--- Le chat borgne représente votre Conseil des Ministres.

--- Ma foi, c'est bien possible. Mais le quatrième, qui est-il?

Le valet de chambre s'arrêta, embarrasé; il ouvrait, fermait la bouche.

--- Le quatrième, dit-il enfin, le chat aveuglé, c'est Votre Majesté qui ne veut rien voir.

L'imper tinence était forte, mais le Roi ne voulut pas se fâcher, et lui dit seulement:

--- Eh! drôle, comment veux-tu que ça marche dans un pays où les valets font la leçon à leurs souverains?
Questions: LM--Décrivez le rêve de Louis XV.

Réponse possible: Louis XV avait un rêve bizarre. Il voyait quatre chats qui se battaient près de lui.

LP--Quelle était la réaction du valet pendant la narration?

Réponse possible: Il écoutait le roi gravement, le menton dans la main. (The underlined structure is the LP part.)

LM--Quelle interprétation a-t-il donné au rêve?

Réponse 1--Il a dit que le chat maigre représentait le peuple.

Réponse 2--Il a dit que le chat gros représentait le corps des financiers.

Réponse 3--Il a dit que le borgne représentait le Conseil des Ministres.

Réponse 4--Il a dit que l'aveugle représentait le roi lui-même.

(In this series of episodes the teacher interrupts each student after his contribution and asks another student "Est-ce que vous pouvez continuer l'interprétation, _______?")
III - Interpretation Category

A. Comparison Questions

Comparison questions may be set up in various ways. The most obvious (but certainly not the easiest) is to begin with the word "Comparez------." For example, "Comparez les pouvoirs du président de la République avec ceux du président des Etats-Unis." The class may also be given the point or points on which the comparison is to be made. "Est-ce que le terme du président de la République est plus long ou plus court que celui du président des Etats-Unis?" (LM)

Since comparison questions are sometimes open-ended, it is not always easy to assign an LM or LP label in advance. In other words, it is not always possible to plan the practice of specific structures when using comparison questions. There are two ways to obviate this difficulty. First, if the answer has been read orally or practiced as a fact question in a certain form, then that form is likely to be used in the comparison question. For example, if in the first series of comprehension questions, the student learned to say "Le président de la république est élu pour sept ans," then in the above comparison, he is likely to start with that statement followed by "Le président des Etats-Unis est élu pour quatre ans." The second possibility would involve allowing the student to grope for the expression he needs. If he comes up with it slowly or if the teacher must give it to him, the class could subsequently perform a brief informal drill to make it more automatic. For example, in the general comparison question "Comparez les pouvoirs du président de la République avec ceux du président des Etats-Unis," a student might stumble over (or not know)
the word "dissoudre" in the sentence "Le président de la République peut dissoudre l'Assemblée nationale." After having the class repeat the word in isolation, the teacher might allow the student to finish his comparison. If the teacher decides that the word (or structure) used should be within the active inventory of the class, he might start a brief informal post-answer exercise.

Est-ce que le président de la République peut dissoudre l'assemblée nationale?

Est-ce que le président des États-Unis peut dissoudre le congress américain?

Est-ce que le premier ministre anglais peut dissoudre le parlement anglais?

Est-ce que le premier ministre canadien peut dissoudre le parlement canadien?

A quelle condition le président de la République peut-il dissoudre l'assemblée nationale? (sur la proposition du Conseil des Ministres)

Sanders reminds us that "the intellectual process of comparison is more complicated than appears on the surface, and he proceeds to outline three ways in which a comparison can be made.  Since each format involves comparing two articles, we will be able to illustrate only one format in this study. The first is the most methodical and, for that reason, the most applicable to foreign language learning.

It consists of five steps:

First Way to Compare A and B

1. Introduce the subject discussed in the articles.

2. Identify a topic discussed in both articles and compare the position of the two.

3. Identify another topic discussed in both articles and compare the position of the two.
4. Identify all other topics discussed in both articles and compare them.

5. Make a general summation of the comparison of the two articles.

Illustration V:

AN HOUR OF NEED

Rarely in American memory had hope and horror been so poignantly fused within a single week. Rarely had men's actions—voluntary and involuntary—seemed so ineluctably intertwined. President Johnson's announcement of a major peace offensive in Asia, coupled with his renunciation of another term, raised anticipation throughout the world that the long agony of Viet Nam might soon be ended. Even as that hope blossomed, an older blight on the American conscience burst through with the capriciousness of a spring freeze. In Memphis, through the budding branches of trees surrounding a tawdry rooming house, a white sniper's bullet cut down Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., pre-eminent voice of the just aspirations and long-suffering patience of black America.

The events and personalities had a Sophoclean cast. Lyndon Johnson, the world's most powerful political leader, abjured his power in the cause of world peace; Martin Luther King, the nation's most ardent exponent of nonviolent social reform, was violently removed in an act of outrage that at first blush seemed to threaten the onslaught of race war. Yet each in his manner of departure achieved a stature that neither had ever previously attained. King became the canonized leader of his people's cause; Johnson, about to surrender his political
life, gained an unprecedented opportunity to work for accord between
the races, within the nation as a whole and in the world beyond.

In the aftermath of King's murder, Lyndon Johnson canceled his
plans to fly to Hawaii for consultations with his military and diplo­
matic advisers on the delicate question of Viet Nam negotiations.

Rioting and looting broke out in 62 cities from coast to coast. In
manic reaction, the plunderers went about their business in an almost
carnival atmosphere. Looting--"early Easter shopping," as one Harlem
resident called it--was the predominant activity, though some ghettos
were burned as well.

Great streamers of acrid smoke, drifting from blazing shops in
Washington's commercial center, twisted among the cherry blossoms near
the Lincoln Memorial, where five years earlier Martin Luther King had
proclaimed his vision of black and white harmony. Fires crackled three
blocks from the White House, and from the air the capital looked like a
bombed city. A three-mile reach of Chicago's Negro West Side erupted
in pillage and cataclysmic flames that left an eight-block area in a
state of devastation as severe as that of Detroit's ghetto last summer--
yet at first Mayor Richard Daley failed, inexplicably, to impose a cur­
few. In Harlem, gleeful mobs cavorted and Mayor John Lindsay, though
unharmed as he walked among them, was powerless to halt the orgy.
Sniping, the most feared of ghetto tactics in summers past, was rare;
by week's end, riot-connected deaths in the U.S. totaled more than 20.

Swift action by civil authorities, as in Michigan, where Governor
George Romney called up 9,000 National Guardsmen and Detroit's Mayor
Jerome Cavanagh clamped down a dusk-to-dawn curfew, and restraint by
police in direct confrontations, kept the lid on most communities. Into Washington and Chicago poured 25,000 troops. Baltimore, Pittsburgh, San Francisco and other cities erupted. "I ask every citizen to reject the blind violence that has struck Dr. King," said the President. "There is something of shame in this," declared Vice President Hubert Humphrey. "This nation of law and order, which has its Presidents shot down in cold murder, its spiritual leaders assassinated, and has those who walk and speak and work for human rights beaten and killed -- my fellow Americans, every one of us must resolve that we will never, never, never let it happen again."

In the climate of sorrow and guilt that engulfed most Americans, there was an opening for an accommodation between the races that might otherwise never have presented itself. Lyndon Johnson, looking even graver than he had appeared when he announced his abdication at week's beginning, called at week's end for an extraordinary joint session of Congress to hear "the President's recommendations for action--constructive action instead of destructive action--in this hour of national need."

It is not enough, Johnson implied, to mourn Martin Luther King. His death demands expiation, as did that of John F. Kennedy. Now, as in November 1963, President Johnson seems determined to strike forcefully at the consciences of all Americans in order to wrest from tragedy and trauma the will to make a better society.
Illustration VI:
Martin Luther King balaillé par la violence

Sa voix était la mauvaise conscience de l'Amérique. Elle s'est tue, jeudi dernier, à Memphis, Tennessee, la capitale du coton. Ce jour-là, à 19 h 5, le pasteur Martin Luther King, 39 ans, héros des droits civiques, prophète de la non-violence et prix Nobel de la paix, est mort assassiné. Sur le front des races, en 1968, l'Amérique attendait le pire. Le pire est arrivé.

De tous les coins des États-Unis, des voix consternées se sont élevées pour rendre hommage: "La nation tout entière pleure" (président Johnson). "Il s'était consacré à la justice et il a sacrifié sa vie à ce principe" (sénateur Robert Kennedy). "Une tragédie pour le pays tout entier" (Richard Nixon). "Une honte" (vice-président Humphrey). À New York, le gouverneur Nelson Rockefeller a fait mettre les drapeaux en berne. Le maire de la ville, M. John Lindsay, a appelé tous les Américains à prier.

Au moment le plus chaud des émeutes de l'été 1967, le président Johnson avait déjà proclamé "un jour national de prière et de réconciliation", dont la seule conséquence avait été la mise en vente, par les brocanteurs de Harlem, de macarons: "God is alive, but He is not involved" ("Dieu est vivant, mais cela ne Le concerne pas").

La réponse. Pour les Noirs, le temps n'est plus à la prière. La stupeur enregistrée après l'attentat contre le pasteur King a rapidement cédé le pas à la colère. A Washington, le Snick (Organisation des étudiants non violents) a lancé un appel à la grève générale.
Les dirigeants du Core (Congrès pour l'égalité raciale) ont fait une proclamation: "La non-violence a disparu avec King." Et James Meredith, le premier Noir qui entra à l'université du Mississippi, au prix de plusieurs émeutes, lui aussi un non-violent confirmé, a déclaré, après le crime: "Voilà la réponse de l'Amérique à ceux qui utilisent la voie pacifique pour obtenir leurs droits dans ce pays."

Alors, à Washington, à Boston, à Raleigh, à Nashville, à Jackson, à Harlem, où 7,000 policiers sont en état d'alerte, à Memphis, où patrouillent 4,000 gardes nationaux, des bandes de Noirs, ivres de rage, saccagent, pillent et brûlent.

Pourtant, l'époque n'était pas loin où Martin Luther King lançait, à Washington, devant 200,000 manifestants, sa fameuse homélite: "J'ai un rêve, un rêve profondément enraciné dans le rêve américain. Je rêve qu'un jour, sur les collines rousses de Georgie, les fils des anciens esclaves et les fils des anciens esclavagistes prendront place tous ensemble à la table de la fraternité." Puis il avait entonné un refrain vibrant d'enthousiasme: "Quand sonneront les cloches de la liberté...", laissant entendre que, déjà, elles s'étaient mises en branle.


Mme Elsa Mae Booker, d'Atlanta, pouvait se rendre dans un restaurant jusqu'alors réservé aux Blancs et déclarer fièrement, par la suite: 
"J'ai commandé une tranche de pastèque et j'ai dit au garçon, un Blanc: "Enlevez les pépins, s'il vous plaît."

Ce n'était quand même qu'une pastèque. Les Noirs, bouclés dans les ghettos des villes, se sont peu à peu détachés de Martin Luther King et de sa non-violence, pour écouter la voix d'un autre prophète, Malcolm X, qui déclarait, avant d'être assassiné, lui aussi, le 21 février 1965: "Une majorité blanche n'acceptera jamais de se départir de ses privilèges en faveur d'une minorité noire, à moins qu'on ne l'y oblige par la violence."

Débordé par les nouveaux extrémistes partisans du Pouvoir noir, les Rap Brown et les Stokely Carmichael, Martin Luther King avait durci ses positions au cours des deux dernières années. Il rejetait la responsabilité de la violence, non pas sur les émeutiers des ghettos, mais sur "la politique pratiquée par les Blancs". Lui aussi avait fini par appeler les Noirs à des manifestations massives d'insubordination civique. Il s'était rangé résolument dans le camp des colombes parce
qu'il pensait, comme James Tobin, l'économiste de Yale, que "le beurre sacrificié aux dieux de la guerre devient toujours la margarine du pauvre".

Les poubelles de l'Histoire. L'été brûlant 1968 a commencé le 30 mars, alors que le printemps avait à peine huit jours. Le pasteur King s'était rendu à Memphis pour organiser un défilé de soutien aux éboueurs de la ville (90 % sont noirs) en grève depuis sept semaines. Pour la première fois, le héros de la non-violence avait été balayé par la violence. En dépit de ses appels au calme, la manifestation s'était soldée par un mort, plusieurs dizaines de blessés, 146 foyers d'incendie . . .

Pour le pasteur King, cette émeute prenait un aspect d'autant plus poignant qu'à l'échelle nationale, les extrémistes noirs attaquaient de plus en plus ouvertement ses méthodes et prédisaient à son action "les poubelles de l'Histoire".

Martin Luther King a voulu prouver qu'ils avaient tort. Il s'était rendu une seconde fois à Memphis, jeudi dernier, pour préparer une autre manifestation, non violente celle-là. Mais c'est la violence qui l'a tué. 176

Step 1 Question: LM--Quel événement est traité dans les deux articles?

Réponses possibles: 1. La mort de Martin Luther King.
2. L'assassinat de Martin Luther King.
Step 2 Teacher: "Il y a dans le premier paragraphe de chaque article une allusion à la conscience de la nation. De quelle façon la perception de cette conscience est-elle différente dans les deux versions de la tragédie?"

Before answering, the class will do two things:

1. Re-read silently the first paragraph of *Time*.
2. Listen and read simultaneously the first paragraph of *L'Express*. The teacher will either read it or play it on tape.

Réponses possibles:

L P -- 1. On suggère dans l'article français que la conscience de l'Amérique s'est tue mais on dit dans l'article américain que la conscience de l'Amérique vivait.

L M -- 2. L'auteur de l'article français n'a pas de foi dans la conscience américaine; l'auteur de l'article américain est fier de l'action du président des États-Unis.

L M -- 3. Le rapport du *Time* parle d'espoir et d'horreur, mais le rapport de *L'Express* est plus pessimiste.

LP follow-up. The teacher asks several students this question:

A votre avis est-ce que la voix de la conscience américaine s'est tue avec la mort de Martin Luther King? (Students must express at least agreement or disagreement using the expression "s'est tue."
They may if they wish and are able, add their reasons. But the exercise itself is partly a language exercise and partly an opinion question asked of several students.

Step 3 The teacher asks another question: Les deux auteurs décrivent la violence qui a suivi l'assassinat de Martin Luther King. Est-ce que les descriptions sont plutôt pareilles ou différentes?" (LM)

Réponses possibles:

(LM) 1. Je crois que les descriptions sont pareilles.
   Ils (teacher interrupts with "Elles") . . .
   Elles décrivent la violence. C'est tout."

(LM) 2. Je crois que les descriptions sont différentes.
   La description dans le Time est plus détaillée.
   La description française raconte seulement les faits.

Step 4 Teacher: Par quels moyens l'auteur de l'article français a-t-il interprété les événements?

Réponse possible: (LM) Il a cité les leaders noirs.

Teacher: Quels leaders noirs?

Réponse possible: (LM) James Meredith et Malcolm X

Teacher: Comment l'auteur américain a-t-il interprété les événements? Par des citations aussi?

Réponses possibles: (LM) 1. Par la citation de Hubert Humphrey.

      (LM) 2. Par ses propres idées aussi.
Teacher: Quelles idées?

Réponse possible:

(LP) Il croit que c'est une occasion de . . . bring together (Teacher provides "rapprocher.") . . . de rapprocher les deux races.

As with the expression "s'est tue" the teacher solicits different answers to the question, "Croyez-vous que la mort de Martin Luther King est une occasion de rapprocher les deux races?" He may also change to, "Croyez-vous que les deux races peuvent être rapprochées?"

In a linguistically strong, creative class, the teacher may ask, "Qui peut trouver d'autres différences dans ces deux articles?" With a weaker class, he will identify the differences himself and merely ask in what ways they are different.

Step 5 When all the possibilities have been exhausted, the teacher writes TIME on one side of the board and L'EXPRESS on the other. He designates one student to be the recorder and one student to be the group leader for the resume. He then gives the group leader the following assignment: "Davide, vous êtes le leader de ce groupe. Préparez un résumé des différences que nous venons de découvrir dans ces deux articles."
B. Cause and Effect

The following cause and effect question will again illustrate how a single question may be either LM or LP depending on the response elicited.

Question: (LM) Qu’est-ce qui cause (encourage, contribue au) le trichage en classe?

Réponses possibles:

(LM) 1. Il y a trop de compétition et trop d'examens.
2. On triche parce que les parents insistent sur les bonnes notes.
3. On triche pour tromper le système.
4. On triche parce que tout le monde le fait.

(LP) 5. On triche parce qu'il y a trop de---pressions?

(Teacher: "pressions"---pressions dans la vie.)

Teacher: Etes-vous d'accord, Christine? Croyez-vous qu'il y a trop de pressions dans notre société? (Christine answers)

Demandez à Pierre s'il croit qu'il y a trop de pressions dans la vie moderne. (Pierre answers)

Pierre, demandez à Julie si ses parents exercent beaucoup de pression pour la faire réussir.

Causal questions are most frequently introduced by the interrogative word "Why" ("Pourquoi"). However, two reservations must be made at this point. Social scientists realize that very few social phenomena have single causes. Also, the mere presence of "Why" does not lead to interpretative thinking if the student merely has to remember an answer.
already formulated in the text. For these reasons, perhaps the two best occasions for causal questions in an advanced foreign language class are in open-ended discussions where students are called on to state causes based on general experience ("Pourquoi est-ce qu'on triche?") or to apply knowledge previously learned, to a new problem.

Other examples of French causal questions are:

1. Expliquez la conduite de Mersault à la mort de sa mère. (Reference to the novel L'Etranger)
2. Comment le Francais peut-il admirer également Napoléon et Louis XIV?
3. Qu'est-ce qui a motivé le Concordat de Napoléon I?
4. Les américains croient que les Francais sont responsables pour la crise du dollar. Beaucoup d'euroéens affirment que c'est l'extravagance du gouvernement américain. Qui a raison?

C. Generalization to Example

One common type of generalization-to-example question involves matching particular case studies or behaviors with the appropriate concept, principle, or category.

Illustration VII:

Louis Borel est né dans un petit village de montagne au nord de Peyrane. Après avoir perdu ses parents très tôt, il a quitté sa montagne et il s'est mis à travailler comme il a pu, dans la région. Un peu après vingt ans, sachant à peine lire quelques chiffres et signer son nom, il est arrivé à Peyrane pour y travailler comme maçon. Il a fait la connaissance de Francoise Béchade. Elle avait son Certificat d'Etudes Primaires. Ils se sont mariés, et ensemble ils ont prospéré. Sa grande entreprise a été la construction de la maison du notaire. Pendant la guerre, avec son camion, il est allé vendre à la ville des produits des fermes environnantes. Depuis
la guerre, avec un plus gros camion, il fait tous les transports de fruits et de légumes au marché de Cavaillon et aux usines de fruits et de légumes confits à Apt. En hiver, il coupe du bois dans la montagne, il le scie, et il le vend dans le village. Il est le seul marchand de charbon à Peyrane, et c'est lui qui tient la station-service du village.

Evidemment Louis fait bien ses affaires. Mais rien dans sa façon de vivre ne le distingue de ses voisins. Les seuls signes extérieurs de sa richesse résident dans les cuves qu'il construit en face de chez lui, cuves où il pourra stocker des cerises et attendre, pour les vendre, que le marché lui soit favorable.

In a testing situation a class might be presented with the preceding case study of Louis Borel and with the following generalizations:

1. Le Francais est spontané, sociable et gai.
2. Le Francais a le sens de la mesure.
3. Le Francais a l'esprit critique.
4. Le Francais est spirituel.
5. Le Francais se méfie du gouvernement.

Question: (LM) Lesquelles des cinq caractéristiques énumérées ci-dessus Louis Borel représente-t-il le mieux?

A variation in this question type might be effected by merely presenting the case study and asking the class to write out the generalization in their own words.

This type of question lends itself very well to open-textbook lessons. For example, a class could be given the above generalizations and instructed to find case studies supporting the generalizations. After a period of time for research, the class could discuss their findings.

Another possible way of relating the concrete to the abstract would involve drawing upon the enormous riches of literature. At the
end of the last chapter, Nelson Brooks was quoted as saying that both literary and non-literary materials can provide particular examples of cultural concepts. We might add that the opposite is also true. Literature often provides haunting expressions of general truths which find their fulfillment in the accounts of history and current events. Such expressions might be presented as definitions for which students could be trained to find illustrations.

Illustration VIII (La Rochefoucauld):

Les passions sont les seuls orateurs qui persuadent toujours. Elles sont comme un art de la nature dont les règles sont infaillibles; et l'homme le plus simple qui a de la passion persuade mieux que le plus éloquent qui n'en a point.178

The following question is asked in the assumed context of a current events class which has just read the latest news "from the United States."

Question: IM—Comment les deux citations suivantes traduisent-elles l'idée de La Rochefoucauld?

Illustration IX:

J'ai fait un rêve, le rêve qu'un jour cette nation se lèvera pour accomplir la vérité de sa foi... que tous les hommes ont été créés égaux. J'ai fait le rêve qu'un jour, sur les rouges collines de Georgie, les fils des anciens esclaves et ceux des anciens maîtres iront s'asseoir ensemble à la table de la fraternité.179

Illustration X:

Nous sommes au Vietnam pour consolider l'ordre mondial. Abandonner le Vietnam ébranlerait la confiance dans la valeur des engagements américains.180
Other maxims of La Rochefoucauld which, by implication, relate to history and current events are:

Les hommes ne sont pas seulement sujets à perdre le souvenir des bienfaits et des injures; ils hâissent même ceux qui les ont obligés, et cessent de haïr ceux qui leur ont fait des outrages. L'application à récompenser le bien et à se venger du mal, leur paraît une servitude à laquelle ils ont peine à se soumettre. (How might this quote relate to France-German and Franco-American relations since World War II?)

Si nous n'avions points de défauts, nous ne prendrions pas tant de plaisir à en remarquer dans les autres.

L'amour-propre nous augmente ou nous diminue les bonnes qualités de nos amis à proportion de la satisfaction que nous avons d'eux; et nous jugeons de leur mérite par la manière dont ils vivent avec nous.

On fait souvent du bien pour pouvoir impunément faire du mal.

Les vertus se perdent dans l'intérêt, comme les fleuves se perdent dans la mer.

Nous ne trouvons guère de gens de bon sens que ceux qui sont de notre avis.

Ce qui nous rend la vanité des autres insupportable, c'est qu'elle blesse la nôtre.

Les querelles ne dureraient pas longtemps, si le tort n'était que d'un côté.

What was done here with La Rochefoucauld could very easily have been done with the statements of La Fontaine, Jean-Paul Sartre, and many other French writers. The only requirement is the presence of a teacher who thinks in terms of interrelationships.

Within the interpretation category, we will not illustrate quantitative relationships nor implications. Nor can we in this brief study illustrate all of the higher-level thinking operations that could be set up in a foreign language learning situation. Indeed, such
demonstrations can only be the result of long experimentation with the use of a taxonomy. Nor can these higher operations be developed independently of a general rise in the linguistic abilities of Levels III, IV, and V students. Moreover, if teachers of advanced foreign language classes could learn to implement on a widespread basis the question types proposed in the first three levels of this taxonomy, we would most probably see an immediate improvement in the quality of learning found in present foreign language social studies and cultural units.

CONCLUSIONS

In the first chapter of this study, we referred to the lack of equipment and materials as one of the common criticisms of the core curriculum. Now that certain social studies strategies and techniques have been identified for use in foreign language classes, we might return to this major point. Both the literature of social studies education and personal testimony suggest that the case study method (presentation of a particular event or episode) is one of the powerful new tools for teaching social content. Nelson Brooks has described what amounts to a case study approach, and he equates it with the teaching of culture. Yet a quick perusal of almost any foreign language civilization text will reveal a generalized deductive approach which rarely goes beyond the generalization. Laurence Wylie's Le Village en Vaucluse comes closest to a case study approach in the teaching of culture. What is clearly needed in the immediate future is an extensive commitment of funds to the development of concrete sociocultural materials recorded in the foreign country in specific
life situations, and organized around basic sociocultural concepts or analytical questions. In his book *Language and Language Learning*, Nelson Brooks presents an extensive list of such questions. The profession has yet to make available materials which could systematically answer these questions. It is a curious fact that there are over one hundred major social studies curriculum revision projects and fewer than a half-dozen significant foreign language curriculum projects.

With respect to specific social studies courses taught in a foreign language, the materials problem is likewise the most critical. In the foreign language history courses observed by this writer, there was no indication that the objectives were designed for anything but the transmission of factual information. To a certain extent this was understandable in view of the materials scarcity. However, there was no evidence of use of foreign radio and TV broadcasts or other specially edited recorded materials. In foreign language programs built upon an audio-lingual foundation, this is most unfortunate. Wilga Rivers, Mary Thompson, Emma Birkmaier and other leaders in the profession have long stressed the importance of repeating and varying the oral stimulus to language learning in advanced levels. Without an abundance of recorded materials social studies courses will tend to slip into the visual mould which stifles the teaching of literature. Again, what is needed is a commitment by the profession to procure and to make available resources which individual teachers cannot obtain for themselves. The work of Professor Corrin at Goucher College might serve as a model for a permanent national committee engaging in this type of work.
Professor Corrin is now receiving tapes on a regular basis from all parts of the world. Without supporting materials, the design of a foreign language core program cannot be implemented and the movement will come to a halt.

In the first chapter, this study was set up as a preparatory service for teachers planning social studies or cultural units in French III, IV, or V. As it has evolved, the strategies and techniques relate strongly to cognitive verbal behaviors. Since neither foreign language nor social studies classes are concerned exclusively with the cognitive and the verbal, we must now admit this additional limitation to our study. However, a large part of effective language teaching consists of stimulating communication. In the advanced levels, this means stimulating relatively free communication. The strategies and techniques of chapters IV and V can make contributions to the accomplishment of this objective despite the limitations already discussed.

Social studies curriculum development has many things to offer the foreign language teaching profession. Perhaps the most important is the need for a two-dimensional definition of objectives in terms of process (or skill) and content. In teaching the sociocultural context, this means identifying not only categories of concepts but also the kind of language behavior that is expected in the classroom. John Dewey has viewed content and method as two points on the single continuum which is the learning process. We must implement this thought in advanced foreign language classes as it is being implemented in the newer social studies curriculum projects. The Carnegie format involving
integrated readings and references to Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* may be one way of doing this. It is speculated here that a two-dimensional taxonomy of foreign language questions may be another. One-day developmental lesson plans and programmed open-textbook lessons may likewise provide a framework within which both process and product may be planned.

This study has identified a social studies teaching strategy which offers much promise for foreign language classrooms—the directed discussion. Rooted as it is in particular knowledge and experience, its potential will not be exploited without extensive experimentation in real classroom situations. Its unique value lies in the double characteristic of being both a stimulant to social interaction and a strategy for lifting the thought level of an entire group.

There is nothing in the literature of social studies education nor in the counsel of social studies experts to suggest an abandonment of everything that is old. Lecture has its place in the total inventory of teaching techniques, and literature has an important contribution to make to interdisciplinary study. What seems to be suggested by the experts is an eclectic approach to any methodology that is designed to accomplish the complex objectives of the present age. That is the ultimate recommendation of this study.
APPENDIX A

TRANSLATION GUIDE FOR CHAPTER V

p. 105 Exercise I - Scrambled Outline (Grands Problèmes etc.)

MAJOR PROBLEMS--The principal obstacle to the development of France since 1945 has been the wars which continued in Indo China and in Algeria. They have just terminated. The money they required is now used to build more of the bright and practical dwellings which modern architecture offers. There is also a housing shortage in France, caused by the war and also by tradition, which prevents a Frenchman from spending more than 10% of his income for housing; it is 25% in the United States.

Alcoholism is the plague of many countries, and of France in particular, because wine, alcohol, and cocktails are cheap. The Frenchman likes to go to the cafe; it's a kind of social and intellectual club for him. One notes with pleasure, however, that the young people prefer to use their money for lodging, for buying a car, for camping, skiing etc.

Naturally world insecurity weighs heavily on France as on other nations. Her young men must perform 18 months of military service; ridiculous sums are spent to explode atomic bombs and to send satellites into space when we have so great a need to discover an effective remedy for heart diseases, cancer and even the common cold.

p. 113 Exhibit B Directed Discussion in a Foreign Language Class

(Désignant le stand etc.)

Pointing out the General Motors platform, Mr. Pierre Dreyfus, President of Renault was saying to General De Gaulle:

Mr. President, there's the enemy.

Mr. Director, I have been telling you that for the last twenty years.
In the above reading a teacher might decide upon three oral questions to test understanding:

1. What kind of work does Mr. Pierre Dreyfus do?
2. Who is the enemy?
3. Why?

Episodes 1, 2, 3

Episode 1

Student: De Gaulle is an ingrate.

Teacher: Why?

Student: Because he has received so much American aid and now he is chasing us.

Episode 2

Student: De Gaulle is crazy.

Teacher: What do you mean by crazy?

Student: He doesn't know what he is doing.

Episode 3

Student: The French detest us but they take our money.

Teacher: Don't we also take their money? In other words, don't they buy American products?

Student: They take more than they buy.

Examples of facts:

1. Mr. Stokley Carmichael arrived in Cairo.
2. After four days of cease-fire, the Chinese and Indian troops exchanged their dead.
3. An American journalist accuses President Johnson of having torpedoed a possibility of talks with Hanoi.
4. The finance ministers of black French Africa met at Dakar.
5. For the first time since last June 5 the weekly Paris Match was sold Saturday in Algiers.
p. 122 Examples of opinions

(1) The Gallup Poll believes that the rise in popularity for Mr. Rockefeller is the most important political fact in several weeks.

(2) For the majority of observers, it is unlikely that the new appeal of the Secretary General will be followed by any action in the near future.

(3) In the eyes of the Secretary General, any negotiation between Washington and Hanoi would have as its only purpose to "facilitate the participation of the people of Vietnam to decide their own destiny."

(4) Freedom explodes in the East.

(5) London, that city born of water, so beautiful in the cold air which carries the promise of spring, seemed last week both frivolous and haggard.

p. 123 Reading: "Vietnam: General De Gaulle's Seven-Part Plan," by Raymond Tournoux

The great design for national independence remains evidently the concern which incessantly dominates the preoccupations of Gen. De Gaulle. The trip to Russia of Mr. Alain Peyrefitte, delegated minister, charged with scientific research, the realization of Franco-Soviet agreements for cooperation, the tedious and difficult projects concerning collaboration in spatial matters, reveal the Gaullist concern for trying to counterbalance, as much as possible, American power on the technical level.

On Vietnam, De Gaulle specified what could be considered a seven-point plan:

---Cease fighting; start removing all foreign troops by a given date (spaced over two years); negotiation with a view toward an international conference of the Geneva type; establishment of rigorous controls over North and South Vietnam; interdiction of all interference; agreement by the two Vietnam's to respect a policy of strict neutrality; maintenance of two Vietnams for an indefinite period, the problem of reunification belonging exclusively to Hanoi and Saigon; signing of an international treaty by the major powers and by the countries directly concerned.

In Paris just as at Washington before President Johnson, Mr. Couve de Murville explained that the longer we wait the greater is the danger that a communist government will be established at Saigon. A risk exists, he said, but this risk is not yet unavoidable. According to
the minister of foreign affairs, serious differences exist between the North and the South sufficient to warrant the conclusion that the government of the South would not be the same as the government of the North.

Behind these analyses recurs one basic idea, a realization that the age has changed from a monolithic form of communism. Illusion for some people, the hope of Gen. De Gaulle remains this: freed from the fighting, Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh would quickly find the road to their independence vis-à-vis China.

p. 126 Le Village en Vaucluse (Le Cafe, Terrain Neutre)

While the family offers to each of its members its recreation and its duties, the cafe remains almost the only place where people can find entertainment in public.

That's not of course the only function of the cafe. Specializing in the sale of drinks, alcoholic and otherwise, the cafe here is also a tobacco shop. That is, the government authorizes it to sell all the articles over which it has a monopoly: matches, lighters, cigarettes, tobacco, stamps etc. But the cafe is above all a public place where everyone enters freely, to rest or to refresh himself. For discussing something in private, without being disturbed, there is always a peaceful table.

So many people of all kinds frequent the cafe, so many stories are told there, and so much news circulates there that it naturally becomes a kind of information bureau. The town secretary passes through twice a day. The doctor has a cocktail every time he stops at the village. The inhabitants who have left the commune, who come to Peyrane only for serious business, always enter to say hello to the cafe owner and his wife; they have a glass and they bring news of their region. The mailman leaves oral messages which he picked up on his route. And so the cafe owner and his wife become informed of everything that is happening in the commune.

p. 128 Actions that take place at a cafe

1. Sell drinks, alcoholic and otherwise
2. Sell matches, lighters
3. Sell cigarettes, tobacco
4. Sell stamps
5. Meet anyone
6. Find a peaceful table
7. Tell stories  
8. Say hello to the cafe owner and his wife  
9. Have a cocktail  
10. Play "boules"  
11. Play cards (La manille, la belote)  
12. See a film  
13. Exchange gossip  
14. Get information  
15. Offer to buy a round of drinks  

p. 130  
1. How would you ask for cigarettes in a cafe?  
2. What reply might a cafetier make to this?  
3. What would you then answer?  
4. How would you greet a friend you met there?  
5. How would you invite him to your table to hear some news?  
6. What gossip might you tell him?  
7. What reaction might he make?  
8. What drinks would you order?  
9. What reason might you have for leaving?  
10. When might you see him again?  

p. 131  
1. Mr. Fouquet enters the cafe, meet his friend Dr. Jibelin and invites him to have a cocktail.  
2. The doctor refuses the cocktail but orders a coffee.  
3. Mr. Fouquet invites him to his table in the rear of the cafe.  
4. The doctor accepts.
5. Mr. Fouquet asks him about his wife, who is visiting a sister in the United States.

6. Dr. Jibelin answers that she is enjoying herself except for the food.

7. Mr. Fouquet talks about his trip to New York during which he was robbed of all his money.

8. Dr. Jibelin refers to himself as a bachelor and invites his friend to a game of "belote" that evening.

9. Mr. Fouquet accepts, becomes aware of the time and takes leave of his friend.

p. 133

Mr. Fouquet enters the cafe, meets his friend Dr. Jibelin, and asks him if he would like to have a cocktail. The doctor refuses (he never drinks while making calls) but agrees to have some coffee. Mr. Fouquet sees a table in the rear and invites his friend to go there. The doctor agrees. Mr. Fouquet asks him about his wife who is visiting a sister in the United States, and learns that she is enjoying herself except for the food (What criticism might a Frenchman make about American food?). Mr. Fouquet remembers his own trip to New York, during which he was mugged in a subway (What comments might a Frenchman make about crime in the United States?). Dr. Jibelin feels like a bachelor now that his wife is gone and he spends most of his free time in the cafe. He invites Mr. Fouquet to a game of cards (belote) that evening. Mr. Fouquet accepts, notices the time, and returns to work.

p. 135 STATING THE ISSUE

There are in all systems of education two opposing tendencies, of which one leans toward freedom and the other toward constraint. In integrating these two tensions, each society creates a balance (or blend) which is unlike that of every other nation. One society emphasizes freedom; another underscores discipline imposed from without.

In this unit, we are going to examine some documents and some case studies of education in France. Our aim will be to identify certain French points of view on the role of discipline in the education of children. We will use information that is both historical and contemporary, literary and "real". It is very possible that each reading will have a unique interest and value. It is to you the students, to decide the merits of each contribution, to relate it to what you have experienced at school, and finally, to assimilate it into your own system of values.
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6. Dr. Jibelin answers that she is enjoying herself except for the food.

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p. 133

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We live in an age when everything changes almost daily. Nevertheless, we, like the French, are the heirs of a culture which is difficult to reject, because it has served us so well. Throughout this unit you will be asked to reflect upon the education you have received in order to compare it with the ideas presented in the readings and to weigh it against the needs of modern living. Naturally, there will be exercises to help you in this task.

p. 136 Introduction (to EMILE)

Jean-Jacques Rousseau, a famous 18th century writer, stands for the most extreme sentiments of those who oppose a rigid and severe education. Therefore he wrote in 1762 a famous book about education entitled Emile. The following excerpt expresses the principal thought of this work.

B. Analytic questions

1. What is the theme of this reading?

2. How does Rousseau justify his position?

3. Could the arguments of Rousseau be repeated today? Are they?

4. What fact mentioned by Rousseau is no longer true?

p. 136 C. Lecture: L'enfant doit jouir de la vie

C. Reading: "The child must enjoy life"

Although they assign almost the longest period to human life ..., nothing is more uncertain than the length of life of each particular man; very few reach this longest period. The greatest risks to life are in its beginning; the less one has lived, the less one must hope to live. Of the children who are born, one-half at the most reach the age of adolescence; and it is probable that your child will not reach the age of manhood.

What must one think then of this barbarous education which sacrifices the present to an uncertain future, which charges a child with chains of any kind, and begins by making him miserable in order to prepare him long before for some vague imaginary happiness of which he is to believe that he will never enjoy it? The age of gaiety passes in the midst of tears, chastisements, threats, slavery. We torment the unfortunate for his own good; and we do not see the death which we are inviting, and which will seize him in the midst of this sad experience. Who knows how many children perish victims of the unbridled wisdom of a father or master?
Men, be human, that is your first duty; be so for every state, for every age, for all which is not alien to man. What wisdom is there for you outside humanity? Love childhood; favor its games, its pleasures, its loving instinct. Who among you has not regretted at some time that age when laughter was always on the lips, and when the soul was always at peace? Why do you want to take away from these little innocents the enjoyment of a time so brief which is fleeing from them, and of a good so precious which they would not know how to abuse? Why do you want to fill with bitterness and woes these first rapid years, which will not return for them any more than they can return for you?

How many voices are going to rise against me. I hear in the distance the clamors of that false wisdom which takes us endlessly outside ourselves, which counts the present always as nothing, and pursuing relentlessly a future which flees as one approaches, in order to transport us where we are not, transports us where we will never be.

In order not to run after fantasies, let's not forget what is becoming to our condition. Humanity has its place in the order of things; childhood has its in the order of human life: it is necessary to look at the man in a man, and the child in a child. To assign to each his place and stick to it, to regulate human passions according to the constitution of man, is all we can do for his well being. The rest depends on outside causes which are not in our power.

The following reading was written by a famous teacher at a Parisian lycée. It reflects a philosophy which is an essential part of the French system (at least until present). The critics of the system have always claimed that it served only a small percentage of the population. Nevertheless, the French are proud of the "serious" attitude which pervades their schools. Perhaps it would be useful to know whether this philosophy is in any way related to the general criticism of the system. In any event, it is obvious that the philosophy of Maître Alain is vastly different from that of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (treated in the first reading).

B. Analytic questions

1. What is the main idea in this reading?

2. According to Alain, what is the role of boredom in education?

3. What does he say about the study of languages?
C. Reading: (Man is formed by toil)

I do not have much faith in these kindergartens and other inventions by means of which one tries to teach by entertaining. The method is not effective for men either. I could cite men who pass for educated and who are bored by *La Chartreuse de Parme* or *Lys dans la Vallée*. They read only second-rate works, in which everything is laid out to please at first glance; but by giving in to easy pleasures, they lose a higher pleasure that they would have conquered with a little courage and attention.

There is no experience which teaches better than the discovery of a higher pleasure, which one would have always ignored if he had not first taken a little trouble. Montaigne is difficult; that is because it is first necessary to know him, to orient oneself to him, to find him; only then does one discover him. Likewise geometry taught by blocks can amuse; but the most rigorous problems also give a keener pleasure. It is thus that the pleasure of reading a piece of piano music is in no way possible in the first lessons; it is necessary to be bored first...

How do you learn a language? By the great writers, in no other way. By the most well-knit, the richest and the most profound phrases and not by the silly sentences of a conversation manual. To learn first, and then to open up all these treasures ... I do not see how the child can be raised without admiration and without veneration; it is in that way that he is a child; and truth consists of surpassing those sentiments when reason develops endlessly all the human richness, at first vaguely felt.

p. 143 Lecture III - Sanctions (A. Introduction)

Wherever men gather, there must be order. Schools are not exempt from this rule. If there are differing viewpoints on the proper activity of the school, there are equally differing views about discipline. It is especially in this area that cultural differences are most striking. You have all undergone varying methods of discipline for the last twelve years—which has perhaps already made you think about the kind of discipline most favorable to education. In this reading we will see a (disciplinary) technique often used in France.

B. Analytic questions

1. Summarize the first scene described in the reading.

2. What do you think of it?

3. What is the difference between the correctional technique used by the teacher and the ones which you experience every day?
C. Reading: (Discipline: Courtesy and Neatness)

In class, one of the most effective sanctions consists of shaming the student and turning the others against him. One day, in Madame Vernet's class, I witnessed the following scene:

'Ah, Monsieur, you arrive at just the right moment,' said the teacher. 'Look at this dictation. Have you ever seen anything more sloppy? Six mistakes in three lines, and an ink spot on top of that. Look, sir, she wrote "ses" instead of "c'est," and the sentence doesn't make any sense. It's stupid, stupid! And I thought she was intelligent. It's laziness. She could do good work if she wanted to. But no, she prefers to stay there dreaming in her seat. And to think that she wants to present herself for the "Certificat." What shame that would be for the school and for her parents. I will not recommend her. What candidate could pass who writes "ses" in a dictation instead of "c'est?"

A delicate situation for the visitor. The other students laughed sarcastically. The accused began to cry.

'There. Now you cry. As if that could help you write a dictation. No, you will stay after class. And we will do this dictation over until you do it well!'

Another way of shaming a student consists of comparing the results of his work with those of another student who did better than was expected.

---Seven times nine, Mary?

---I don't know, Madame.

---Ah! She doesn't know how much seven times nine are. The whole class knows it. Everyone, how much are seven times nine?

With a roar the whole class answers.

You see, Mary, everyone here knows it. Do you know how much seven times eight are?

-----

---No, obviously she doesn't know it. Aren't you ashamed? Even Alan knows it, and he stayed home sick for a month. How much are seven times eight, Alan?

---Fifty-six, Madame.

---You see, Mary, even Alan knew it, and you are more intelligent than he. You haven't learned your multiplication table, have you?
No, Madame.

---Well, you will stay here during recess and you will learn the seven table, and if you do not know if after recess, you will remain after school. Understand?

And the child punished in this way can count on the pity or the sympathy of no one.

p. 146 Exercise 1

Read the roles listed below and decide whether each role holds a more important place in French culture or in American culture. If, in your opinion, a certain role is found equally in both cultures, place an "X" only under the correct country. The first role is offered as an example.

ROLES

1. Submit to rules
2. Copy and repeat
3. Express one's personality
4. Memorize
5. Resign oneself to his fate
6. Play
7. Respect the teacher
8. Learn teamwork
9. Be stoic
10. Doubt
11. Study morality
12. Appreciate grammar
13. Learn many facts
14. Argue with a teacher
f. Assignment: Write a paragraph which summarizes what you have learned in the three readings. If you wish, you may follow one of the following plans:

(1) Say what Rousseau believed about education.
   Say what Alain thinks
   Describe a situation in which you find yourself in a French school; mention the different attitudes you would have to assume.

(2) Write a short dialogue between a French teacher and an American student who has just registered in a Parisian lycée. Imagine the counsel which the teacher would give to this student.

Before studying the history of French Civilization, it is good to know the country in which it developed. That is what we wish to present to you.

Look at the map. France has the shape of a hexagon, whose boundaries are made by nature on five sides; the North Sea, La Manche, the Atlantic Ocean, the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean Ocean, the Alps, the Jura and the Rhine; but on the sixth side, the boundary is conventional; nothing separates France from Germany, Luxembourg and Belgium. By American standards, the territory marked off is small: 550,000 square kilometers (212,000 sq. miles), or about 1/15 of the United States. Nevertheless, except for Russia, France is the largest state in Europe. And it is especially a very diverse country, although history and culture have formed a united nation there.

No other country of a comparable size presents such diverse regions. To study it, we are going to group them according to topography and the nature of the soil: these are in fact the two geographical factors which have influenced most profoundly the way of life of the people. Resources, division of population, even climate, everything changes according to whether one is talking about the high mountains, the low mountains or the plains.

SITUATION--Area. My friends, look at a map of Europe. See how this continent becomes more slender toward the West. Portugal and Spain are the most Western countries. Next is France, which seems to go out joyously toward America to wish her welcome, head high and arms open. That head is Brittany, that arm is the peninsula where the armies of General Eisenhower broke the German front.
France is situated an equal distance from the north pole and the equator. It is almost opposite the boundary which separates the United States from Canada, but almost three thousand miles to the East. France's time is therefore five hours ahead of that in the Eastern part of the U.S.—six hours in winter since they don't set back their clocks. The northern boundary of France is even with Hudson Bay; its southern extremity is on the same latitude as Detroit. Paris is about at the latitude of Quebec or Seattle. If the Gulf Stream, which flows toward it at the speed of five miles an hour didn't warm its coasts, France would have in the winter a more severe climate than the northern part of the United States.

Compared to the United States with its fifty separate states, France is a very small country, seventeen times smaller. It is smaller than the state of Texas, one-third the size of California and four times the size of New York; and yet next to Russia, France is the largest country in Europe.

The dimensions of France are almost the same from north to south—from Dunkirk to the Pyrenees—and from west to east—from Brest to Strasbourg—that is, about six-hundred miles. That is the approximate distance from San Francisco to the Grand Canyon. In two days, without hurrying, one can cross France by car. That would still be too fast for there are so many beautiful things to see and so many fine people with whom to chat!

The shape of France is that of a hexagon, almost regular; it is compact like that of the United States, which is more a rectangle.

Boundaries. France is limited in the North by Calais and the North Sea; in the Northwest by a conventional line which separates it from Belgium, Luxembourg and Germany; in the East by the Rhine, the Jura and the Alps which separate it respectively from Germany, Switzerland and Italy; in the South by the Mediterranean Sea and the Pyrenees; in the West by the Atlantic Ocean and La Manche. France therefore has natural boundaries on five sides of the hexagon which it forms. It is however, far from isolated; it links the Mediterranean countries and those which the Atlantic Ocean touches. It occupies a privileged geographic position, in the heart of Western Europe.

If one compares it to the United States of America, France is a small country, having about 550,000 kilometers, which represents about twice the area of the state of New York. But it's the largest country in Europe—with the exception of Russia, which is ten times larger. France now has 45 million inhabitants among whom there are a million and a half foreigners. By population, France is twelfth in the world. In Europe it is fifth behind Russia, Germany, Great Britain and Italy.
If you look at the map of Europe, you will see that France is situated at the extreme western part of the continent. As neighboring countries it has Belgium on the North, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy on the East, and Spain on the South. The Pyrenees separate France from Spain. The Alps and the Vosges are between France and her neighbors in the East, Italy and Switzerland, but the northeast boundary does not have a natural defense. This boundary, which is almost 450 kilometers, separates France and Germany and France and Luxembourg... It was to avoid the places heavily fortified by the French on the German boundary that the German armies attacked France twice (1914 and 1939) by going through Luxembourg and Belgium.

From the Spanish boundary to the Belgian boundary, ... France is about 975 kilometers long with an average width of 880 kilometers; from North to South therefore, one crosses about the same distance as New York to Chicago. Its latitude, equal distance from the north pole to the equator, places France squarely in the temperate zone, but the climate of this country is not the same everywhere. The North, for example, is humid and exposed to the seawinds. The South, on the other hand, which is bathed by the Mediterranean, has a rather dryer climate, with rather hot summers and mild winters.

In the West of France is the Atlantic Ocean. The French give the name of La Manche to the sea which separates them from England. To cross La Manche from Douvres to Calais, a distance of 39 miles, it takes only one and one-half hour by boat. Because of the Common Market, we hear quite a bit these days about construction of a tunnel under La Manche or a bridge capable of reuniting the two countries by railroad or automobile.

France is situated in the Western extremity of Europe. Roughly, it has the shape of a hexagon, that is a six-sided geometric figure. On three of its sides it is bordered by seas. In the Northwest, the North Sea and La Manche separate it from England. In the West is the Atlantic Ocean and in the South the Mediterranean Sea. Two other sides link it to continental Europe: in the Northeast, a conventional boundary separates it from Belgium, Luxembourg and Germany. In the East, a boundary, more or less natural (the Rhine and some chains of mountains), links it to Germany, Switzerland and Italy. The last side of the hexagon is formed by the chain of the Pyrenees which serves as a boundary between France and Spain.

From Dunkirk in the North to Perpignan in the South, and from Brest in the West to Strasbourg in the East, the distance is about the same, 1,000 kilometers or about 600 miles. The area of France is 500,000 square kilometers, that is, it is 16 times smaller than the United States. At the last census in 1957, there were 44 million inhabitants, which gives an average population density of 84 inhabitants per square kilometer, while in the U.S. it is only 21.
There are five chains of mountains in France: the Jura, the Vosges, the Massif Central, the Pyrenees and the Alps. As the map indicates, these mountains occupy one-half, the south-south-east of the hexagon, while the remainder is more or less a large plain which continues the vast plain of the Northwest of Europe.

The Massif Central, as its name indicates, occupies the center of France. It's an old chain of mountains where one finds a great number of volcanos. The Vosges in the East are likewise former "massifs" with their summits rounded and slightly elevated. The Pyrenees in the South-South-West, are much younger mountains whose summits reach 3,000 meters. Passages called "portes" permit crossing into Spain. Finally, the Jura, and especially the Alps, also of recent formation, cover a large part of central Europe. In the Alps one very high and ragged peaks called "aguilles," and perpetual snow. It's in the Alps that Mont Blanc is situated, the highest summit in France and in Europe (4,807 meters).

Bonaparte had been named consul for 10 years in 1800. He had himself named consul for life in 1802. But he wanted more--he wanted to be truly the successor to the kings of France. In 1804 he had given to himself the title of emperor; he took the name of Napoleon I.

Questions: LM—When had Bonaparte been named consul?  
LP—Why did he have himself made emperor?

1. When did Napoleon have himself made first consul?  
2. When did Napoleon have himself made consul for life?  
3. When did Napoleon have himself made emperor?  
4. How did Napoleon make peace with the Church? (by a treaty with the Pope, by the Concordat)  
5. How did Napoleon make peace with England (by the Treaty of Amiens in 1802)?  
6. How did Napoleon make peace with the loyalists (by bringing back the exiled)?  
7. How did Napoleon make himself loved by the French?
... the increasing financial difficulties of the King Louis XVI forced him to consult the nation. As a result, the king had to convoke the "Etats-Généraux" for the first time since 1614. This was the assembly in which representatives of the entire nation sat, that is, the deputies of the high clergy, the nobility, and the people.

Question—LM—What is the assembly of the Etats-Généraux?

Possible answers: It was an assembly of the entire nation.

It was an assembly of the high clergy, the nobility, and the people.

This Europe has a glorious past. A small indented cape, which represents only 5% of the lands on the planet, has invented everything, created everything, exported everything. Western civilization has been accepted by America, by Africa, by Oceania and partly by Asia. What was this civilization? It took liberty from Greece; law from Rome; from Christianity, descended from Judea, it took love. This triple force permitted it to become universal. The barrier of Islam having closed the routes from the East, it thrust itself bravely to the West, toward the ocean. On the banks of the mysterious Western world it founded great nations: the United States, Brazil, Argentina, Canada. Why these successes? Because it had the taste for action and because it had discovered the experimental method which, in two centuries, upset science and technology..."

Question: LP—In what consisted the glory of Western civilization?

Possible answers: The glory of Western civilization consisted of a triple force: liberty, law and love.

The glory of Western civilization includes (comprenait) the taste for action and the experimental method.

(There is no worse blind man than the one who does not want to see)

Louis XV had a strange dream one night. He thought he saw four cats fighting near him: a fat one, a skinny one, a one-eyed cat and a blind cat. This dream troubled him greatly; he was so bothered by it that he appeared very anxious the next morning when he saw his
valet de chambre. The latter was troubled by what was bothering His Majesty, and Louis XV, without having to be asked, told about his dream. The valet de chambre listened to him gravely, his chin in his hand, then he said with all possible deference:

If Your Majesty wishes, I can give him the explanation for this dream.

The king assented, nodding his head.

--Speak then, said the sovereign.

--But I hope Your Majesty will not accuse me of having forgotten for an instant the respect that I owe him.

--No, continue, speak with confidence, I tell you.

--Well, sire, said the servant, the skinny cat represents your people.

--Ah, said the king, a confused people.

--The fat cat is the body of creditors.

--I believe it, said the king. And he smiled to encourage the valet who continued thus:

--The one-eyed cat represents your Council of Ministers.

--Indeed, that's quite possible. But the fourth, who is he?

The valet de chambre stopped, embarrassed; he opened, closed his mouth.

--The fourth, he said finally, the blind cat, is Your Majesty who does not want to see anything.

The impertinence was great, but the king did not wish to become angry, and said only:

--Well. Funny, how can things go on in a country where valets teach their masters?

Questions: LM--Describe the dream of Louis XV.

Possible answer: Louis XV had a strange dream. He saw four cats fighting near him.
LP—What was the reaction of the valet during the king's narration?

Possible answer: He listened to the king gravely, his chin in his hand.

LM—What interpretation did he give to the dream?

Answer 1 — He said that the skinny cat represented the people.

Answer 2 — He said that the fat cat represented the body of creditors.

Answer 3 — He said that the one-eyed cat represented the Council of Ministers.

Answer 4 — He said that the blind cat represented the king himself.

p. 165

Can the President of the Republic dissolve the National Assembly?

Can the President of the United States dissolve the American Congress?

Can the English prime minister dissolve the English Parliament?

Can the Canadian prime minister dissolve the Canadian Parliament?

Under what condition can the President of the Republic dissolve the National Assembly? (on the request of the Council of Ministers)

p. 169 In the article from L'Express only the paragraphs used in the illustration are being translated here.

(United States: Martin Luther King Swept Away by Violence)

First paragraph:

His voice was the uneasy conscience of America. It became stilled last Thursday in Memphis, Tenn., the capital of cotton. That day at 7:15 p.m. the pastor Martin Luther King, 39 years old, civil rights hero, prophet of non-violence and Nobel Price winner for peace was assassinated. On the racial front in 1968 America was expected the worst. The worst happened.

p. 173 Step 2 There is in the first paragraph of each article a reference to the conscience of the nation. How does the perception of this conscience differ in the two versions of the tragedy?
Possible answers: (LP) 1. It is suggested in the French article that the conscience of America has been quieted but it is stated in the American article that the conscience of America was alive.

(LM) 2. The author of the French article doesn't have any faith in the American conscience; the author of the American article is proud of the action of the President of the United States.

LM The report from Time speaks of hope and horror, but the report from L'Express is more pessimistic.

p. 174 Step 3 The two writers describe the violence which followed the assassination. Are the descriptions alike or different?

Section of the article beginning with the subtitle, "La Réponse"

For the blacks, it is no longer the time for prayer. The stupor felt immediately after the death of Dr. King quickly turned to anger. In Washington, Snick (non-violent student organization) issued a call for a general strike. The directors of CORE made a proclamation: Non-violence disappeared with King. And James Meredith, the first black to enter the University of Mississippi, at the cost of several riots, and also an advocate of non-violence, declared after the crime: That's the answer of America to those who use the peaceful way to obtain their rights in this country.

Then, in Washington, in Boston, in Raleigh, in Nashville, in Jackson, in Harlem, where 7000 police were on a state of alert, in Memphis where 4000 National Guard patrolled, bands of negroes, drunk with rage, burned, pillaged and looted.

p. 174 Possible answers: (LM) 1. I believe that the descriptions are alike. They describe the violence. That's all.

(LM) 2. I believe that the descriptions are different. The description in Time is more detailed. The French description tells only the facts.

p. 174 Step 4 Teacher: By what devices did the author of the French article interpret the events:

Possible answer: (LM) He quoted black leaders.

Teacher: What black leaders?

Possible answer: (LM) James Meredith and Malcolm X

Teacher: How did the American author interpret the events: By quotes also?
Possible answers: (LM) 1. By the quote from Mr. Humphrey.
                      2. By his own ideas too.

Teacher: What ideas?

Possible answer: (LP) He thinks that it's an opportunity to ... bring together the two races.

p. 176 B. Cause and Effect

Question: (LM) What causes (encourages, contributes to) cheating in class?

Possible answers: (LM) 1. There is too much competition and too many tests.
                      2. You cheat because parents insist on good grades.
                      3. You cheat to beat the system.
                      4. You cheat because everyone does it.
                      (LP) 5. You cheat because there are too many pressures in life.

p. 177

1. Explain the behavior of Mersault on the death of his mother.

2. How can the Frenchman admire equally Napoleon and Louis XIV?

3. What motivated (prompted) the Concordat of Napoleon I?

4. Americans believe that the French are responsible for the dollar crisis. Many Europeans hold that it's the extravagance of the American government. Who is right?

p. 177 Illustration VII

Louis Borel was born in a little mountain village to the North of Peyrane. After having lost his parents very early, he left the mountain and began to work anyway he could in the region. Shortly after age 20, hardly knowing how to read some numbers and write his name, he arrived in Peyrane to work as a mason. He met Francoise Béchade. She had her Certificat d'Etudes Primaires. They got married and together they prospered. His great undertaking was the construction of the notary's house. During the war, with his truck, he went to sell farm products in town for the neighboring farms. Since the
war, with a larger truck, he transports all the fruits and vegetables to the market place at Cavaillon and to the confectionary factories at Apt. In the winter he cuts wood in the mountains, saws it and sells it in the village. He is the only charcoal merchant in Peyrane, and he's the one who has the gas station.

Obviously Louis does well in business. But nothing in his way of living distinguishes him from his neighbors. The only exterior signs of wealth reside in the vats which he built across from him, vats in which he will be able to store cherries and wait until the market is favorable before selling them.

p. 178 Generalizations

1. The Frenchman is spontaneous, sociable and gay.

2. The Frenchman has a sense of value, i.e. common sense.

3. The Frenchman has a critical spirit.

4. The Frenchman is witty.

5. The Frenchman mistrusts the government. (a possible answer)

Question: (LM) Which of these five traits listed above does Louis Borel represent best?

p. 179 Illustration VIII (La Rochefoucauld):

Passions are the only orators which always persuade. They are like an art in nature whose rules are infallible; and the simplest man who has passion persuades better than the most eloquent who does not have any.

Illustration IX

I had a dream, the dream that one day this nation would rise to fulfill the truth of its faith...that all men are created equal. I had the dream that one day, on the red hills of Georgia, the sons of former slaves and those of former masters would sit together at the table of brotherhood.

Illustration X

We are in Vietnam to consolidate world security. To abandon Vietnam would shake the confidence in the worth of American commitments.
Men are not only likely to forget favors and injuries; they even hate those to whom they are obliged, and stop hating those who have injured them. The responsibility of paying back the good and avenging the evil appears to them a servitude that they can hardly bear.

If we didn't have any faults, we wouldn't take so much pleasure in noticing them in others.

If we didn't have any faults, we wouldn't take so much pleasure in noticing them in others.

p. 180 Self-love raises us or lowers the good qualities of our friends according to the satisfaction that we get from them; and we judge their merit by the way they accommodate themselves to us.

One often does well in order to be able to do evil with impunity.

Virtues are lost in self-interest, as rivers are lost in the sea.

We rarely find sensible people except those who agree with us.

What makes the vanity of others unbearable is that it wounds our own.

Disputes would not last long if only one side was in the wrong.
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