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The Tenth Anniversary of the Center for Applied Linguistics

by John Lotz

[John Lotz is Director of the Center for Applied Linguistics]

The Center for Applied Linguistics began its activities on February 17, 1959. In the decade following, the Center, under the leadership of Charles A. Ferguson, assisted by an ever-growing, able staff, has developed from a three-man clearinghouse to an operation far-ranging both geographically and in scope. John Hurt Fisher, Executive Secretary of the Modern Language Association of America and Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Center (1964-68), sums up the development of the Center in the following way (PMLA Vol. LXXXII, No. 3, June 1967):

"The Center has achieved international stature as a clearinghouse for information about linguistics and as the organizer and agent for such activities in linguistics as the Linguistic Reporter, a distinguished series of independent publications, cooperation with national commissions of other countries concerned with languages of wider communication, Latin-American linguistics congresses, socio-linguistics conferences, annual meetings with government officials to survey the enormous Federal commitment to the teaching of English as a second language, assisting in the creation of the ETS [Educational Testing Service]-administered tests of English as a second language, strengthening the international linguistics bibliography, conducting studies of urban language problems, developing promising self-instructional devices for foreign language learning—the list could be greatly extended. Until 1964 the Center was part of the MLA. In October 1964 it was incorporated as an independent entity.

We believe that the Tenth Anniversary might be an appropriate occasion to present the whole spectrum of the Center's activities, calling attention to work done in different fields concerned with the language disciplines, as our Tenth Anniversary Celebration. Many of these activities would have been on our agenda anyway, but we feel that a coordinated presentation would be more effective in showing the
Center's overall activities to the general and scholarly public.

A committee was established to take charge of these activities. William C. Moulton (Professor of German and Linguistics, Princeton University) is Chairman. Other members are: Franklin S. Cooper (President, Haskins Laboratories), Charles A. Ferguson (Professor of Linguistics, Stanford University), Archibald A. Hill (President, Linguistic Society of America), Datus C. Smith, Jr. (Vice-President, JDR 3rd Fund), and Howard E. Sollenberger (Acting Director, Foreign Service Institute), with the Director representing the Center on the committee.

The Tenth Anniversary activities will be of several kinds:

They will include a review and exploration of specific areas closely connected with the growth and development of the Center from its very beginning, such as the teaching of English to speakers of other languages; the study and teaching of modern foreign languages not commonly taught in the United States; the incorporation of the findings of linguistics into the American educational system; and problems in the publication and dissemination of linguistic materials.

They will also involve review of activities that originated somewhat later in the Center's history: for example, the teaching of standard English to speakers of non-standard varieties, particularly the English of the inner-city; the consideration of possible solutions for problems in linguistic documentation in the light of modern technological advances; language teaching methods that integrate recent developments in the areas of language pedagogy, linguistics and psychology; and the investigation of reading problems by interdisciplinary task forces.

A third focus of special attention will be new activities: a study of the requirements of a program to describe the languages of the world; the investigation and appraisal of various approaches to specific topics in English grammar; language and metrics; new ways of rapid dissemination of the results of linguistic research; the significance of certain fields, such as medicine and missionary work, for linguistics; and a survey of the involvement in language questions of the federal government and other organizations in the United States.

The Center plans to carry out these activities on the one hand by organizing conferences, both on the national and international level, and on the other hand by setting up special projects within its established programs.

CONFERENCES

Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages as a World-Wide Problem (February 27–March 1, 1969).

The main topic of this conference is the discussion of the teaching of English on a world-wide basis. The participants will include representatives of the British Council and possibly other Commonwealth countries, U.S. government agencies, foundations, and professional organizations. Professor Albert H. Markwardt of Princeton University will serve as chairman.

The conference is associated with the 12th meeting of the National Advisory Council on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (NACTEFL). (NACTEFL is a self-perpetuating body of about ten recognized leaders in the field, representing the academic community in relating university and other private resources to the national effort in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. It acts in an advisory capacity to federal agencies and other institutions that have interests and involvement in the field. The Council was established in 1962 at the initiative of the Center.)

The first session will be devoted to the presentation of scholarly papers on the following topics: the extent and nature of British (and Commonwealth) and American responsibility in the field on a world-wide basis, English teaching problems overseas at the elementary and advanced levels, problems of bilingual education in the United States, and short-term teacher training. The second session will consist of reports by official organizations, foundations, and professional organizations on their present and projected activities. At the conclusion the conference will formulate a set of resolutions and recommendations for the use of appropriate governmental and official agencies, foundations, and other organizations concerned with teaching English to speakers of other languages.

The Linguistic Reporter February 1969
The Center for Applied Linguistics is a nonprofit, internationally oriented professional institution, established in 1959 and incorporated in 1964 in Washington, D.C. The purpose of the Center is to serve as a clearinghouse and informal coordinating body in the application of linguistics to practical language problems.

The Linguistic Reporter, the Center's newsletter, is published six times a year, in February, April, June, August, October, and December. Annual subscription, $1.50; air mail, $3.50. (Individuals faced with currency restrictions or similar limitations are invited to write to the Editor.) Manuscripts, books for review, and editorial communications should be sent to Frank A. Rice, Editor, THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Communications concerning subscriptions should be directed to the Subscriptions Secretary at the same address. Permission is granted for quotation or reproduction from the contents of the LINGUISTIC REPORTER provided acknowledgement is given.

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Advisory Panel (March 13, 1969).

At its meeting, the Advisory Panel of the ERIC Clearinghouse of the Center, which is set up in accordance with a contract with the Office of Education, will, besides its regular function of supervising the Center's ERIC Clearinghouse activities, survey systematically the needs and possibilities for state-of-the-art papers relevant to the program and develop policies for the production of such papers. (The Educational Resources Information Center is a national information system within the Office of Education dedicated to the progress of education through the dissemination of educational research results and research-related materials. The Center's ERIC Clearinghouse covers the following fields: linguistics, the uncommonly taught foreign languages, the teaching of English as a foreign or second language, and the teaching of English as a native language to speakers of non-standard dialects. The Center's activities are correlated with the Modern Language Association ERIC Clearinghouse, concerned with French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Latin, Classical Greek, and the teaching of English in higher education; and with the National Council of Teachers of English ERIC Clearinghouse, which deals with the teaching of English in primary and secondary schools. These three clearinghouses cover all the linguistic aspects of the ERIC system.)

The state-of-the-art papers commissioned to date deal with the following subjects: resources for the teaching of Chinese in the United States (Wrenn); resources for the teaching of Japanese in the United States (Martin); resources for the teaching of Arabic in the United States (Abboud); resources for the teaching of Hindu-Urdu in the United States (Kelley); international information flow in linguistics (Roberts); information exchange within relatively small special interest groups, such as exchange of papers in generative grammar (Roberts and Woyna); TESOL documents appearing in Research in Education (Clearinghouse staff); 1967-68 selected bibliography in linguistics and the uncommonly taught languages (Clearinghouse staff); the study of nonstandard English (Labov); a directory of language names (Zisa); bilingualism and bidialectalism (Stewart); an international listing of institutions concerned with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (Clearinghouse staff); and research in Hungarian in the United States (Lotz).

These state-of-the-art papers and other papers to be produced will be published in a comprehensive volume at the end of the year as a contribution of the ERIC Clearinghouse to the Tenth Anniversary Celebration of the Center.

English Verb (April 12-14, 1969).

This conference expresses the Center's concern with theoretical questions in grammar, especially for the English language. The reason for selecting the English verb as a topic is that in the past five or six years many noted linguists, both in the United States and abroad, have published book-length studies on the English verb (Robert Allen, William Diver, Madeline Ehrmann, Charles Fillmore, Martin Joos, Alphonse Juillard and James Macris, Akira Ota, Frank Palmer, John Robert Ross, Jan Svartvik, W. Freeman Twaddell and others). W. Nelson Francis will be the chair-
The conference will aim at a critical comparison of the various approaches to determine the extent to which they actually differ, i.e. whether the differences are real or "verbal". It will also designate areas where solid results have been obtained and areas where further research is needed.

Interdisciplinary Problems in Reading Disability (June 20–21, 1969).

The conference is concerned with the preparation of the final version of the extensive reports which have been prepared by seven interdisciplinary task forces on problems of reading disability, prior to publication in book form. This Ford Foundation supported project is aimed at facilitating collaboration among scholars, educators, and scientists representing such disciplines as neurology, psychiatry, pediatrics, linguistics, psychology, sociology, economics, and education to investigate problems of reading disability. Through the medium of seven task forces, the Interdisciplinary Committee on Reading Problems has been involved in the identification, definition, and description of the problem of reading disability, determination of its present management, and proposals for better direction and management of the problem. The seven task forces are concerned with specific areas of reading problems: definition and etiology, diagnosis, early prediction, incidence and implications, treatment configurations in educational settings, treatment configurations in other settings, and administrative aspects of school programs.

Archie A. Silver, M.D., general chairman of the Interdisciplinary Committee on Reading Problems, will serve as chairman of the meeting with members of the executive committee, the task force chairmen, and other invited scholars as participants.

Languages of the World (August 1969).

During the summer of 1967 a plan for an international seven-year program to describe the languages of the world was proposed by the Center. This may be the first historical opportunity when such a description can be accomplished, since this is the first time that there are enough professional linguists—8,000 to 10,000—in the world to carry out such a task and that the technological aids are available.

The proposed conference is the first step toward the implementation of such a program. It would deal with two aspects of the problem: on the one hand, with background information, such as language map-making, sociolinguistic information about the languages, their legal status, and their varying designations; and on the other hand, with the much more difficult and important task of developing a format for describing the languages of the world, including the topics to be covered, with allowance for differences in methods.

The ultimate result of the first task will be a handbook giving background information about the languages of the world, the second will result in a set of desiderata as to the content of the description of the languages of the world and, ultimately, in detailed descriptions of the languages themselves.

Charles A. Ferguson of Stanford University will be chairman.

English Bilingual Dictionaries (September 1969).

The aim of this conference is to outline a national policy for English bilingual dictionary making and to submit concrete recommendations for the implementation of such a policy. The conference will have at its disposal an annotated report on existing dictionaries compiled by the Center under an Office of Education contract.

To formulate such a policy, representatives from the following groups will be invited: scholars who have done extensive work in lexicology, who have been administering large-scale dictionary programs, or who are working on mechanical aids in the production of dictionaries; interested U.S. government agencies, primarily the U.S. Office of Education; and commercial publishers of dictionaries. Besides American, British participation is also envisaged. J Milton Cowan will serve as chairman of the conference.

The aims of the conference are: (1) to establish needs both with respect to the specific languages to be covered, and with respect to the various types of dictionaries needed for these languages (comprehensive, student, scientific and technical, commercial, scholarly, etc.); (2) to establish priorities among these dictionaries; (3) to evaluate the availability of manpower in the United States; (4) to explore the possibility of international cooperation (with the twofold purpose of reducing costs and increasing the available manpower); and, finally, (5) to investigate the role of modern technological aids in dictionary making (computers, etc.).
Multidisciplinary Contributions to First and Second Language Teaching (October 1969).

This conference will explore applications of recent findings in the disciplines concerned with language to practical problems of first and second language teaching in schools. Summary state-of-the-art papers, prepared and distributed in advance, will review relevant current theory and findings in linguistics, in anthropology and sociology, in psychology, and in biology and neurology, which are concretely and practically applicable. The presentations and discussion will focus on the following topics: (1) the implications for language education of the conflict between beliefs about language and culture held by the general public and the scientifically supported views and findings of the contributing disciplines; (2) applications to important first language problems, for instance to reading; (3) applications to foreign language teaching, with special reference to developments since the advent of audio-lingual teaching, a Center interest that includes recent work in programmed instruction; and (4) consideration of the present and prospective roles of technology in language teaching, seeking to define ways and means of closing the gap between existing hardware and software and of advancing both in unexplored directions.

It is anticipated that there will be some fifteen principal participants, representing the various fields concerned. Observers interested in school problems will also be invited. Alfred S. Hayes will serve as chairman.


This conference aims at presenting the results, the current status and the future plans of the LINCS program of the Center, which is supported by the National Science Foundation. The program aims at long-range solutions of problems in communication in linguistics and in other disciplines concerned with language. The program will be presented for review for the first time to linguists and also to scholars in other fields interested in communication. A. Hood Roberts, Director of the project, will serve as chairman.

The discussions will cover three sets of topics: (1) Work completed in the program's preliminary stages: a survey of the users of language information, including professional societies, and of meetings and publications; interviews with linguists; a special case study of the linguists in the Washington, D.C., area; and the formulation of alternate ways of developing an optimal information system in linguistics. Special consideration will be given to indexing tool designs, such as thesauri, and to problems connected with the automation of linguistic documentation services. (2) Discussions about current research on specified automated bibliographies, exemplified in certain fields, such as English grammar, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and computational linguistics, and the study of American Indian languages. Also, experiments in the publication of materials with appeal to small interest groups will be proposed, involving the production of selective materials upon demand, including state-of-the-art reviews in certain well-defined fields in linguistic communication. (3) Discussion of the future of the program, with concentration mainly on the study of optimal systems in linguistic information and documentation, with special reference to users and costs; problems of national and international cooperation; and the stratification of the information product (bibliography, annotation, abstracts, etc.).

It is of interest to note that linguistic information and documentation problems are much more complicated than in other disciplines, inasmuch as there are at least 300 languages in which relevant information appears, in contrast to fields such as physics, in which the important languages are restricted to less than a dozen.

Social Dialectology and Its Pedagogical Implications (November 1969).

This four-day conference is planned in two different, but complementary sections: the first day will be devoted to social dialect research as a linguistic problem; the rest of the conference will be devoted to the implications of social dialect research for pedagogical questions, based on research projects in New York City, Detroit, Washington, D.C., Chicago, and Los Angeles.

An orientation in the study of the stratification of languages toward social, rather than regional, differences, represents a new trend in linguistics. This problem merits a thorough investigation. There is a growing understanding that social dialects play a great role in the schools, and the practical-pedagogical phase of the conference will try to answer the following questions: (1) What is the role of non-standard
language in American education? How do identifiable relevant groups view this role? (2) What is the role of non-standard language in relation to concepts of self? (3) What are the social consequences of non-standard language and what are appropriate strategies for studying them? (4) What special educational strategies must be developed for non-standard speakers? (5) What directions should be taken in future research in non-standard language?

Participants will include linguists, teachers and representatives of other groups involved in the problem. Roger W. Shuy will be chairman. I would like to add that the problem is obviously a world-wide problem, not restricted to the United States, and the Center is planning to contribute to a similar symposium for Latin America.

Language and Metrics (December 1969).

This conference expresses the interest of the Center in language in its broad humanistic context, rather than in its utilitarian aspect. It will discuss the role of language in poetry, especially with reference to the metric structure of verse; this problem can be most effectively formulated in linguistic terms. The conference will be concerned with the presentation of a wide variety of metric systems of the world, including those of Classical, Oriental and African languages, and also of folk poetry. Such a comprehensive presentation should serve as a basis for a linguistically sound metric typology. The ultimate purpose of the conference is to establish the necessary linguistic foundation for any metric theory. I will be in charge of the preparation of this conference.

Language and Communication (December 1969).

The purpose of this conference is the definition of the role of natural language within the framework of semiotics in general, with interdisciplinary and international participation. The areas to be covered are the following: (1) the problem of sign and symbol in general; (2) prehuman communication (zoosemiotics); (3) natural language, both in its formal aspect, as manifested in media (speech, script, sign language), and in its semantic reference; and (4) "parasitic" superstructures (calculi, logical and mathematical symbolism, etc.). In my opinion, the exact definition of the characteristics of natural language is the most important scientific problem in contemporary scholarship.

In the general framework of language and communication one could envisage further special conferences to cover various areas of this vast field. The planning of a conference on sign language—one of these areas—is well under way under the chairmanship of William B. Stokoe of Gallaudet College. A second conference is being prepared on script, which is a little understood field in the study of the expressive media of language. This group of conferences is also under my general purview.

The foregoing are the conference plans for the Tenth Anniversary Celebration. Beyond this we plan in the coming years conferences on such problems as: language planning and standardization, especially in the developing countries, with case studies from the past and the present; further subfields in English grammar; and follow-up conferences resulting from previous conferences and the Center's general activities. Also, preferably in cooperation with professional organizations in the United States, we might investigate the international structuring of linguistics as a field of study (international and national organizations, institutions, summer institutes, professional and scholarly organizations, university resources, etc.)

OTHER ACTIVITIES

English Contrastive Studies

The Center has from its beginning recognized the significance of contrastive linguistics for language study. In the early 1960s the Center undertook, with Office of Education support, a series of studies contrasting the phonological and grammatical structures of English and five major world languages: French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish. A comprehensive bibliography on the subject was also prepared. Currently the Center is engaged in a project to prepare a contrastive analysis of Serbo-Croatian and English, funded by the Ford Foundation, the Department of State and the Yugoslav government. The project promises to be the most comprehensive yet conceived, involving some forty scholars from Yugoslavia and the United States to produce some fifty preliminary monographs before a summary volume is prepared. Steps have also been taken to extend the project to other East European countries, and plans are under way.
to include Romanian-English and Hungarian-English contrastive studies. In addition, we envisage studies contrasting English with a number of the languages of Africa, another area in which the Center has been active. An updating of the contrastive bibliography is planned for 1969.

**Demonstration Materials in Phonetics.**

The Center's Phonetics Project, aided by a national advisory council, aims at developing demonstration and instructional materials for the teaching and study of speech.

The final collection of speech materials will comprise films (including X-ray sound motion pictures) tapes, and recordings covering the natural basis of speech (anatomy and physiology of the vocal tract) and sound (genesis and propagation of sound in the air), and recorded materials for aural response and experimentation. It should cover all aspects of phonetic information, including instrumental documentation for measurement and experiment (tape cutting, playback, etc.). English and other languages should be documented. In general, systematic and comprehensive information on phonetics gathered from linguistics, experimental phonetics, engineering, medicine, and psychology should be included. It may also be found useful to include small experimental gadgets and descriptions of the operation of more generally used experimental equipment.

This project, if successful, will make possible an extensive updating of speech courses at American institutions of higher education, which in turn will result in better preparation of research workers investigating the complex field of speech. Cooperation is assured by such leading institutions in the field as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Haskins Laboratories, Bell Laboratories, Iowa State University, and the University of California at various of its campuses. It is hoped that recently developed centers will also participate.

**Government Involvement in Linguistics and Languages**

A comprehensive report on the language involvement of the United States government, which is planned to serve as documentation of an area of federal activity that is wider than is commonly assumed, will further serve to demonstrate the basic significance of language in modern society. On the national scene, the teaching of standard English to speakers of non-standard varieties in cities and in parts of Appalachia, to Puerto Ricans and Mexican-Americans, and to American Indians, poses an enormous responsibility for society. Internationally the involvement is even wider. The Defense Language Institute, for example, has more than 2 million students abroad in its English language courses. Besides some 150 politically significant languages, the study of which is being supported by the Office of Education, there are additional hundreds of languages which are of special concern to government agencies involved in aiding underdeveloped countries. A survey of teaching materials for the more than 100 minor languages with which the Peace Corps is concerned has just been completed by the Center.

**Dissemination of Linguistic Information.**

1. A rapid publication and dissemination program is of the greatest urgency in linguistics, as it is in all disciplines. Such a program would not only make unpublished material available quickly, but would also make extensive documentation feasible and encourage the presentation of materials lying around in unpolished form. The Center has already experimented with producing in a matter of days or weeks papers related to generative grammar (PEGS Program). (In the Uralic-Altaic program of the American Council of Learned Societies, a point was made of making all results available in a few weeks through photographic reproduction.)

The program, to be effective, should include a number of fields and should experiment with a number of possibilities, depending on the technique and the audience. Such proposed areas are: (a) computational linguistics (A. Hood Roberts); (b) social dialect studies (Roger W. Shuy); (c) English grammar (to be planned at the conference on the English verb); (d) Uralic studies (John Lotz); (e) African materials (to make available materials produced at the Center for the Peace Corps—even if not in final form); (f) metrics (John Lotz); (g) state-of-the-art papers (dealing with various fields, or the state of linguistics in various countries); (h) languages of the world (cf. conference above); (i) results of Center projects; (j) Yugoslav contrastive series (cf. English contrastive studies above)

2 As another attempt to provide linguistic documentation, we plan to present complete corpora for languages, where this is feasible,
and also, if possible, an evaluation of the materials. Modern techniques, utilizing approaches similar to those of the Educational Resources Information Center system, would provide a method for performing this task. I would estimate that there are about 2,000 languages where the presentation of such a corpus is possible. The current prototype on which we are working is Kamassian, a central Asianic Samoyed language, for which all the materials, scattered in space from Siberia to the West and going back more than three centuries in time, have been collected.

Linguistics and Other Fields of Activity.

It is currently fashionable to ally linguistics with other fields that involve the language component, for example, linguistics with psychology for psycholinguistics, with anthropology for ethnolinguistics, with sociology for sociolinguistics, etc. The following two activities are also related to linguistics, though in a somewhat different fashion:

1. Beginning with the 16th century, the role of missionaries in collecting language data has been of great importance for linguistics in general. In the present day in this country, for example, there are two very important institutions to be considered—the Summer Institute of Linguistics, which deals intensively with more than 400 languages, and the American Bible Society, which, besides being involved in extensive language work, also is interested in the theory of translation. A study of the linguistic activities of these and other similar groups would constitute an important contribution to the history of linguistics.

2. Another area of interest is the exploration of the implications of language and linguistics for problems of medicine and health. The role of language, apart from its importance in the study of speech disorders, aphasia, etc., is obvious in such fields as diagnosis, psychotherapy, and language-oriented treatment. This aspect of language use is closely allied with other symbolic and semiotic activities in general, activities which have never been systematically studied.

Road Signs.

It seems clear that road signs have linguistic-communicative aspects in the information they convey, and are, therefore, a proper concern not only of engineering and psychology, but of applied linguistics as well. They involve the whole gamut of semiotic relations: analog, digital, verbal, etc. Interesting facts arise, such as road sign homonymy (e.g. the octagonal shape of the stop sign and the flashing red light) or the imperative character of red or green lights at road intersections. Two problems are involved here: the actual analysis of the road sign language in its highway setting and the improvement of these signs for the use of the driver.


Finally, the Center's annual report for 1969 will include, besides a report on regular activities, a comprehensive account of the conferences and other activities connected with the Tenth Anniversary, and a general survey of all the activities of the Center's programs during the past decade. Most important of all, William G. Moulton of Princeton University has agreed to write a comprehensive 30- to 40-page introduction, assessing the development of applied linguistics in general and the Center's role therein.

These are the plans we have set forth for the Tenth Anniversary Celebration of the Center. We will be happy if we can realize all or at least most of them. Detailed reports on these activities will appear in the Linguistic Reporter as they occur.

These plans have been worked out in close collaboration with the Center staff and representatives of the following professional organizations: the Linguistic Society of America, the Modern Language Association of America, the American Dialect Society, the National Council of Teachers of English, the Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, and the Association for Computational Linguistics. We will also be glad to consider cooperation with other groups which share an interest in our aims.
NDEA Intensive Language Programs, Summer 1969

The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will allocate funds to nineteen universities for the partial support of twenty-one language and area centers during the summer of 1969. The programs, supported under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act, will offer intensive language instruction and related area studies. Each of the host universities will determine the standards for admission, academic credits, and fees for the programs it administers and will select the persons to receive any NDEA graduate and undergraduate fellowships allocated to it by HEW. Inquiries should be addressed to the Director of the appropriate NDEA Language and Area Center of the institutions listed below.

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<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>DATES</th>
<th>LANGUAGES OFFERED</th>
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<tr>
<td>University of Arizona</td>
<td>June 16-August 22</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese</td>
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<tr>
<td>Columbia University</td>
<td>June 16-August 22</td>
<td>Chinese (Cantonese and Mandarin), Japanese, Korean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indiana University</td>
<td>a. June 9-August 15</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese (Basic Program)</td>
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<td>b. June 16-August 8</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese (Advanced Reading Courses)</td>
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<td>Middlebury College</td>
<td>June 19-August 28</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stanford University</td>
<td>June 23-August 29</td>
<td>Chinese (Cantonese and Mandarin), Japanese</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Minnesota</td>
<td>June 16-August 29</td>
<td>Bengali, Hindi-Urdu, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu</td>
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<td>University of Rochester</td>
<td>June 6-August 8</td>
<td>Hindi-Urdu, Malayalam, Marathi, Sanskrit</td>
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<td>University of Washington</td>
<td>June 23-August 22</td>
<td>Hindi-Urdu, Tamil, Thai</td>
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<td>American University</td>
<td>June 18-August 29</td>
<td>Indonesian, Thai, Vietnamese</td>
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<td>University of Hawaii</td>
<td>June 17-August 29</td>
<td>Chinese, Hawaiian, Hindi, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Sanskrit, Tagalog, Thai, Vietnamese</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yale University</td>
<td>a. June 16-August 22</td>
<td>Cambodian, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, Thai, Vietnamese</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b. June 23-August 15</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese</td>
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<td>University of California, Berkeley</td>
<td>June 25-September 11</td>
<td>Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, Turkish</td>
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<td>University of Pennsylvania</td>
<td>June 16-August 8</td>
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<td>June 30-August 22</td>
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<td>University of Wisconsin</td>
<td>June 23-August 16</td>
<td>Amharic, Berber, Fula, Hausa, Sango, Swahili, Wolof, Yoruba</td>
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<td>University of Colorado</td>
<td>June 23-August 16</td>
<td>Bulgarian, Russian</td>
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<td>University of Illinois</td>
<td>June 16-August 9</td>
<td>Czech Linguistics, Old Church Slavonic, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Ukrainian Linguistics</td>
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<td>University of Washington</td>
<td>June 23-August 22</td>
<td>Czech, Finnish, Hungarian, Russian, Serbo-Croatian</td>
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<td>Tulane University</td>
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<td>University of Wisconsin</td>
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Ford Grant Supports New CAL Project

The Center for Applied Linguistics is pleased to announce receipt of a grant of $325,000 from the Ford Foundation to support a project designed to increase the effectiveness of language arts and English instruction in American schools. The grant is for the period September 1968–September 1970. The project, which is headed by Alfred S. Hayes, Director of the Center's Language in Education Program, consists of five interrelated studies.

1. **DIALOGUE** will produce model student-teacher exchanges that will provide the actual language that can help resolve practical problems of the language arts and English classroom. Based on extensive school visits and studies of filmed and videotaped classroom interaction (see **BALA**, below), these model exchanges will be consistent with scientific knowledge about language and culture and directed toward the promotion of self-confident growth in the use of standard English, spoken and written. They will be prepared by staff teachers working directly with cooperating schools under the guidance of linguists and other specialists. Cooperating schools and teachers, as well as training institutions, will receive all pertinent interim output of **DIALOGUE**, including problem statements, summaries of existing approaches, and preliminary versions of exchanges.

2. **LASAMED** *(Language Supplements for American Education)* will produce pilot teacher-training materials that will seek to relate linguistic and anthropological concepts to recurrent problems of school native-language instruction. The materials will be based on relatively culture-free approaches designed to combat folk belief about language and culture, and the attitudes toward language, culture and pedagogy that result therefrom.

3. **BALA** *(Bases for Applying Linguistics and Anthropology)* will provide essential input to both **DIALOGUE** and **LASAMED** by supplying detailed descriptions of both verbal and non-verbal behavior that reflects professed or unconscious beliefs about language and culture which run counter to modern knowledge in these areas, including behavior that appears to indicate rejection of certain learners. The making of these descriptions will require opportunities for repeated study that can be provided only by films and videotapes of classroom interaction. For the most part, **BALA** will develop its descriptive and analytical procedures using collected films and videotapes that already exist. Most of these were made for other purposes, however. They are also of varying technical quality. A preliminary stage of **BALA** will therefore film and videotape a small number of instructional sequences intended primarily to help solve the special technical problems that beset the making of adequate records under both studio and classroom conditions.

4. **STYLE** represents a concerted effort to improve the language and format of output to the general public in the area of language in education, thereby also enhancing the output of **DIALOGUE**.

5. **MEDIATE** will determine qualifications, selection procedures and training opportunities for professional mediators in the field of language in education. This study will take place in an environment that includes highly qualified practicing teachers who will interact with each other and all relevant Center programs and projects, in order subsequently to be able to assist schools in their own areas to set up effective language programs.

3rd International Conference on Computational Linguistics

The 1969 International Conference on Computational Linguistics, sponsored by the International Committee on Computational Linguistics, will be held September 1–4 at Sånga–Silby-Kursgård, Sweden. The conference will concern the application of mathematical and computer techniques to the study of natural languages, the development of computer programs as tools for linguistic research, and the application of linguistics to the development of man-machine communication systems. The official languages of the conference will be English, French, German and Russian. Those who wish to present papers must submit abstracts by March 1 to A. Hood Roberts, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. The Program Committee hopes to announce its selections by April 1; final papers should be submitted by May 15. An application for travel grants for the conference is pending. For information write to: Diana Riehl, Room 800, Linguistic Society of America, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.
1969 Linguistic Institute
At University of Illinois

The University of Illinois announces that the 1969 Linguistic Institute will be held at Urbana, June 16–August 9, under the joint sponsorship of the University and the Linguistic Society of America. The staff of the Institute will be made up of scholars from many different institutions in the United States and abroad, in addition to members of the University faculty.

Beginning students will find basic courses in descriptive, historical, applied, and mathematical linguistics. More advanced offerings include courses on the theory of syntactic, phonological, and semantic analysis, and on methods in historical linguistics, as well as on the application of general principles in both synchronic and diachronic linguistics to the analysis of specific languages and language families. One of the features of the 1969 Institute will be a series of working seminars for advanced graduate students. An extensive reference collection will be available in the Education and Social Sciences Library.

As in the past, the series of Forum Lectures will offer the participants the opportunity to hear and discuss original research papers presented by distinguished scholars. There will be two Forum Lectures each week. An annual feature of the Linguistic Institute is the Summer Meeting of the Linguistic Society of America, to be held July 25–26. Leading scholars and younger workers in linguistics will read and discuss research papers.

The administrative staff of the Institute includes Robert B. Lees, Director; Howard S. Maclay, Assistant Director, and Mrs Marion S. Holshouser, Assistant to the Director. Application forms for graduate and undergraduate students can be obtained from Mrs. Marion S. Holshouser, 309 Davenport Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

The University of Michigan has received a graduate training grant of $23,999 from the National Institute of Mental Health to the Interdepartmental Doctoral Degree Program in Psycholinguistics for 'Research Training in Psycholinguistics'. For further information and applications, write to: Ronald S. Tikofsky, Chairman, Program in Psycholinguistics, 182 Frenze Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104.

Fulbright-Hays Openings in Linguistics and TEFL: 1970–71

Applications for Fulbright-Hays awards for university lecturing in linguistics and English as a foreign language during academic year 1970–71 should be filed before June 1, 1969. Applications for advanced research awards will not be accepted after that date. Requirements for eligibility are: U.S. citizenship, a doctoral degree or equivalent status for research grants, college or university teaching experience for lecturing appointments, and, in some cases, proficiency in a foreign language.

Fulbright professor awards ordinarily provide a maintenance allowance in the local currency to cover normal living costs of the grantee and his family while in residence abroad, and round-trip travel for the grantee (transportation is not provided for dependents). For lecturing in most non-European countries, an award includes a dollar supplement, subject to the availability of funds, or it provides a stipend paid partly in foreign currency and partly in dollars.

Requests for application forms, a list of openings in linguistics and teaching English as a foreign language, and details on the terms of awards for particular countries should be addressed to Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20418.

Cognitive Studies and Artificial Intelligence Research, an interdisciplinary symposium sponsored by the Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research, will be held March 3–7 at the University of Chicago's Center for Continuing Education. Dr. Paul Garvin of the Bunker-Ramo Corporation will be the Chairman, and Dr. Heinz von Foerster of the University of Illinois will be Co-Chairman. The purpose of the symposium is to bring together leading exponents of the various disciplines that deal with the problem areas of cognitive studies and artificial intelligence for a mutual exchange of information about the state of the art of these fields, as well as for an interdisciplinary discussion of possibilities of cooperation and mutual support for further growth. For further information, write to: Mrs. Lita Osmundsen, Director of Research, Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research, 14 East 71st Street, New York, New York 10021.
book notices


The 615 annotated entries in the bibliography constitute a listing of significant work on the statistics of style done by scholars in many countries: Eastern and Western Europe, North America, Latin America, Japan, India, and Australia. The scholars represent a wide variety of disciplines, not merely literary criticism and linguistics. Following a prefatory section, 'Major Works in General Stylistics', designed to serve as an introduction to the field, the works are classified into six categories: The Theory of Statistical Stylistics; Stylistic Characteristics, Poetics, Metrics, and Prosody; Individual Styles and the History of Literary Styles; Problems of Chronology and Disputed Authorship, and Stylistics and the Computer Addenda (25 entries) and Author Index.


Designed as an introductory college level course in the spoken and written language, this text also serves as a detailed statement of Cambodian grammar for the linguist. The style of speech described is that heard among the educated people of Phnom Penh. The book is divided into six parts. Part I, 'Pronunciation and Orthography', provides a description of Cambodian sounds and script, with drills and exercises for each. Parts II and III, 'Grammar and Exercises' and 'Grammar and Translation', contain explanation of Cambodian sentence structure, with reading passages and translation exercises. Answers to all exercises are given in the fourth and fifth parts, 'Orthography' (the script for the English-Cambodian translations) and 'Keys'. Part VI contains Cambodan-English and English-Cambodian glossaries. The Cambodian material is presented in transcription, except where indicated above.

Accompanying tape recordings are available from the author. [Write: Mrs. J. M Jacob, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, London W.C.1, England]


A collection of three papers based on work with co-authors: two physiologists (David Whitteridge and Morrell Draper), a psychologist (Donald Broadbent), and two communication engineers (Walter Lawrence and Norris McKinney). The first paper, 'Stress and Respiratory Activity', is concerned with how the lungs and the respiratory muscles are used in speech; it concludes that linguistic stress is a measurable bodily activity. The second paper, 'The Nature of Vowel Quality', concludes that we do not know how to give a precise specification of vowel quality. The last paper, 'Units in the Perception and Production of Speech', suggests that the smallest units are not likely to be of the size of phonemes. Bibliography.


Presents four of the papers delivered at a symposium on universals in linguistic theory, held at the University of Texas, April 13-15, 1967. The papers are: 'The Case for Case', by Charles J. Fillmore; 'Nouns and Noun Phrases', by Emmon Bach; 'The Role of Semantics in a Grammar', by James D. McCawley, and 'Linguistic Universals and Linguistic Change', by Paul Kiparsky. The first three papers deal largely with syntax and semantics, the last with phonology. A list of references is appended.


Presents the reports which served as the basis for discussion at the fifteenth annual Northeast Conference, held in New York City, April 4-6. Contents include 'Innovative FL Programs', 'The Classroom Revisited', and 'Liberated Expression'.


Presents four articles that first appeared in IRAL in 1963–64, with minor revisions and the addition of two parts to the second article concerning syllable types and tenseness of articulation. The research presented here is the beginning of a long range project designed to aid American teachers of French, German, and Spanish. The research was performed pursuant to a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.


A collection of readings designed to integrate with intermediate level language instruction an appreciation of Indian and Pakistani culture and literary tradition. Included are some items written specifically for this volume as well as abridged and revised versions of works previously published elsewhere, most of them in this century. Arranged in order of difficulty, the selections include folk tales, short stories, essays, letters, speeches, newspaper editorials, and historical and biographical writings. The Urdu material is presented in the Nastaliq calligraphy, with some diacritical marks added. Each selection is accompanied by a short introductory note on the author and work presented and a glossary of new words giving Urdu script, transcription, English translation, and notes.


Designed for use at the college level, following A Course in Urdu (Montreal, Institute of Islamic Studies, McGill University, 1967) or its equivalent. The Reader contains 20 lesson units, each with one or more newspaper articles, a vocabulary list, notes, drills, and exercises. The articles were written specifically for this volume in the style and format of Pakistani newspaper prose, and are graded according to difficulty and grouped by subject. The Urdu material is presented in the Urdu script, supplemented by phonemic transcription in the vocabulary lists. A vocabulary finder list is appended. The Key contains the Urdu translations for the English-Urdu translation exercises found in each lesson.

The research on which this work is based was performed pursuant to a contract with the U.S. Office of Education. Accompanying tape recordings are available through Dr. M.A.R. Barker at McGill University.


The purpose of this study is to present a corpus of illustrated and documented data on peninsular Spanish gesture, to organize these data systematically, and to demonstrate their pedagogical utility. The major focus is directed toward those gestures which normally, but not exclusively, accompany verbal communication. Gesture which functions as a substitute or replacement for linguistic behavior is not studied. Although the target kinesic culture-area is peninsular Spain, many of the gestures included in the inventory are observable in parts of Latin America. The performance of each gesture is described in narrative form and those movements which cannot be described satisfactorily are illustrated by line drawings. In addition, the social context of each movement is provided in full. In order to illustrate the pedagogical utility of the inventory, dialogues selected from four foreign-language texts published since 1960 are glossed with gestures from the inventory.

The three studies in this book deal with the choice of the medium of instruction in the multilingual societies of Commonwealth Africa and the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent, thus constituting a special area of the study of national language policy in general.

The first study, 'Language and Education in India', by Dakin, describes and discusses the educational and linguistic situation in India, the arguments for the use of the mother tongue, the medium of instruction in the schools and in the universities, and the reasons why different individuals and groups have adopted a particular stand on the question.

The second study, 'Language and Education in Commonwealth Africa', by Tiffen, describes and discusses the language situation in Africa, educational development and language policy to the 1950s, the situation today, and prospects for the future. Appendices summarize the findings of the Jos (1952), Makerere (1961), Yaoundé (1961), Ibadan (1962), and Brazzaville (1962) conferences.

The third study, 'The Teaching of English through Science', by Widdowson, is concerned not so much with the formation of a national language policy as with the teaching of English as a second language, particularly in the countries of the Indian sub-continent. The author examines present approaches, which he finds unsatisfactory, and proposes a new approach, which is the teaching of English through science.

The three papers derive from postgraduate dissertations originally presented at the Universities of Leeds, Bangor, and Edinburgh, respectively.


Designed to meet the needs of students who have had a year's intensive course in Kannada. The nine selections in this anthology, presented in the Devanagari script, are intended to draw the reader's attention to the close relationship between Kannada literature and Kannada society. The introduction provides a brief history of modern Kannada literature and commentaries on the selections. A glossary and grammar notes, in English, follow each selection. These materials were prepared under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.


A comprehensive dictionary for speakers of English, intended to provide an up-to-date source for readers and translators. There are no phonetic or grammatical aids. Derivative verb forms, with certain exceptions, are listed under the base form. Derivative nouns appear in the normal alphabetical order of the prefix, with a cross-reference to the base form. Each noun is followed by an indication of its plural. Common synonyms are listed for unusual words. Foreign loanwords are indicated with a mention of the source language. Illustrative sentences and indications of dialectal variations


Following the 'Introduction' by the editor, which surveys briefly the history and current status of the teaching of English in various parts of the world, there are nine chapters specifically written for this book by British experts out of their own experience with English teaching and teacher training in Britain itself, in the Commonwealth, and elsewhere. The topics include the contribution of linguistics, the place of literature, relationships with syllabus reform, examinations, in-service training, standards of attainment, and local varieties of English. Select bibliography.
meetings and conferences

   Chicago, Illinois. [Write: Mrs. Lita Osmundsen, Director of Research.
   Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research, 14 East 71st Street,
   New York, New York 10021.]
March 5–8. Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 3rd.
   Chicago, Illinois.
March 8–9. Linguistic Circle of New York. Annual National Conference on
   Linguistics, 14th. New York City.
March 14–15. Georgetown University Annual Round Table on Linguistics and Language
   Studies, 20th. Washington, D.C.
   New York City.
April 17–19. Conference on College Composition and Communication, 20th.
   Miami Beach, Florida.
April 21–May 2. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 21st.
   Boston, Massachusetts.
   Lexington, Kentucky.
   [Write: James W. Dodge. Box E. Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island 02912.]
April 30–May 3. International Reading Association, 14th. Kansas City, Missouri.

new journals

Automatic Documentation and Mathematical Linguistics: Selected Articles from Nauchno-
Tekhnicheskaya Informatsiya, Published by Faraday Press. Quarterly. First issue dated
Spring 1967. Subscription: $145.00 (outside the U.S. and Canada: $150.00); single issue:
$50.00. Faraday Advisory Editor: L. Cohan.
Correspondence: Faraday Press, Inc., 84 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

Contains translations of selected articles by Soviet authors from Nauchno-Tekhnicheskaya
Informatsiya, edited by A. I. Mikhailov, published by the Institute of Scientific and Tech­
nical Information of the USSR. The numerical sequence and dates of the Faraday translation
volumes are identical with those of the original Russian volumes. The articles focus on experi­
mental methods of analyzing, translating, encoding, searching, and correlating information
and cover problems in the development of information languages, classification and index­
ing, and automatic analysis of texts. An author index will be included in the last issue of each
volume.

Kivung: Journal of the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea.
Three times a year (April, August, December). First issue: April 1968. Subscription: $45.00;
single issues $4.00. Editor: Andras Ballint.
Correspondence to: Dr. Andras Ballint, University of Papua and New Guinea, P.O. Box
1144, Boroko, T.P.N.G.

The first issue contains a selection of papers given at the first annual conference of the So­
ciety. The seven articles treat English 'supra-sententialia', the use of the computer in lin­
guistic research, two views of the time concepts of Papuans and New Guineans, an
approach to dialect study, a sociolinguistic view of the language situation in a Papuan village,
and problems of emphasis and contrast in English nominal constructions. Future issues
will include papers presented at the monthly meetings, articles and book reviews.

Kivung, the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea, was formed
in October 1967 with the aim of promoting research in English, Melanesian Pidgin, and
indigenous languages, and in general and applied linguistics.
The Linguistic Reporter
Newsletter of the
Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

The Linguistic Reporter  February 1969
Harpers Ferry Conference on English Teaching as a World-Wide Problem

by Sirarpi Ohannessian

Sirarpi Ohannessian is Director of the English for Speakers of Other Languages Program at the Center for Applied Linguistics. Miss Ohannessian is also Secretary of the National Advisory Council on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.

Harpers Ferry in West Virginia, overlooking the confluence of the Shenandoah and the Potomac rivers, provided an historic setting for the first conference celebrating the Tenth Anniversary of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The Conference was held in conjunction with the twelfth meeting of the National Advisory Council on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (NACTEFL) from February 27 to March 1, 1969. (The Council was established in 1962. It is composed of leading scholars in this field who represent the academic community in relating university and other private resources to the national effort in this field. The Council acts in an advisory capacity to United States Government agencies, foundations and other concerned institutions in matters of policy and planning.)

In organizing the Conference the aim of the Center was to bring together from the United States, Britain, and the Commonwealth a wide range of people and institutions concerned with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages in order that far-reaching discussions could take place on the world-wide aspects of the problem of English teaching, especially in the light of new developments both within and outside the resource countries in this field. Perhaps the most significant aspect of the Conference, however, was that in fulfilling this aim the Center was able to provide an unofficial meeting ground for the exchange of ideas and information between an international group of distinguished scholars on the one hand and a variety of responsible administrators from concerned official and non-official organizations on the other hand. Considering the expansion of the demand for English in recent years, the growing but still insufficient resources and current financial and other circumstances in both resource and receiving coun-

Harpers Ferry, West Virginia
tries, the present seemed a very opportune time for such a meeting.

Some forty participants from Britain, Canada and the United States, representing the academic community, professional organizations, the Ford Foundation, the British Council, United States Government agencies and departments as well as a few other concerned institutions met with members of the Council and drew up two sets of recommendations, one emanating from the entire Conference and the other from NACTEFL. The Center, in its capacity as secretariat for NACTEFL and as convener of the meeting, will submit both sets of recommendations to appropriate official agencies, foundations and professional organizations for consideration in planning future policy and action. Albert H. Marckwardt of Princeton University, with whose guidance the Conference was planned, acted as chairman of the Conference, and Arthur H. King, Controller of the Education Division of the British Council, as co-chairman.

Dr. John Lotz, Director of the Center for Applied Linguistics, opened the first session with a brief welcome, especially to participants from outside the United States. He explained the dual nature of the meeting both as the first of a series of conferences celebrating the Center's Tenth Anniversary, and as an expanded meeting of NACTEFL convened for the special purpose explained above.

The Conference was planned in three parts. The first part was devoted to a discussion of topics of current importance based on papers prepared by British and American scholars: the second to reports and discussions on the activities and plans of official national organizations, foundations, professional organizations and other interested institutions; and the third to the drawing up of resolutions and recommendations.

The discussion of topics on the first day began with a presentation by Professor Marckwardt, who, in a paper entitled "The Labors of Sisyphus," reviewed the extent and nature of British and American responsibility in answering the needs of countries overseas in the teaching of English. The second topic concerned the use and teaching of English in elementary and secondary schools overseas, with special reference to problems, needs and resources. George E. Perren, Director of the Centre for Information on Language Teaching, London, read a paper on this subject and Clifford H. Prentor of the University of California at Los Angeles commented on it in a prepared statement. The third topic, that of making a fresh start in English at the college level, especially the new student at the university, was treated in two papers, the first by Edward M. Anthony of the University of Pittsburgh and the second by Randolph Quirk of the University of London.

These three topics were concerned mainly with the teaching of English overseas. Between them the British and American speakers represented a very wide range of experience both at the various levels of English teaching and in a great variety of areas of the world. The general view, especially reflected in Professor Marckwardt's paper, which took a comprehensive look at the situation, was that there had been so much expansion and so many new developments both at the giving and receiving end of assistance to English teaching that it was time for an appraisal of the situation. The United States had gained a great deal of experience and increased its resources in this field. Also, to the resources of Britain and the United States were being added those of Australia and Canada. But there had been change overseas, too. Some countries were in a much better financial position than they had been. English at present seemed to have no rival as an almost world-wide second language, but languages like Russian and Chinese would be of growing importance to countries increasing their contacts with them. In some areas of the world, such as certain African countries, Pakistan, India and Ceylon, English was likely to continue to be used not only as a foreign but as a second language in spite of its deterioration in some of them. In countries such as those of Latin America, it would be the most important foreign language, but in areas such as Korea, Japan and Thailand it might not be the only important second language.

Every country, it was suggested, should be encouraged to assess its second, third and foreign language needs realistically, unemotionally and from a long-range educational point of view. If such assessment resulted in the diminution of demand for English it would reduce the scope of the English teaching problem to a dimension where assistance could have more hope to be effective. For planning effective teaching, speakers saw the need for an examination of English teaching within countries:
The Center for Applied Linguistics is a nonprofit, internationally oriented professional institution, established in 1959 and incorporated in 1964 in Washington, D.C. The purpose of the Center is to serve as a clearinghouse and informal coordinating body in the application of linguistics to practical language problems.

The Linguistic Reporter, the Center's newsletter, is published six times a year, in February, April, June, August, October, and December. Annual subscription, $1.50; air mail, $3.50. Manuscripts, books for review, and other communications should be sent to Frank A. Rice, Editor, THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Communications concerning subscriptions should be directed to the Subscriptions Secretary at the same address. Permission is granted for quotation or reproduction from the contents of the LINGUISTIC REPORTER provided acknowledgement is given.

The needs, aims, and resources for English at various levels and for various purposes, the optimum class level for introducing English into the educational system: effectiveness of approaches and methods used in teaching it; the relation of English teaching to the total language teaching situation, including the teaching of the mother tongue; the teaching of literature, problems of literacy, bilingualism and multi-linguism; available local resources and the need for outside assistance for their development. The need to restrain encouragement of English in schools so that demands could more closely match available resources, concentrating teaching at one level, such as the level of higher education where English was more crucial than at other levels, rather than diluting it in an effort to meet demand at all levels, were among the many aspects of the problem discussed.

The general feeling in the discussions may be reflected in Professor Marckwardt's words: "Faced with a world-wide demand so vast that we have neither the funds nor the manpower to make a significant impact by trying to be all things to everyone, we must husband our resources and distribute them in such a way that they will have maximum multiplier effect." A full knowledge of the language and language teaching situation in every country where action was needed; a realistic appraisal of what could be done based on country-wide planning; coordination of United States effort, planned cooperation with English teaching agencies of other countries, and a sincere commitment on the part of host countries that improvement in English instruction would be operative—all these were considered essential components of successful assistance.

The last topic in this part of the Conference was devoted to the teaching of English and problems of bilingual education in the United States. Two papers, one by Rudolph C. Troike of the University of Texas at Austin and one by Ralph F. Robinett of the Foreign Language Innovative Curricula Studies, Ann Arbor, discussed various aspects of the problem as well as the Bilingual Education Act and its implications, particularly for the education of the non-English-speaking child and the teaching of English as a second language in the United States in general. They discussed newly arising needs, such as that of examining ways in which ESL techniques could be applied to a new range of situations for new research and experimentation in such areas as second language learning, community attitudes, materials, teacher preparation, and teaching methodology.

The first day's sessions ended with a brief report on an international conference on short-term training (courses of one to four weeks) for teachers of English and French who were not native speakers of these languages and who were expected to teach them in their own countries. This international conference, which was sponsored jointly by the Bureau pour l'Enseignement de la Langue et de la Civilisation Françaises à l'Etranger, the Center for Applied Linguistics and the English-Teaching Information Centre of the British Council, was held in Colchester, England, from October 29 through November 1, 1968. The account of the Colchester conference for the present meeting was written by Earl W. Stevick and in his absence was read by William F. Mackey. (Both Dr. Stevick and Professor Mackey had participated in the Colchester conference, a detailed report is being prepared by the English-
The discussions in the second part of the Conference were based on previously prepared and distributed reports on the activities of most of the institutions represented at the Conference. These were the Agency for International Development (two papers), the Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (ATEFL) in England; the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL) of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), the British Council; the Bureau of Indian Affairs; the Committee on International Exchange of Persons of the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, the Defense Language Institute, the Department of State, Education and World Affairs, the English for Speakers of Other Languages Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), the Office of Education; the Peace Corps; Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL); and the United States Information Agency. It was thus possible to devote most of the time to discussion rather than presentations, though representatives made brief oral remarks preceding the discussions.

The activities of official national organizations of Britain and the United States were the first item on the agenda. Dr. King gave a general presentation on British activities including the work of the British Council, which he was representing. The Council is responsible by royal charter for the teaching of English as a foreign or second language overseas. It is presided over by an independent, co-opting Executive Committee, but most of its funds are provided by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, the Ministry of Overseas Development, and the Board of Trade. The Ministry of Overseas Development pays, in addition, for the Aid to Commonwealth English Scheme and for contract posts in Francophone Africa, Southeast Asia and elsewhere. The Council has helped in the establishment of the first three departments of English as a second language in universities in England, but these and other departments are now funded entirely through the Universities Grants Committee. The Council maintains an English-Teaching Information Centre in London.

Mrs. Jane M. Alden of the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the Department of State introduced the discussion on the activities of the U.S. Government agencies involved in the teaching of English overseas. She spoke of the work of the Interagency Committee on English Language Teaching, which has representation from the United States Information Agency, the Agency for International Development, the Peace Corps, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Department of Defense, and the Department of State. She described the functions of the Interagency Committee and discussed the program planning and coordination process in English teaching activities overseas.

Francis X Sutton of the Ford Foundation reported briefly on the activities and concerns of the Foundation in this field. He reported mainly on the situation overseas but also spoke of domestic concerns. In the overseas situation he spoke of the relation of English teaching to the total language situation in each country and of the need for considering sociolinguistic factors in determining varying problems, trends and kinds of need.

Representatives of four professional organizations involved wholly or in part in the teaching of English as a foreign or second language next introduced the discussion of their respective associations. W. R. Lee spoke for ATEFL as secretary to the association; James E. Alatis as Executive Secretary to TESOL; Harold B. Allen as representative of NCTE; and Bernard Spolsky as representative of ATESL of NAFSA. The presentations included brief outlines of organization, finance, membership, meetings, areas of domestic and overseas interest, affiliations and relationships with other associations and plans for future activities.

The activities of three institutions with concern and involvement in this field were discussed next. André E. Rheault spoke of some projects of Education and World Affairs that might have a bearing on this field. John A. Brownell reported on the work of the Committee for Cooperation on English in Japan. Charles A. Ferguson then spoke of the role and activities of the English for Speakers of Other Languages Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics, with some suggested ideas on directions for the future.

The remainder of the Conference was devoted to a careful consideration of resolutions and recommendations resulting from the two-day
discussions. The first set of recommendations were those drawn up by the Conference as a whole. In these, as in the Conference itself, the emphasis was more on the overseas rather than domestic aspects of the problem. The recommendations, after detailed discussion on the background and reasons for each, were assigned to small committees to formulate and the formulations were discussed further at a later session.

The areas of interest in the discussions connected with these recommendations included: the sociolinguistic background to English teaching in the world today based on the papers reported on above; the careful consideration of the political, economic and educational aspects of each situation; broader international involvement of resource countries; the administrative aspects of the work of official agencies, professional organizations, and other institutions involved in the field; evaluation of resources—both human and material; and the teaching of English to the disadvantaged.

The second set of recommendations was drawn up by NACTEFL in a closed session in which present and past members of the Council attending the Conference took part. The basic set of recommendations was concerned mainly with administrative and policy matters in the national effort in the teaching of English to those who do not speak it as a native language, whether they are in the United States or overseas. In the discussions that formed the background to the recommendations concerning the teaching of English, the Council emphasized its concern with language in general as an important aspect of international communication, and discussed the possibility of a more active advisory role for the profession in the formulation of national policies, perhaps through the establishment of a Linguistic Advisor to the President.

**CAL Receives TESOL Citation**

At the third annual convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), held in Chicago, March 5-8, the Center for Applied Linguistics was presented with a Certificate of Appreciation “in recognition of a decade of service to the English-teaching profession”. The citation was presented by David P. Harris, President-Elect of TESOL, on March 8. Following is the text of Dr. Harris’s remarks:

“1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 is an address that ought to be in the little black book of every member of this association. It is the address of the Center for Applied Linguistics, which is now celebrating its tenth anniversary.

“Although the Center is dedicated to serving all foreign language areas, it has, for the past decade, given particularly strong support to English as a second language and second dialect. Thanks to Miss Ohannesian’s very lucid summary yesterday morning, I need not detail the Center’s contributions to our profession. Let it suffice to say that the Center’s extremely valuable bibliographies of ESOL materials, and surveys of ESOL programs, occupy an easily-accessible spot on my desk, as I hope they do in the offices of all TESOL members here present. And it is well-nigh impossible to think of any area or aspect of our field where CAL has not rendered invaluable service and provided indispensable support since 1959. Its sponsorship or co-sponsorship of ESOL conferences —such as those which led to the establishment of TESOL—its work in urban language studies, its surveys for the Bureau of Indian Affairs—these and dozens of other functions might be mentioned.

“It therefore appeared most appropriate for the Executive Committee of TESOL, acting in behalf of the entire membership, to take advantage of CAL’s tenth anniversary to present the Center with an appropriate citation. (It is significant that the only other such citation was conferred upon Miss Ohannesian, Director of the Center’s ESOL Program, at Miami two years ago.)

“Dr. Roberts, please extend to the Center, and to its Director, John Lotz, our congratulations and best wishes as you begin your second decade.”

The Linguistic Reporter April 1969
The Committee for Cooperation on English in Japan

by Floyd M. Cammack

[Floyd M Cammack is currently Administrative Secretary of the Committee for Cooperation on English in Japan. In 1966-67 he was a Fulbright Lecturer at Tokyo University of Liberal Arts, and is now on leave as Associate Professor of Linguistics at Oakland University, Rochester, Michigan.]

In October 1967, the Committee for Cooperation on English in Japan* was formed as an independent, non-profit organization. It functions not as a funding organization, but as an advisory and reviewing group designed to respond to project ideas initiated and supported by Japanese organizations. The Committee is funded in equal parts by the Ford Foundation and the JDR 3rd Fund, and is administered through the Japan Society.

The creation of the Committee was itself an example of bi-national cooperation, developing, at least in part, from recommendations made by former Ambassador Reischauer before the completion of his assignment in Japan. The importance to Japan of an international auxiliary language had come to be increasingly recognized, and it was decided that the achievement of this goal by the Japanese might be encouraged through the creation of a group of specialists (not necessarily all linguists), capable of performing liaison functions, providing consulting services, and cooperating with Japanese interests in the development of a national language program capable of meeting the country's needs in the coming decades.

With its high degree of independence and informal structure, CCEJ can work with individuals, private and public organizations, governments, and international organizations. By utilizing the broad range of specialties represented by its members, CCEJ is able to encourage, evaluate, and promote ideas and projects in virtually all fields of linguistics and language teaching development.

The full Committee meets twice a year to consult with Japanese organizations and to review project proposals for referral to its sponsoring foundations and to other sources of support. The Tokyo office, opened in January 1968, provides year-round consulting service and information exchange and is the Committee's administrative headquarters for its continuing activities. Although not a grant-giving organization, by providing an informal coordinating function among individuals and organizations, CCEJ is temporarily performing some of the functions of a miniature Center for Applied Linguistics for English in Japan.

1 Provision of Native Speakers. In cooperation with the newly-formed Council on Language Teaching Development, CCEJ was asked to recruit and train native English-speaking teaching assistants for thirty-two intensive summer training courses for Japanese college students. These programs are an innovation for language teaching in Japan, in that they are financed by a consortium of private business concerns and utilize the best in existing university language-teaching talent. The programs have been successful enough that expanded versions are now being planned for the future.

2. Television Program. In cooperation with NHK, CCEJ has been asked to undertake a twenty-six-week, half-hour national television series on advanced English instruction. By combining the Committee's personnel and materials-production resources with NHK's technical facilities, a model series is being attempted that should help raise the production and content level of television language-teaching programs in Japan. International cooperation is being sought and organized with educational television stations in the United States. The British Council will also participate with the group, working toward a high-quality series of television tapes for Japanese learners.

3. English Through Drama. In cooperation with the U.S. Embassy's Educational Exchange Branch, and the Encyclopaedia Britannica, CCEJ has made it possible to continue and expand a highly successful language-teaching experiment introduced in Japan last year through the work of Richard Via, a professional stage manager and director who first came to Tokyo as a Fulbright Lecturer. While the relation be-
between language-learning and role-playing is familiar, it has not been systematically explored. If results seem to merit it, the system can be spread throughout the country's network of English Speaking Societies.

4 Student Visa Examinations. As part of a project to investigate the state and effect of English language testing, CCEJ's Tokyo office has been appointed official Examiner of English language proficiency for persons applying for visas to study in the United States. The whole question of English language testing in Japan deserves systematic consideration. Data now being developed will serve as the basis for these considerations. Several other experimental tests are also being designed and administered.

5 Data Bank. A "Keysort" punch card file is being developed with relevant information on Japanese and romaji on individuals, organizations, agencies, schools, universities, clubs, publishing companies, etc., that are involved in any way with the teaching or learning of English. If proved useful, all or part of this file may eventually be edited and published, or otherwise made available to interested persons. One section, for instance, lists foreign teachers in Japan. An annual directory of these persons, with an indication of their background and experience, should be of considerable use to prospective employers.

6. Supplementary Materials. In cooperation with the College Women's Association of Japan, a language teacher's "kit" has been assembled, which includes a variety of graphic and audio-visual materials to supplement the standard texts. Most are free or inexpensive and can be used without expensive projection equipment. This project also made it possible to identify areas in which materials were lacking and to bring these to the attention of designers and publishers. A small sample collection of texts and other materials is also being developed.

7. Audio-Visual Service. In cooperation with the American Cultural Center and the British Council, an attempt is being made to encourage the use of audio-visual materials in language classrooms. Design and production facilities have been made available for the usual types of materials, and equipment is lent on request to persons and organizations wishing to utilize them. In general, it is the simpler, cheaper items that are little known and less used. By demonstrating them in lectures it is hoped to set an example and to introduce teachers to their sources, design, and use. Commercial companies have been highly cooperative in this effort.

8 Information Service. A large number of visitors and phone calls are handled daily, concerning all types of information on language teaching methodology, available materials, international travel, schools at which teacher training courses are given, teaching personnel, job openings, visa requirements, cost of graduate training, course and test design, materials evaluation, etc. In some cases, answers can be produced from the office's own files. In others, it is a matter of putting the questioner in touch with persons who can fill his need. In all cases, it is a matter of providing information not easily available elsewhere in Japan.

Other activities have included the design and administration of a special linguistic orientation course for the first Japanese Volunteers to America. A similar tutoring system was established for a blind English teacher, planning to visit the United States for the first time. In cooperation with the Council on International Educational Exchange, a travel grant was arranged for a language school administrator who would not otherwise have been able to make the trip. Again working with the British Council, a series of small conferences was arranged and facilities provided for a visiting expert on English language programs.

The Chairman of the Committee is Dr. John A. Brownell, Deputy Chancellor for Academic Affairs, East-West Center, the Vice-Chairman is Dr. Everett Klemans, Chancellor, East-West Center. Committee members include Dr. Leroi James Benoi, Cornell University; Dr. Herbert Paman, Columbia University, Dr. Edwin O. Reischauer, Harvard University, and Mr. James L. Stewart, the Japan Society. Dr. Floyd M. Cammack is the Committee's Administrative Secretary, in charge of its Tokyo office.
The Research and Development Department of the Foundation for European Language and Educational Centres

by A. Margaret J. Stott

[A. Margaret J. Stott is Assistant for English in the Research and Development Department, Foundation for European Language and Educational Centres, Zurich.]

The Foundation for European Language and Educational Centres was established in 1960 to promote the learning of foreign languages and the understanding of other cultures and peoples, and to provide facilities for adults wishing to study the language and civilisation of a country in that country, particularly people not catered to by other types of institutions. The Foundation directs a number of language schools (Eurocentres) in different European countries, which teach the language and, at the same time, the culture of the country; the Foundation is also associated with other centres in Europe and the United States. The Eurocentres are non-profit-making and some financial support is provided by donors, especially by the Migros Federation.

The head office for administration, public relations, financial and pedagogical direction of the Eurocentres is in Zurich, and in 1965 a new department was created there—the Research and Development Department.

The aims of the department are to study and evaluate language-teaching methods and materials for adults and the work being done relevant to these subjects in linguistics, applied linguistics and methodology, in order to develop theoretically and pedagogically sound methods and materials for language-teaching and teacher-training. The department does not confine its interests only to the Eurocentres, but also participates in activities in Europe that deal with the practical problems of language-teaching and teacher-training. The department does not confine its interests only to the Eurocentres, but also participates in activities in Europe that deal with the practical problems of language-teaching and teacher-training and tries to contribute effectively to scientific studies in this field. The Eurocentres are represented in several organisations working for the promotion of language study, notably the Council for Cultural Cooperation (Council of Europe) and the Commission Interuniversitaire de Linguistique Appliquée (Switzerland), and members of the R & D department attend conferences and international meetings of linguistic bodies regularly. Faculty-members of Michigan State University are working with the department and various Eurocentres on psychological learning-theory, student-attitude surveys, testing and evaluation processes. The department is thus in touch with similar undertakings in Europe and the United States and hopes to extend this process of collaboration in whichever directions are found productive.

The department has a library of about 1,000 books and receives new publications regularly. Subscriptions to the most important journals are maintained and a bulletin containing abstracts of articles, books, reviews, and notices of meetings is produced monthly.

The first publications of the R & D department were two short documents, “Principles for the use of language laboratories” and “Programmed learning: Its pedagogical fundamentals”. Later another paper, “Techniques et épreuves de contrôle pour les langues étrangères”, was issued and presented in June 1967 at a meeting of experts in oral testing, organised by the Eurocentres and the University of Strasbourg.

Apart from the routine work of keeping informed on newly-published materials, materials developed by the research departments in the schools (the Bournemouth department has just published a “Teachers’ Handbook for a Summer Course in English”, a description of the principles and design of the type of short course offered by many Eurocentres in the summer months), and articles and books in the field, the department is occupied at the moment with four main projects. Work on these projects is carried on simultaneously for three languages—English, French and German—and will be extended to other languages when suitable assistants can be found.

1. Techniques of Modern Language Teaching. It was decided that a rational way to approach the problem of improving language-teaching was through teacher-training. The team working on this project thought it would be useful to describe certain techniques of language-teaching which, although already well-known to specialists, are not widely practised by teachers, who through lack of time and opportunity have not kept up with changes and developments since leaving their training-institutes. It was hoped that such a description would bridge the gap between the institutions...
and the individual working-teachers. This purpose imposed certain choices concerning the organisation of the material: (a) To be as generally useful as possible, the techniques described should not require technical aids not available to many teachers. Only conventional aids—blackboard, pictures—were made use of. (b) The descriptions should be comprehensible without a knowledge of linguistics. Linguistic terms were explained wherever they were used and theoretical explanations were kept to a minimum and restricted to a particular place in the description. (c) Each technique was described through practical examples showing how it could be applied to a certain teaching-problem. It was felt that most textbooks, though dealing with the theory effectively, failed to demonstrate the practice thoroughly enough. Each chapter (there are eight chapters each covering a different type of teaching-problem) has a progression which can be followed in the classroom, but without comprising a "lesson". The choice of types of problem covers as large an area as possible, and the choice of actual problems was based on what was thought to show the possibilities most clearly. (d) Each chapter was written for and in each language, with an attempt to both preserve an identity of principle and at the same time demonstrate the differences in approach necessitated by each language.

The book also contains a chapter on the definition of terminology and procedures for structural drills.

2. The "Kernel Lessons". To follow the "Techniques" volume and to give the teacher even more practical guidance, a series of "Kernel Lessons" is being designed in each language, which can form the basis of a course or be useful as additional materials for other courses. Each unit of the sixty units proposed is based on a structural or morphological teaching-point and demonstrates how it can be taught and practised by the types of drills and exercises described in the "Techniques". The "Kernel Lessons", as well as providing these additional examples of teaching techniques, also show: (a) a carefully graded progression of the syntactical patterns of the language, based on structural analyses prepared for each language; and (b) the phasing of the teaching time into different types of activity. Neither of these aspects had been dealt with explicitly in the "Techniques" volume.

3. Institute of Further Studies in Language-Teaching. The third project is the establishment of a new institution to combine the aims and projects of the R & D department with their practical applications to teacher-training and production of materials. It is hoped to establish an Institute of Further Studies in Language-Teaching comprising four main departments: research, teacher-training (applied to the teaching of five principal languages), language courses (for experimentation with materials and for demonstration to and by teacher-trainees), and production of new material. A documentation service and the responsibility for contact with other institutions would also lie within the organisation.

4. A "Eurocentre Method". It has always been one of the primary aims of the department to develop its own language-teaching methods and materials, not only for the benefit of our own schools, but for the profession in general, and much of our current work is to some degree a preparation for this. We have already spent some time considering and discussing how such a method should resemble and how differ from those with which we are familiar and have reached agreement on some general issues: (a) The new method would not take its organization primarily from structural progression (relationship between structures) but rather from a "semantic progression", i.e. the teaching unit would be centred on an item of meaning, not an item of structure or morphology. In our view, language-teaching methods based entirely or mainly on teaching structures, i.e. on language as a system, although providing an important part of the instruction, are incomplete and overlook important psychological factors of language-learning and learning in general. It is impossible to argue the case here, and at such an early stage, but this is the direction our new approach will almost inevitably take. (b) Although much lip-service is paid to the idea that hearing, speaking, reading and writing are each different skills and should be taught differently, it must be made more explicit in methods and materials. (c) The differences between understanding the system of language, manipulating it, and using it must be clearly recognised by teachers and course-writers. It is too early yet to say how these ideas, and others we derive from our work, will eventually be applied in the design of a method.
Ford Foundation Grant Supports LSA Secretariat

The Ford Foundation recently announced a grant of $300,000 to the Linguistic Society of America over a five-year period "for strengthening the Society's secretariat functions and operating Summer Linguistic Institutes." The grant will make it possible for the Society to improve its present services to the membership and to construct a framework for providing additional services in the future.

In accordance with the decision of the LSA Executive Committee, the Society's Secretary-Treasurer, Professor Thomas A Sebeok of Indiana University, has acted to establish an LSA office in Washington, D.C., in conjunction with the offices of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The Washington office is staffed by Diana Riehl, Administrative Assistant, with John H. Hammer, CAL Executive Officer, serving as executive associate, and Walter P. McIntosh, CAL Controller, serving as associate treasurer.

The reorganized secretariat will enable the Society to formally receive and disburse funds that will continue to assist student activities, such as summer study aids, and to support faculty research and conference travel. The new office will also perform—over and above the traditional activities of the Secretary-Treasurer—certain clearinghouse functions, and improve existing areas of cooperation with CAL, among them the preparation and publication of information on university resources in linguistics and the preparation of Annual Meeting handbooks (containing abstracts of papers). The Washington office will moreover endeavor to assure representation of the profession on many national committees involving its interests. All normal LSA housekeeping will be assumed by the new office, which will also endeavor to develop new areas of collaboration with sister organizations. Correspondence with the secretariat should be addressed to: Linguistic Society of America, Room 800, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. (The Secretary-Treasurer's university address is Patton House, 316 East Sixth Street, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.)

[The Center for Applied Linguistics provides office space for several language-oriented organizations. In addition to housing the secretariat of the LSA, CAL houses the secretariat of the American Dialect Society and provides office space for certain editorial and information services of the Association for Computational Linguistics. (A. Hood Roberts, CAL Associate Director, is secretary-treasurer of ADS and editor of its newsletter. He is also editor of the ACL newsletter, The Finite String.) CAL likewise provides office space for certain activities of the International Committee on Computational Linguistics, and of the Committee on Linguistics in Documentation, a study committee of the Fédération Internationale de Documentation. To facilitate the administrative relationships involved in these activities, the Center has established a Secretariats Division, under the general supervision of the Center's Director.]

The University of New Mexico has established an intercollege and interdepartmental Program in Linguistics and Language Pedagogy. The primary task of the Program will be to encourage and coordinate the offering of courses in linguistics and language pedagogy in the various departments in the University. There are at present forty-six courses offered in eight different departments. The Program will also cooperate with the relevant departments in the maintenance and establishment of degree programs in the field. Prof. Bernard Spolsky is Chairman of the seven-member coordinating committee. For further details, write to: Bernard Spolsky, Program in Linguistics and Language Pedagogy, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico 87106.

The University of Colorado has announced the establishment of a Department of Linguistics and the organization of a Doctoral Program in Linguistics. The University has for several years had an Advisory Committee which directed an Interdepartmental Program leading to an M.A. in Linguistics. The Doctoral Program will cover not only the basic aspects of synchronic and diachronic linguistics but also many areas of specialization in critical languages and in applied linguistics, including mathematical linguistics and psycholinguistics.

For further information about the Department of Linguistics or the Doctoral Program, write to Prof. Luigi Romeo, Chairman, Department of Linguistics, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado 80302.
Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics


There will be sectional meetings on a wide variety of topics, including linguistics applied to literary texts, lexicography, measurement and classification of second language error, and theory of translation. The Organizer welcomes offers of papers for the sectional meetings. There will also be exhibitions and demonstrations of language teaching films, equipment, books and materials.

Information on fees, accommodations, travel arrangements, and side trips following the Congress, as well as application forms, may be obtained from the Honorary Congress Organizer, AILA Congress, Department of Linguistics, Sidgwick Avenue, Cambridge, England.

Preparatory courses which will provide a suitable introduction to the topics of the Congress will be held at Cambridge, July 8–August 2, [write: Board of Extra-Mural Studies (L), Stuart House, Mill Lane, Cambridge], and at Edinburgh, August 4–23, [write: Department of Applied Linguistics, 14 Buccleuch Place, Edinburgh, 8].

Recent CAL Publications


Presents eight papers concerned with literacy, focusing primarily on language, the relationship of language to reading, and the role of the child’s own language behavior in the process of learning to read. Several of the articles were written specifically for this volume. Others are reprinted from various journals. The papers are: ‘Dialectology and the Teaching of Reading’, by Raven I. McDavid, Jr.; ‘Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension’, by Kenneth S. Goodman; ‘Some Sources of Reading Problems for Speakers of Nonstandard English’, by Ralph W. Fasold; ‘Teaching Reading in an Urban Negro School System’, by Joan C. Baratz; ‘A Linguistic Background for Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Black Children’, by Roger W. Shuy; ‘Toward Reading Materials for Speakers of Black English: Three Linguistically Appropriate Passages’, by Walter A. Wolfram and Ralph W. Fasold; and ‘On the Use of Negro Dialect in the Teaching of Reading’, by William A. Stewart.


Parts I and II of Reference List of Materials, a comprehensive annotated bibliography, covered the years 1953–63. Part I, published in 1964, contains text materials, readers, dictionaries, and tests; Part II, published in 1966, contains background materials in linguistics, the English language, and methodology of language teaching. This Supplement covers both areas, bringing the first two parts up to date, and adds sections on contrastive studies of English and other languages, and on teaching aids that were not included in the first two volumes.

The Linguistic Reporter April 1969
Languages and Society in the Technical World

An international symposium on "Languages and Society in the Technical World" was organized by the Olivetti Company as part of the celebrations in honor of the hundredth anniversary of the birth of its founder, Camillo Olivetti. The symposium was held in Milan at the Museo Nazionale della Scienza e della Tecnica, October 14-17, 1968, and was attended by over 500 participants.

There were twenty-three papers delivered by experts on language problems from the United States, Europe, and Israel. The papers and discussions were organized around three themes: 'The structure of language and the structure of society', 'The science of natural and artificial languages', and 'The innovating effect of language'. The Olivetti Company intends to publish the proceedings of the symposium in early 1969.

new journals

SEAMEC Regional English Language Centre Newsletter. Published by the SEAMEC Regional English Language Centre. Quarterly. First issue: September 1968. Subscription free on application. Correspondence: SEAMEC Regional English Language Centre, 104 Watten Estate, Singapore 11.

Aims to keep interested persons informed about the activities of the Regional English Language Centre, established by the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Council, in training, research, instructional materials production, and other related fields. The first issue contains reports on two teacher-training programs and a seminar on teacher training.


The University of Arizona now offers a two-semester program in the Department of English leading to the M.A. with a major in English as a Second Language. The program is intended primarily for elementary and secondary school teachers in the Southwest or other sections of the country where schools face the problem of students whose first language is not English. It also provides training for teaching English to speakers of other languages at any level, including college and university, both in the U.S. and abroad.

The program requires 30 hours of graduate credit, 21 in required courses and nine in electives. A thesis is not required. A comprehensive examination is given toward the end of the course of study. Admission is through the Graduate College.

Address inquiries for further information to the Director of Graduate Study, Department of English, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona 85721.

Aims to provide information on existing and prospective materials for American Indian students, a means of exchange of information between teachers and others involved in teaching English in the BIA educational system, and articles of practical interest to teachers of English to American Indians. The first issue contains an article, 'Beginning School in a Second Language', by Dr. Lois McIntosh, 'The Teacher's Bookshelf', a selected list of materials; and 'Information Exchange', which provides notes on programs and activities.

RLS: Regional Language Studies . . . Newfoundland. Published by the Memorial University of Newfoundland. First issue: October 1968. Editor: William Kirwin. Correspondence: William Kirwin, Department of English, Memorial University, St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.

An informal publication designed to disseminate information about linguistic research being conducted in Newfoundland or related to the languages spoken in Newfoundland and Labrador. It will contain notes on research, questions about particular problems, bibliographies, and brief articles on various aspects of language in the province. In general it will not present longer articles more suitable for specialized journals.

Intended to explain the new approaches to language teaching and to introduce teachers and students to the linguistic and psychological theories that underlie modern methods. Considerable space is devoted to the problem of proper use of audio-visual materials and the language laboratory. Numerous illustrations of such equipment are provided, with comments on the relative advantages of the different types. Bibliography, glossary, and index.


Designed for the student of Chinese linguistics, this study describes the structure of the spoken language within the framework of immediate constituent analysis. The grammatical description is based on Standard Mandarin, but is generally valid for the other dialects as well as a good part of the literary language. Illustrative examples are presented throughout in Chinese characters and Gwoyeu Romatzyh (National Romanization) transcription. The first chapter includes a brief résumé of Mandarin phonology.

This work was supported by a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.


This grammar is intended primarily for students who aspire to a simple reading knowledge of present-day Arabic, as a tool for utilizing recent Arabic writings in their own particular discipline. The material is set forth in condensed, outline form in a series of eighteen chapters, each chapter devoted to a particular feature or set of related features (e.g. Nouns and Adjectives, Circumstance Clauses). The Arabic material is given in the traditional orthography, with a minimum of voweling. Scant attention is given to the inflectional endings. Most of the illustrative material consists of brief complete sentences. No exercise material is included.


This course aims to provide a foundation in classical Chinese grammar on which the student planning to specialize in classical studies can build and to give the student of modern Chinese sufficient knowledge of the literary language for his purposes. Vol. 1 contains 22 basic texts exemplifying most of the common syntactic features of literary Chinese. Texts 1–6 (accompanied by romanized versions) were specially written or adapted for this volume; the remainder were taken unchanged from other sources. Additional selections enable those interested in pre-modern history and literature or modern history and social studies to apply new analytical principles to advanced passages in fields of special interest. Following the texts are translation exercises, some with grammar notes; a character index; and a discussion of various systems of romanization, including a comparative syllabary for the Yale and Guoyeu-Romatzyh systems and the Wade-Giles romanization used here.

Vol. 2 contains the collected vocabulary lists for all the texts, each with notes. Vol. 3 contains commentaries on the texts, an 'Outline of Grammar', with illustrative examples, and an index to function words.

The research on which this work is based was performed pursuant to a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.


The author characterizes this monograph as 'essentially a prise de position with regard to certain of the central questions in current debates over the nature of human linguistic systems and our techniques of analyzing and describing them' (ix). There are ten chapters: 'Non-linguistic premises', 'The "life-cycle" of the idiolect', 'Language in society', 'The characteristics of language structure', 'The description of linguistic structure', 'Language changes —but how?', 'Language changes—but why?', 'Linguistics and other disciplines', 'The function of linguistics', 'Conclusion'. Brief bibliography and glossary.

This dictionary is a key to all irregular forms in the 20,000 most frequently occurring words in the Russian language. The entries are arranged alphabetically according to stems, with added entries—all provided with grammatical explanations and English translations. Most of the irregular forms cited here cannot be found in any dictionary, but must be searched for in schematic tables and the like in Russian grammars. Word stress is marked for all polysyllables.


'The enormous role which language plays in our civilization has been rightly grasped by all, but unfortunately not the importance of the efficiency of a language . . . A proper solution of the intricate problems of language planning is possible only if a new branch of science is established . . . the theory of language planning' (p. 5) Following an introductory chapter, the author outlines a theory of language planning. 'Principles and methods', 'Morphology', 'Syntax', 'Lexicology', 'Graphemics', 'Tactics', and 'Interlinguistics'. Appended are glossaries of terms and abbreviations used, and subject and name indexes.


An introductory text designed to enable the student to speak and read simple texts in Amharic. A preliminary section treats the phonology and the writing system, includes reading exercises. Each of the 50 lessons contains a description of one or more grammatical features of the language, a vocabulary list, and exercises. Occasional dialogues and narratives provide supplementary reading and conversation practice. Every fifth lesson is a review. The Amharic material is presented in the standard orthography, with some use of transcription and diacritics to aid pronunciation. Appendices include Amharic-English and English-Amharic glossaries and a series of grammatical tables.


This book is the outcome of a project of the Inter-University Committee for Near Eastern Languages (Peter F Abboud, Chairman, Najm A. Bezirgan, Wallace M. Erwin, Mounah A. Khouri, Ernest N. McCarus, Raji M. Ramuny). The book is designed to teach elementary Modern Standard Arabic to English-speaking students at the university level. Its objective is to start the student on his way toward proficiency in comprehending written and spoken MSA and in using the language to communicate orally and in writing. The book is based on the audio-lingual approach, and can probably be completed in one academic year.

The main body of the book consists of 55 lessons. Lessons 1–10 are devoted principally to the phonology and the Arabic writing system. Lessons 11–51 present the grammatical structures and basic vocabulary of the book. Lessons 52–55 are reading texts intended to provide a transition to the intermediate level. Appendices contain verb tables, an index of grammatical terms, and an Arabic-English glossary. The typical lesson contains four parts: basic text; vocabulary, grammar and drills; general drills. The basic texts are unvowed, and are followed by an English translation, the individual words in the vocabulary sections, however, are given with full vowe ling. Transcription is used sparingly in the introductory lessons to illustrate and explain the phonology and writing system. Accompanying tapes include basic texts, grammar drills, and pronunciation drills. 8 reels, 7.50 ips, dual track. Running time: 16½ hours. Cost: $34.00 plus postage. Order from: University of Michigan Audio-Visual Center, Tape Duplication Service, 416 Fourth Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48103.


The first English translation of *Anleitung zu phonologischen Beschreibungen* (Brno, 1935). This essay summarizes Trubetzkoy’s phonology in a set of eleven rules followed by explanations and a treatise on phoneme combinations, prosodic features, and boundary markers. Although some aspects of Trubetzkoy’s analysis would now require modification, the essay is of great historical importance.


Six essays originally delivered as lectures at University College, London, in the spring of 1958. The essays deal with the structural approach to English, style, speech education, English in the schools, English for scientists and engineers, and English as a foreign language. First published in 1959.


These two works are intended to give an introduction to linguistics in general but they also supply the key to Firth’s linguistics in particular and therefore by extension to much of current British linguistics as a whole (page x). *Tongues of Men* was first published in 1937; *Speech* in 1930.


A classic study, founded on the conviction that “the scientific basis of the practical study of languages is what may be called ‘living philosophy’, which starts from the accurate observation of spoken languages by means of phonetics and psychology . . .” (page 1). First published in 1899.


Based on notes taken by students during the course of three series of de Saussure’s lectures, this book has been credited with providing the theoretical foundation of modern scientific linguistics. First published in French (1916) as *Cours de linguistique générale*, English translation 1959.


Originally published as *Kindersprache, Aphasie und allgemeine Lautgesetze* (Uppsala, Almqvist & Wiksell, 1941: 83 pp.). It presents the fullest and most detailed discussion of Jakobson’s phonological typology and the related problems of language acquisition and phonemic regression. The continuing importance and influence of this monograph lie in its formal linking of the problems of linguistic universals and of language acquisition, which have re-emerged as focal problems in current thinking.


The original American edition of this work (1963) arose out of collaboration between representatives of the language teaching profession and the electronics industry in the United States. It was written specifically for the guidance of administrators and manufacturers as well as teachers. Chapters 1–4 discuss various types of language laboratory systems, advantages provided by the language laboratory, and considerations that enter into planning an installation. Chapter 5, which constitutes almost half the work, is a detailed discussion of technical specifications, frequently in technical language. Chapters 6 and 7 are concerned with checking of performance, and service and maintenance. Appendix A sets forth a sample specification; Appendix B, which did not appear in the American edition, is a select bibliography of audio-visual teaching material containing over 350 entries.
meetings and conferences

April 21–May 2. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 21st. Boston, Massachusetts.
[Writing: James W. Dodge. Box E. Brown University, Providence. Rhode Island 02912.]
April 30–May 3. International Reading Association, 14th. Kansas City, Missouri.
[Writing: Centro de Linguistica Aplicada, Avenida 9 de Julio 3166, Sao Paulo, Brazil.]


An examination of the ways in which a speaker of 'native central English' adjusts his language to the various contexts in which he uses it. The author distinguishes five styles, or 'clocks': frozen, formal, consultative, casual, intimate. First published in 1962 in an Indiana University linguistic monograph series.


This volume presents the theories of language which underlie the author's Principles of Language-Study (1921). There is extensive discussion of the nature of language, factors and principles of linguistic pedagogy, various kinds of programmes, the functions of the teacher, and categories of students. An appendix contains a scheme for a French ergonic chart. First published in 1917, the volume is here reprinted in a slightly abbreviated form.


Brings into one volume sixty-two of Boas' papers written between 1891 and 1937. Includes section, "Language" (pp. 199–239). First published in 1940.


Nine essential principles are identified and discussed in detail. Palmer was one of the leading specialists in the theory and practice of teaching English as a foreign language in the first part of the present century. First published in 1921.


Brings together a dozen of the author's papers, most of them originally published between 1961 and 1964, explaining and discussing modern developments in applied linguistics and language teaching and in linguistic science.
The Teaching of Arabic in Great Britain

by T. F. Mitchell

[F. T. Mitchell is Professor of English Language and General Linguistics, and currently Chairman of the School of English, at the University of Leeds. This paper was prepared for the Ninth International Conference on Second Language Problems, which was held at Tunis in April 1968.]

This paper is mostly based on replies to a questionnaire sent to British universities where there was reason to believe Arabic studies are pursued. Answers were received from most of the important centres with the exceptions of Manchester and St. Andrews. With this reservation and the additional one that respondents wrote as individuals rather than representatives, it is none the less likely that the statements made in the paper are broadly true of the teaching of Arabic in the U.K. Any unintentional misrepresentation of opinions and practices lies squarely with the author, who is also responsible for whatever emphases or lack of emphases appear below.

Arabic a major British requirement

In terms of total national demand, taking account not only of educational institutions, notably universities, but also of commerce and the public service, notably the foreign service and the armed forces, Arabic is the 4th or 5th most important language in the United Kingdom, clearly in advance of Italian and for the time being ranking alongside Russian, thus yielding pride of place only to such languages as French, Spanish, and German. This ought not, of course, to surprise us, not only or so much because of a traditional British interest in the Arab world but because of the fact that Arabic is the native language of a dozen major countries with a total population approaching 100,000,000, spread over an enormous geographical area from Morocco to the borders of Iran and the Russian steppes to south of the Sahara. It is, of course, also the language of a worldwide religion, the immutable linguistic vehicle of the Quran, as much in Kuala Lumpur, Jakarta, and Woking as in Mecca or Medina, Qairouan, Tlemcen, or Fez. We know, too, that the Arabic script—or adaptations of it—provides the written shape of such widely diverse languages as Kurdish, Sindhi, Balti, and Malay. There is no doubt therefore as to the importance of Arabic and only somewhat less as to British awareness of this importance. We may recall, too—to digress trans-Atlantically—that Arabic was one of six languages designated as 'critical' in the terms of the American National Defense Education Act of 1958, which gave education in certain key foreign languages equal importance with education in science, mathematics, and engineering.

Theological origins of Arabic study in the west

In western Europe, the nature of Arabic as the language of a world religion has for long loomed large in our attention. For example, "the study of oriental languages in Durham, in so far as it began with Hebrew, goes back to the foundation of the University and..."
beyond that, through the canons of the Cathedral and the monks of Durham, to the early Middle Ages. Hebrew has always been a primary requisite for a proper understanding of the Bible. So runs a quotation from the brochure of the School of Oriental Studies in Durham. For the same reason, a chair of Arabic has existed in Oxford for over 350 years: the first chair of Turkish, for long a more important language politically, was not created before the late 19th century. This kind of interest, and consequent close association of Arabic with Hebrew, also a language of religion, informs the course offerings at a number of universities even today. It is true that at such centres the Arabic stake is comparatively small and, moreover, it would probably be true to say about them that philological, historical, and antiquarian aspects of the language figure as prominently today as its religious interest. Yet it is not surprising to find Arabic taught in, say, Bangor, North Wales, in a Department of Hebrew and Biblical Studies, or in Aberdeen as an optional subject for Bachelor of Divinity students specialising in Hebrew and Old Testament, or again in Liverpool as an additional language in the honours course in Oriental Studies (= Hebrew and Egyptology). These and others like them are, however, relatively minor British centres for the teaching of Arabic and the major centres, of which more later, are quite different propositions, although it is well to remember that they, too, share the genesis that has been briefly indicated. There must, therefore, be some divergence between more practical needs in the country and the scholarly interests of at any rate some teachers of Arabic in Great Britain.

Problems posed by the language itself and attitudes to it

One of the greatest difficulties facing the teacher and learner lies in the nature of Arabic itself, which is one name to cover a range of linguistic usage and activity as diverse as that of the whole Romance field from Classical Latin to Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. Many of the linguistic assumptions made and attitudes adopted by Arabs themselves and often reflected in the West do little to help the foreign student of Arabic. In some quarters there is almost a conspiracy of silence on the subject of spoken Arabic, partly because it is mistakenly assumed that satisfactory spoken performance of an educated kind can be learned from books or at any rate picked off the lips of educated Arabs, partly too because colloquial language is not only considered contemptible and uncouth but in its great regional diversity is held to have implications running counter to the concept, mythical or not, of “the Arab nation.” This is not to deny the inestimable worth of the study, for example, of Arabic literary forms and of the Quran but rather to say that, with the best will in the world, it is generally impossible for the westerner not to be struck by, as it is regrettably impossible for him to share, the apparently mystical experience of so many Arabs listening to Classical Arabic sometimes less, it might seem, for what the speaker says than for what he sounds like saying it. Another of our difficulties, which will be mentioned again, is the severely limited time the student of Arabic can devote to the language before taking his degree, in comparison with, say, the student of French, who studies his language for seven years or so at school and will soon do so for longer when French study becomes general in the primary schools. The problems of studying just the contemporary language, its more or less common written form and its spoken regional variations, are immense, and in a situation in which to all intents and purposes Arabic is studied at universities only, in which the number of students is absurdly small and the resultant number available to undertake the necessary research in Arabic linguistics and in teaching Arabic as a foreign language to English speakers quite disproportionate to present and more especially future national needs, in such circumstances we need suitably trained and aware native users of Arabic to provide or help provide the necessary teaching materials and other aids. This must involve Arabs undertaking serious linguistic research on their native language, research as much on the stylistics of speech as on writing. What is Standard Arabic, notably, what are the educated pan-Arab norms of spoken as of written usage? We need to know not only who adapts to whom and in what ways when Egyptian meets Iraqi, Tunisian meets Egyptian or Moroccan, man meets woman or either meets child, lesser mortal meets minister of state, and so on, but we also want to know how innuendoes, suggestions, requests, etc., are conveyed and understood. To know such facts would be demonstrably of more immediate use to the
language teacher and, let it be said again, it is to those who are to the manner born that we must turn for help if we are ever to use Arabic at all perceptively and appropriately. It would, for instance, be intensely interesting to know if and how a chief of state edits his talks and speeches in response to the anticipated nationality or nationalities of his audience. Form and function is a treacherous dichotomy—as my colleague J.B. Pride has said, it is difficult to follow those linguists who maintain that they study language for its own sake when it has never existed for its own sake. To the foreign consumer of Arabic, information of the kind which is being asked for here would be greatly more beneficial than the vast numbers of technical terms that have recently been 'engineered' by the several academies of Cairo, Damascus, and Baghdad, useful as these clearly are to Arabs themselves, though less so, it should be said, if they also reveal an inclination to bow to the purist view by which even the common international coin of Greek and Latin termini technici have to be re-translated into Arabic of the purest alloy. It can be seen in any case that the learner's difficulties are formidable. He deserves our sympathy, too, for the lack of any bilingual dictionary, other than Hans Wehr's, and perhaps also for the lack of even a bazaar-type book of Arabic idioms, since idioms only seem to occur in colloquial Arabic—where they occur in profusion—and therefore differ greatly throughout the Arab world. It is presumably the absence of idioms from Standard Arabic that accounts for the strange silence on the topic. So much, then, for some all too random thoughts that occur to the writer on the problems posed by some aspects of the Arabic learning and teaching situation.

Arabic study effectively limited to university level

It has already been said that for practical purposes the study of Arabic is confined to universities. Elsewhere in Great Britain it is no more than a gleam in the eye of the very occasional headmaster or the evening institute principal, although conceivably opportunities for advanced study may at some time be provided under the auspices of such bodies as the recently constituted Council for National Academic Awards. Apart from some adult teaching, so far of a mainly vocational kind, undertaken at the well known Holborn College of Law, Languages, and Commerce, and to some extent also at the Stockwell and Waterloo Institute in London and at the City of Birmingham College of Commerce; apart, too, from private tuition provided in Arabic by the Exporters' Educational Trust, Arabic is a wholly university subject in the United Kingdom. This is not to include, it should be added, the important work undertaken outside the country in the training of a variety of non-university students—public servants, military personnel, businessmen, etc.—at the Middle East Centre for Arabic Studies maintained by the Foreign Office at Shimal in the Lebanon, where the courses are more strictly of a vocational kind.

At a university like Cambridge, fairly typically, the aim of the undergraduate tripos course is to put the student in a position to understand the Arabs as well as possible without actually visiting an Arab country within a period of three years, during which many students are doing another subject simultaneously. Their limitations at the end of their course must be self-evident. Some universities have a four-year course—the Scottish degree system favours this in centres like Edinburgh, for example, and at the most important British centre for Asian and African studies, the School of Oriental and African Studies in London, where the largest concentration of staff and students is located, it has been a matter of policy for some time to introduce four-year courses over as wide a range of curricular subjects as possible. It may be, however, that the difference between a three-year and a four-year course is unlikely to make a very considerable difference, save perhaps in the important respect that the longer period might permit an extended stay in an Arab country. It would nevertheless seem that a two-year 'bath' as can happen at Cambridge, and effectively too at Oxford, is an inadequate immersion.

Aims and assumptions underlying courses of instruction

In response to a question relating to aims and assumptions as well as to the levels of attainment expected in listening, speaking, reading, and writing Arabic, the answer from Oxford was one with which university teachers in general, whatever their subject, will find themselves much in sympathy. This is that the aim of a university, insofar as it is a teaching institution, is to provide its students with an
education rather than with a vocational training in skills and techniques, to enlarge their intellectual awareness and sensitivity by "inducing in them a sympathetic understanding of some selected area either of man's physical environment or of human behaviour itself."

In opposition to this view there has been of recent years an increasing demand for a more "technological" approach to human studies. Nowhere perhaps has this been more noticeable than in language teaching, where for some years now many seem to have been engaged on a fruitless quest for the magic method, usually a narrowly behaviouristic one, by which to teach languages, more often than not English, north, south, east, and west. An honours degree in Arabic, however, is not regarded by the overwhelming majority of Arabs as vocational training, although the facilities to provide this are probably insufficiently available in the country. Not so long ago the only career outlet for a graduate in oriental studies was an academic one and a certain lack of adventurousness was discernible in such graduates, who were not, for example, prepared to use their Arabic for commercial purposes in the Middle East and North Africa. It is an ill wind, however, because it is no doubt in part due to the increase of nationalism since World War II that more posts are now available both at home and abroad to specialists in this field—for example, in the Foreign Service, the British Council, the oil companies and similar commercial organisations. These, however, are types of vocational employment, however important, and perhaps more happily still, employers in general are noticeably if slowly coming round to the view that graduates in Arabic and similar unusual languages are not exotic oddities but people with the same sort of training and adaptability as graduates in the European disciplines, who for long have not necessarily occupied posts in which their specialist knowledge is used as such. This equally applies to 'modern' graduates as to those specialised in an ancient oriental language, for whom, on a vocational basis, posts would tend to be available only in universities, museums, and research libraries in the U.K. and to a lesser extent the Commonwealth.

The objective at Oxford to "induce in the student some degree of empathy with the culture of the relevant area" will command sympathy generally, nor could there be valid objection to the induction being accomplished through the study of literature, as in Oxford. The linguist would, however, probably wish to probe more deeply the implications of the additional statement that "oral and acoustic skills (speaking and understanding the spoken word) are, if not irrelevant, at least decidedly subordinate to the task of reading and understanding, in depth, literary materials." Given the desperately short time during which the student studies Arabic at university, it is probably wholly sensible to concentrate on reading and on reading literature. The linguist's objection—and it would be a strong one—would be to any suggestion that it is not of the highest educative value to seek to develop in a student equal sensitivity to the cultural and stylistic content and use of speech. The fact remains that, for good reasons, attention is concentrated first and foremost and often exclusively on teaching students to read Arabic. In Cambridge, it is said, not much stress is laid on writing and even less on speaking, not necessarily out of lack of respect for these aspects of linguistic activity but because, in the light of the academic objectives of the course, the best way to spend the limited time available is to concentrate on reading. Another factor in Cambridge is that a high proportion of students transfer to Arabic from other subjects and are only able therefore to work on Arabic for two years. In Oxford, too, the majority of candidates offer two subjects, one main and one secondary, and are said to put in only two years effectively on their main subject, although they follow courses in it over three years. It appears that in centres other than Oxford and Cambridge more time is available and somewhat greater attention payable to other aspects of learning than reading, which nevertheless remains the principal preoccupation. In Leeds, the aim of Arabic courses is to provide a reading knowledge of the language but also the ability to write the literary language and to understand broadcast Arabic from Arab countries. In Edinburgh the aim is stated as being to "give students the ability to read classical and modern Arabic literature" but "also to write modern literary Arabic." In the Modern Arabic course in Durham, although a greater emphasis is placed on writing and speaking than in the corresponding Classical course, nevertheless it is admitted that for good reasons standards of reading and writing are usually higher than those of listen-
SOAS also reports that the students' ability to speak at the end of the course is less well developed than their reading and writing knowledge. In London a language laboratory is used to familiarise students with the sound of so-called Standard Arabic and some colloquial instruction is given, though not examined. As a rule, in most universities lectors and lecturers who are native speakers of Arabic serve the purpose inter alia of giving the student some idea of what the language sounds like.

Courses and course content

Space does not permit a detailed breakdown of courses and course content at the different university centres. This can, of course, be discovered by consulting the prospectuses and brochures of the several universities concerned. For practical purposes, Arabic as an optional component of courses directed towards other specialisms—Egyptology, for example—may be ignored, as well as those postgraduate diploma courses by which research workers who have graduated in fields other than Arabic are enabled to gain sufficient knowledge of Arabic for the work on which they are engaged. What follows, then, relates almost exclusively to first-degree courses in Arabic.

In general, the early part of a student's course is spent on basic linguistic instruction and in imparting a preliminary acquaintance with important aspects of Arab culture. London speaks of the first year as in effect a pre-university year, in which a good deal of instruction takes place in the language laboratory. At the end of the preliminary period the student should be able to gather at least the gist of simple modern prose (though not imaginative literature). One of the major changes that have taken place in recent years is the introduction of modern, usually literary, Arabic into what was earlier an entirely classical course. It seems to be general practice where courses combine Classical and Modern Arabic to start with modern forms of the language on the view that this makes the subsequent reading of Classical Arabic much easier. At the end of the first year the student will have read a modern literary text (say, from Taha Hussein's Al-Ayyam) and a short selection of simple classical texts. The following period will be devoted to the main bulk of the required reading. In the later parts of a given course some of the more difficult books in Arabic are studied, for example early poetry with the commentaries and grammatical works. The move that has taken place away from the earlier theological interest towards other subject areas is illustrated by the emphasis placed on either literature or history in Oxford. The basic Oxford specialism in Arabic is a literary one with only two papers out of eleven in the final examination being devoted to the historical and cultural background. There is, however, an alternative to this in the B.A. in Islamic History, which reverses the balance and is essentially historical but with two papers on language designed to ensure some competence in using original historical sources. The early work is the same for both the literary and historical streams. As has been said, however, the greatest all-round change of emphasis has been the comparatively recent introduction of Modern Arabic. In some centres there are basically two courses of instruction, sharing the early stages but thereafter exhibiting a modern bias, on the one hand, or a classical one, on the other. This is true of Leeds, for example. Here by the end of the first year, students of both streams are expected to be able to read easy continuous prose, compose short essays in grammatically acceptable Arabic, and discuss matters of grammar with comprehension. After their second year they will have read portions from writings by well known modern writers of prose and poetry, and some selected passages from mediaeval prose. In the third and fourth years one course takes students to an advanced level in Modern Arabic reading and composition, and the other to a similar level in the study of the Quran and Quranic exegesis, Classical poetry and prose. Students are also given a sufficient acquaintance with spoken Standard Arabic to enable them to understand broadcasts from Arab countries. In Durham, too, there are two separate courses, one leading to the B.A. in Classical Arabic and Islamic Studies, the other to the B.A. in Modern Arabic Studies. The first is 'designed for the student who wishes to study the civilisation of Islam before the impact of the West and who wishes to be initiated into the vast literature of Classical Arabic.' It is also intended for the student who prefers to begin the philological study of the Semitic languages by way of Arabic. The Modern Arabic course is intended for those who are interested in the modern Arab world and "aims to provide the student not merely
with a good knowledge of contemporary written and spoken Arabic, but also to give him the requisite background for understanding modern life and current affairs in the Arab world. The spoken Arabic that he is taught to speak is 'Standard Arabic,' not any of the nationally distinct regional colloquials. Durham has a research project of investigation into spoken 'Standard Arabic.'

Apart from MECAS, about which the writer has little knowledge but whose students after their highly intensive course acquire considerable skill in speaking and writing Arabic and who live for a part of their course with Lebanese families, apart from MECAS, then, and from some instruction in Egyptian colloquial Arabic that is given in the final year of the course at SOAS, little attention is paid to colloquial Arabic, partly because of the limited time available. In Edinburgh students may attend a course of from half a dozen to a dozen tutorials on colloquial Arabic, but this is optional. The systematic study of colloquial regional forms of Arabic consequently tends to be a postgraduate area of activity and to be undertaken by native speakers of Arabic under the supervision less of Arabists than of general linguists with a special interest in Arabic. This is not wholly the case, however, and there is a growing interest in linguistics and the contribution it may make to Arabic studies among Arabists in Edinburgh, Leeds, London, and Oxford, to name only four centres. By and large, however, interest in spoken Arabic has been shown chiefly by linguists and by way of illustration, if the writer may be allowed to sound a personal note, there are currently postgraduate students working under his supervision in Leeds on such subjects as Egyptian Arabic idioms, the nature and use of interrogative form in Egyptian Arabic, syllabication in Jordanian Arabic, forms of address and reference in an Arabic dialect of Jordan, intonation in the Algerian dialect of Tlemcen, code-switching in 'Standard Arabic,' verbal tenses in a Saudi dialect, etc.

This approximate division of interest is, of course, wholly understandable, and the research interests in Arabic of university teachers of the subject are likely to be predominantly literary, historical, religious, and philological.

Perhaps something should be said about combinations of Arabic with other subjects in first-degree courses. Given the difficulties already outlined, a majority of university teachers would almost certainly like a four-year course devoted exclusively to the study of Arabic. As things are, however, there is usually another subject to be studied at the same time, at least as a subsidiary interest. If a student's inclinations seem to lie in the direction of Islamic studies, he will probably study, say, Persian or Turkish, if they are philological, he will probably read Hebrew, and so on. For these reasons and as in other parts of Western Europe, notably Germany, Arabic teachers often find themselves teaching other subjects also. There are, too, in some universities, for example Leeds and London, facilities for studying two subjects to the same degree of depth. In Leeds, for example, Arabic may be thus combined at present with English, French, Spanish, and Religious Studies, and other combinations are envisaged. One important form of combination that has come about in recent times is what American colleagues will recognize under the name of area studies. Asian and African studies in Great Britain were given an enormous impetus by the report in the late 1940's of the Royal Commission under the chairmanship of the Earl of Scarbrough, as a result of which many universities, and in particular the School of Oriental and African Studies in London, were able to offer courses and degrees in the principal languages and civilisations, ancient, mediaeval, and modern, of the Middle East and North Africa among other areas. Asian and African studies received a further stimulus, albeit of a different kind, in the early 60's as a result of the Hayter Committee's report, which recommended primarily the considerable strengthening of the social sciences in these geographical areas of interest. The centre concept, well known in America, was very much part of Hayter thinking, although linguistics was curiously absent from its social scientific conceptions, and there are now at SOAS, for instance, centres covering the major regions of Asia and Africa, including the Middle East. In Durham, too, for example, there exists a Hayter Centre of Middle East and Islamic Studies, which has enabled the Department of Geography and the various social science departments to add experts in the geography, anthropology, economics, sociology, politics, etc., of the Middle East to their staffs and "to intensify their research programmes." The Centre consists of the staff of these departments and of the Middle East specialists of the
School of Oriental Studies in Durham. It coordinates their work and furthers collaboration between these groups of scholars, and the outcome to date includes a new honours degree course in Modern Middle Eastern Studies, in which it is possible for a student to combine either Arabic or Persian or Turkish with study either of the geography and anthropology of the Middle East or of the politics of the area. Such students learn Arabic, of course, primarily in order to be able to read original source material, such as government reports, newspapers, and technical journals. Some instruction is also given in spoken Arabic for fieldwork purposes but no information is available about the scope of this.

Inevitably, in such fields, the staff-student ratio is a favourable one, so that the amount of individual supervision and tutorial work is considerable in comparison with other more populous areas of study. Nevertheless, there is a widespread, wholly understandable and scholarly feeling of dissatisfaction with the standard reached by students at the end of their courses. This clearly relates to the complexity of the field of study and the limited time available. One sees what one respondent is getting at when he writes that it is possible to obtain a good Arabic degree on linguistic facility alone “without any real ability to apply this facility to the study of the literature, history, or other aspect of the culture associated with the language” and “without any ability on the student’s part to think for himself,” but might not this in part relate to the limited view of “linguistic facility” that has been mentioned earlier, and has not the teacher a part to play in inculcating the necessary discriminatory power in the student? However, the point is well taken that in general at the present time, in view of the scarcity of posts in Arabic and of the fact that not all potential employers are yet properly “trained,” it may not be a kindness to encourage a student to concentrate on purely literary or linguistic studies and that some at least might be better advised to make their principal object of study history or economics and use their Arabic as an ancillary thereto.

Present needs

Some needs of the present situation have been mentioned or hinted at in passing. There is a general need to develop a national awareness of the languages and cultures of Asia and Africa in our society and for a greater representation of this interest in our schools. Perhaps, too, there is a need for the university course to become universally a four-year one. There is some evidence that attitudes to spoken language are not always what they might be. Moreover, the teaching materials we dispose of, though always at the mercy of what a teacher does with them, leave much to be desired. There is a need for a really good language course. A taped course for use in the language laboratory is not, of course, something that can be concocted in a few spare evenings, but there is unfortunately at present little incentive to the university teacher to undertake this kind of work. Everyone is hoping for great things from the above-mentioned Durham research project, the end-product of which is to be a course of instruction on tapes for use in universities, but more money is needed generally for language laboratories and for materials to use in them. One final need that all speak of is for improved facilities to enable students to spend part of their course in an Arabic-speaking country. In some courses they do not go at all, in others they are expected to spend at least three months and some lucky ones manage a session, but this is rare and there is no officially recognised scheme of travel, still less exchange. There are, of course, difficulties in sending young women students to the Middle East but these could be overcome by goodwill and common sense on the part of all concerned. The cost of sending a student to the Middle East or North Africa is naturally far greater than sending one to, say, France, but might it not be possible for the Arab universities and our own agencies to help perhaps by employing at least some such students as lectors in English? The British need for specialists in Arabic to help us make, maintain, and develop contacts with the Arabic-speaking countries is an urgent one, since English and French will not for long remain satisfactory languages of communication, if indeed they are that at all at the present time. It would seem simple good sense for those government agencies with responsibilities in these matters to think carefully of what they can do to promote our national competence in what is a vitally important national field. As-salaamu ‘alaykum wa rahmatullaahi wa barakaatuh.
Applied Linguistics and Mother-Tongue Teaching in Scotland

by W. R. O'Donnell

[W R O'Donnell is Lecturer in English at Moray House College of Education, Edinburgh, Scotland, where he is concerned in the preparation and training of teachers of English at every level: non-graduate, undergraduate and post-graduate]

In order to avoid the misunderstandings which might arise were I to take the term "Applied Linguistics" for granted, I propose to begin this short survey of Applied Linguistics and mother-tongue teaching here in Scotland by explaining briefly just how this term is currently interpreted by Scottish applied linguists.

First, in Scotland, and increasingly in the United Kingdom as a whole, Applied Linguistics is seen as a discipline which, though it is historically and in other ways related to Linguistics proper, exists in its own right. For us, that is to say, the applied linguist does not begin with a body of knowledge for which he must seek practical applications, but rather with a collection of practical language problems, towards the solution of which Linguistics proper may be expected to make some sort of contribution.

Language problems may, of course, be of many kinds. They arise in foreign-language teaching, machine translation, speech pathology, and in any of a large number of fields where language is an important factor. Indeed, it would be quite impossible at this time to specify all those areas where Applied Linguistics has an immediate or a potential contribution to make. I am myself engaged in just one such area, teaching English to native speakers.

Second, though a knowledge of Linguistics may be essential to a solution of practical language problems, it is never, in our view, enough. Thus, for example, the solution of the problems of the English classroom demands an understanding of the nature of the learner, the nature of the learning situation, and so on, and this inevitably introduces some consideration of the contributions which the psychologist and the sociologist, among others, have to make. Applied Linguistics is for us, therefore, a somewhat mixed discipline.

The view of Applied Linguistics which I have summarized thus briefly was developed, and is propagated by, the Department of Applied Linguistics at the University of Edinburgh. This is, as a matter of fact, the only Scottish university in which Linguistics (pure
or hyphenated) has been accorded major attention, and any attempt to describe the history of Applied Linguistics in Scotland, and assess its current status in any field whatsoever, must accordingly start there.

The story properly begins in the spring of 1955 when, with the support of The Foreign Office, The Colonial Office and The Commonwealth Relations Office, the British Council approached the university with a suggestion that there be established within the university a school, of a high academic standard, to train people who would themselves be responsible for training teachers of English in various countries abroad.

Mainly under the influence of Professor Angus McIntosh, Professor of English Language and General Linguistics at Edinburgh, and his colleague Mr. (now Professor) David Abercrombie, Head of the Department of Phonetics, this suggestion developed during the following two and a half years into a proposal to establish a post-graduate centre in which experienced teachers of English overseas would be given an opportunity to acquaint themselves with the latest advances in Linguistics and other fields relevant to their teaching problems. The proposal became a reality in October 1957, when the School of Applied Linguistics, though the actual title was not adopted until some time later, began operations, with Mr. J. C Catford as its first Director.

A good deal of financial support was provided in the initial stages of the School's development by The Ford Foundation. Later the University Grants Committee made money available to strengthen those university departments concerned, either directly or indirectly, with the development of Applied Linguistics. The main support came, however, from the British Council, who sponsored, and who continued to sponsor, most of the students. As one might expect, this ensured that the emphasis was, from the first, on English as a second language Catford himself acknowledged as much when he wrote, in a paper entitled “Applied Linguistics in the University of Edinburgh” in May 1959: “It was . . . precisely the importance attached to the teaching of English as a Second Language and the need for post-graduate work in this field, which was the motive for starting a School of Applied Linguistics at Edinburgh.” Nevertheless, and though interest in English as a second language continues to dominate, new and different interests have developed over the years, including an interest in English as a native language.

This interest may, in fact, be traced back to Professor McIntosh's policy in the Department of English Language and General Linguistics of bringing his honours students up to, in his own words, “the frontiers of knowledge.” In pursuit of this policy he conducted a course of seminars on Modern English in which a number of other able linguists participated, including M. A. K. Halliday, J. McH. Sinclair and J. P. Thorne. It would be misleading, I think, to describe these seminars as providing a course in Linguistics, since they were designed to acquaint students with some of the conclusions of Linguistics with regard to English rather than turn them into linguists. Nevertheless, the seminars did serve as a fairly effective introduction to Linguistics for many and certainly attracted an interest to that discipline which might not otherwise have been forthcoming.

One important consequence of this interest was that the Scottish Education Department, responsible for school education throughout Scotland, began to notice the existence of a discipline called Linguistics which just might have something to say concerning (a) teaching English to native speakers and (b) teaching modern languages to Scottish children. This led the S.E.D first to sponsor contacts between university linguists and teachers by means of courses, conferences and the like, and eventually to select a number of lecturers from colleges of education, through which all Scottish teachers must pass, to be trained at the School of Applied Linguistics.

As it happens, those so far sent have been English specialists. Moreover, they have been few in number. But no doubt modern language specialists will have their turn eventually, though they have generally shown a good deal less interest than teachers of English. At any rate, the new kind of student, while he did not replace the traditional student nor affect the fundamental attitude of the school, did at least broaden its scope by bringing in a whole new set of problems.

The first college of education lecturers were sent for training in Applied Linguistics in October 1964, and it was about the same time that a number of changes took place in the administration of the School of Applied Linguistics. First, it was elevated to the status of an independent department. Second, a new Head, Mr S. P. Corder, himself an early stu-
The Center for Applied Linguistics is a nonprofit, internationally oriented professional institution, established in 1959 and incorporated in 1964 in Washington, D.C. The purpose of the Center is to serve as a clearinghouse and informal coordinating body in the application of linguistics to practical language problems.

The Linguistic Reporter, the Center’s newsletter, is published six times a year, in February, April, June, August, October, and December. Annual subscription, $1.50; air mail, $3.50. (Individuals faced with currency restrictions or similar limitations are invited to write to the Editor.) Manuscripts, books for review, and editorial communications should be sent to Frank A. Rice, Editor, THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Communications concerning subscriptions should be directed to the Subscriptions Secretary at the same address. Permission is granted for quotation or reproduction from the contents of the LINGUISTIC REPORTER provided acknowledgement is given.

dent at the School, was appointed to succeed Mr. J. C. Catford, who resigned at that time to accept the position of Director of the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan. Mr. Corder remains Head of the department, and it has been chiefly under his influence that developments relating to mother-tongue teaching have taken place.

One other important change took place at about this time. General Linguistics, which had hitherto been the responsibility of the department headed by Professor McIntosh, now moved out to become a separate department under Professor John Lyons.

Before the advent of the School of Applied Linguistics to Edinburgh, there had existed a small but active Department of Phonetics, headed by Mr. David Abercrombie. With the establishment of the courses in Applied Linguistics this department assumed a new burden, that of providing instruction in theoretical and practical phonetics within the framework of these courses. Until fairly recently this situation continued, with the Department of Phonetics preserving a separate identity by accepting responsibilities to both Linguistics departments. This situation, however, has now changed. Within the last two years the Department of General Linguistics and the Department of Phonetics have merged into one department with joint responsibilities. This development is worth mentioning because of its implications for Applied Linguistics. For, clearly, there now exists a possibility that the Department of Applied Linguistics will itself be merged into the new joint department.

Perhaps this would be the best place at which to offer some explanation of what Applied Linguistics means in terms of the courses offered by the department which bears that name. First, and most obviously, there is Linguistics—practical and theoretical—but there are, in addition, courses in phonetics, psychology and sociology, and a number of practical courses relevant to language teaching: programming, language laboratory, and so on.

The students, who are all graduates and who represent every nationality, fall into three categories: (a) diploma students, taking a one-year intensive course ending with an examination and presentation of a dissertation; (b) M.Litt. students, taking an additional year, which is devoted to some specialist study, under supervision, ending with the presentation of a thesis; (c) Ph.D students, studying some particular problem for a period of at least three years under the supervision of the department and presenting a thesis at the end.

At the end of his course of training, the college of education lecturer returns to his college to resume his normal duties. These are of two main kinds. First, he is involved in the preparation and training of teachers entering the profession. In Scotland, all teachers, whatever their academic standard, must follow a course of instruction at a college of education. Lecturers in colleges of education, accordingly, find themselves dealing with a wide range in terms both of ability and academic achievement. Second, he has a responsibility to the continuing programme of in-service training undertaken by his college for practising teachers. The use he is able to make of his training in Applied Linguistics in carrying out these responsibilities varies from college to college, however, and is very much dependent upon the attitude of his superiors, which may be anything from outright hostility to enthusiasm.
Furthermore, until recently at any rate, the applied linguist/lecturer was likely to find himself isolated in his college and cut off from colleagues working in the same field, there being no organisation which would make possible the development of ideas or the exchange of information. Were Applied Linguistics a matter of introducing Linguistics merely, or were it possible to solve the problems in native-language teaching by extrapolation from foreign-language teaching, all this would hardly matter. But neither of these conditions holds. We are faced with entirely new problems for which we must seek entirely new solutions. It is difficult to see how this may be done except by co-operation.

The situation is, however, changing. In November 1967 was founded the British Association for Applied Linguistics. At the first annual meeting of this association, in September 1968, it was decided to establish a number of semi-permanent seminars to deal with particular fields of interest, one of which, clearly, will be the field of native-language teaching. Should this method of bringing people together prove effective it will make possible cooperation not only in Scotland, but in Britain as a whole. This, obviously, is a development full of promise for the future.

But perhaps we ought not to look for too much too soon. The introduction of Applied Linguistics into mother-tongue teaching is, after all, comparatively recent: four years in Scotland and a good deal less in England. The possibilities, therefore, remain largely unexplored. The possibilities are there, certainly. Only time will tell if they can ever be more.

Vietnamese Dictionary Materials Available from CAL


These materials were prepared by Huynh Sanh Thong of Yale University, and commissioned by the Committee on Language Programs of the American Council of Learned Societies in 1952 in its Program in Oriental Languages under a grant from the Ford Foundation. Although the dictionary is unfinished, and the materials largely unedited, it is felt that the scholarly effort and funds expended on this work and the large amount of new information it contains warrant making it available to the scholarly community.

recent CAL publications


The primary goal of this carefully documented, scholarly study is to describe the correlation of linguistic variables with the social variables of status, sex, age, racial isolation, and style in the speech of Detroit Negroes. Of these, social status is shown to be the single most important variable correlating with linguistic differences.

In addition to the correlation of linguistic with social variables, several aspects of the nature of the linguistic variables are considered, including the extent to which the social differentiation of linguistic variables is quantitative or qualitative, the relation between socially diagnostic phonological and grammatical variables; and the effect of independent linguistic constraints on variability.

Although technical terms are kept to a minimum and algebraic formulations are avoided, the study is clearly intended for the reader who is acquainted with the theory and method of modern linguistic analysis.
Advisory Panel Meeting of CAL ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics

Information needs in certain areas of linguistics and the identification of possible subjects for future state-of-the-art papers were among the topics discussed at the Advisory Panel Meeting of the CAL ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics on March 13. This meeting—one of several organized by the Center for Applied Linguistics on the occasion of its tenth anniversary—was attended, in addition to its regular members, by the members of the Research Committee of the Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. The panel members in attendance were James E. Alatis, Edward M. Anthony, Joseph R. Applegate, Catherine J. Garvey, David G. Hays, Kenneth W. Mildenberger, James N. Mosel, Roger Clark (for Bernard O'Donnell), and William C. Stokoe. The TESOL Research Committee was represented by A. Hood Roberts, Robert L. Allen, Ralph B. Long, William F. Mackey, Bernard Spolsky, and Rudolph Troike. Philip Smith, Chairman of the Committee on Research of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, and observers from the U.S. Office of Education and other programs of the Center for Applied Linguistics also attended the meeting. Roger W. Shuy, Director of the Center’s Sociolinguistics Program, read a brief position paper on the subject of information exchange among scholars engaged in research on urban language problems and Dr. Anthony covered a similar topic in his paper, “Information Needs in TESOL.” Both speakers agreed that, important as these fields are today, they did not have an effective information dissemination mechanism before the emergence of ERIC.

The discussion on state-of-the-art papers uncovered some questions which, the participants felt, were as important as the topics themselves, e.g. what is really meant by “state-of-the-art” and what audience should these papers be written for. It was agreed that “state-of-the-art” could best be defined as “integrated summaries” or as “comprehensive, analytical and evaluative summary of the year’s work.” Concerning the audience, the participants suggested that a permanent set of criteria be developed for topics and audience of future state-of-the-art papers. These criteria should include such factors as the “multiplier effect” of addressing the papers to smaller audiences of administrators who advise the teachers on classroom materials rather than addressing the papers to the teachers themselves. There would, of course, have to be some exceptions to this rule, e.g. papers dealing with classroom techniques or teaching methodology.

Before turning their attention to subjects for future papers, the participants discussed briefly the nine papers commissioned by the Clearinghouse in 1968. One paper, “The Study of Non-Standard English,” by William Labov of Columbia University, brought the Clearinghouse a special award from the Office of Education for the timeliness of the topic and the paper’s high quality. A few weeks after its appearance, the paper was adopted by a number of institutions for use in their training programs. Among these were: the Chicago Board of Education; Education Systems, Inc.; and the Texas Education Agency Dialect Workshop in Dallas, Texas. The Director of the Clearinghouse, Dr. Roberts, expressed hope that future papers will be equally well-received. The following future topics were suggested by the participants as important to the audience served by the Clearinghouse:

- The field of TESOL
- Critical review of Chinese teaching materials
- Bilingualism problems of Spanish-Americans
- The teaching of major African languages in the United States
- The teaching of linguistics in secondary schools
- The teaching of uncommon languages in secondary schools
- Social dialect studies: Linguistic approach
- Linguistic component in college freshman-year courses
- The teaching of uncommon languages in junior colleges
- Psycholinguistics in bilingualism
- Child language acquisition
- Language teaching to hearing-impaired
- Review of terminology and/or
  - Study of constructs of language
- Typology of language exercises
- Review of techniques of remedial TESOL
- The teaching of sign language
- Critical evaluation of self-instruction in languages
- Adult education in TESOL
Materials on Bilingualism Available through ERIC

ERIC is a nationwide information system consisting of eighteen subject-oriented clearinghouses coordinated by Central ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center), a branch of the Division of Research Training and Dissemination, Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education.

The ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics, located at the Center for Applied Linguistics, is responsible for acquiring research reports and other documents dealing with: (1) linguistics; (2) the uncommonly taught languages, (3) English as a foreign or second language, and (4) the teaching of English as a native language to speakers of non-standard dialects.

The following 46 documents on bilingualism have been entered in the ERIC system. Their résumés, consisting of bibliographic information, indexing terms, and an abstract, have appeared in Research in Education, a publication of the U.S. Office of Education.

These documents are available in microfiche (MF) and hard copy (HC) from ERIC Document Reproduction Service, National Cash Register Company, 4936 Fairmont Avenue, Bethesda, Maryland 20014. Copies of documents must be ordered by individual ED numbers. Payment must accompany orders totaling less than $5.00. All orders carry a handling charge of $0.50. In the U.S., add sales tax as applicable. Foreign orders must be accompanied by a 25% service charge, calculated to the nearest cent.

For further information about the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics, write to the Project Manager, Adam G. Woyna, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

ED 010 532 Amsden, Constance. A reading program for Mexican-American children. First interim report 1966. 157p. MF-$0.75, HC-$7.95

ED 017 387 Anderson, Merlin D. Bilingual education in Nevada. 1967. 2p MF-$0.25, HC-$0.20.

ED 023 097 Babin, Patrick. Bilingualism: A bibliography. 1968. 33p. MF-$0.25, HC-$1.75.

ED 017 388 Blanco, George. Texas report on education for bilingual students 1967. 5p MF-$0.25, HC-$0.35.


ED 020 491 Diebold, A. Richard, Jr. The consequences of early bilingualism in cognitive development and personality formation. 1966. 32p MF-$0.25, HC-$1.70.

ED 013 025 Dodson, C. J. Foreign and second language learning in the primary school. 1966. 50p. MF-$0.25, HC-$2.60.

ED 018 298 Dugas, Don. Research relevant to the development of bilingual curricula. 1967. 6p MF-$0.25, HC-$0.40.

ED 018 302 Duhon, Dorothy D. Colorado report on education for bilingual children 1967. 2p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.20.

ED 021 247 Engel, Walburga von Raffler. Some suggestions for research on first and second language acquisition. 44p MF-$0.25, HC-$2.30.


ED 018 786 Ervin-Trapp, Susan. Becoming a bilingual 1968. 19p MF-$0.25, HC-$1.05.


ED 012 903 Fincocchiari, Mary. Bilingual readiness in earliest school years: A curriculum demonstration project. 1966. 124p. MF-$0.50, HC-$6.30.

ED 018 286 Gaarder, A. Bruce. Bilingualism: From the viewpoint of the administrator and counselor 1966. 18p MF-$0.25, HC-$1.00.

ED 017 386 Gonsalves, Julia. Bilingual education in California. 1967. 4p MF-$0.25, HC-$0.30.

The Linguistic Reporter June 1969
Memorial University of Newfoundland formally established a Department of Linguistics in February 1968. Linguistics courses had previously been offered by the English and Modern Language Departments. Besides the introductory and phonetics courses, the department will emphasize the training of teachers of second languages, and research in the languages, dialects, and names associated with Newfoundland and Labrador—English, Anglo-Irish, French, Gaelic, Indian, and Eskimo. In recent years, the Memorial University Library has been building up collections to support research in the regional speech of the British Isles and North America, onomastics, the fishery, and nautical life. There are also close ties with Memorial's newly constituted Department of Folklore, which has a collection of tapes made in Newfoundland. For further information, write to Prof. J. Hewson, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.

The National Association of Language Laboratory Directors is a non-profit membership organization devoted to promoting more effective use and better understanding of the machine-aided learning laboratory and foreign language programs. Any person whose interests bring him in working contact with the operation or administration of any machine-aided language learning program in an educational institution or government agency is invited to associate with NALLD.

Besides publishing a quarterly Newsletter, NALLD holds regional and national meetings, conducts workshops and clinics, and is engaged in the preparation of an American Language Laboratory Directory. For further information, write to James W. Dodge, Secretary, NALLD, Box E, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island 02912.

The Pimsleur Modern Foreign Language Proficiency Tests in French, Spanish, and German, by Paul Pimsleur, Director of the Listening Center, Ohio University, have been designed to provide materials by means of which classroom teachers, guidance counselors, and administrators may evaluate the results of language instruction programs. The tests may be useful not only for assessing individual and group achievement, but also for selecting students to continue foreign language study and for placing secondary school or college students in the appropriate foreign language class. The content of the tests was selected to include a representative sample of material commensurate with the aims of first- and second-level French, Spanish, and German courses. Four separately available tests at each level measure proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For further information write to the publisher, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 757 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10017.

recent CAL documents

Planning Conference for a Bilingual Kindergarten Program for Navajo Children. Conclusions and Recommendations, prepared by Sirarpi Ohannessian; April 1969; 16 pp.; based on the discussions at a conference held October 11–12, 1968, by CAL's English for Speakers of Other Languages Program for the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

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Address requests to the English Program.
**book notices**


This text is intended for use in courses at the undergraduate or graduate school level. In the fast-moving field of transformational grammar ("The theoretical proposals set forth in this volume are already being questioned and modified" [vii]), the authors attempt to handle two dimensions. On the one hand is the discussion and treatment of linguistic universals—deep and surface structures, transformational rules, etc.—properties which all human languages will share. On the other hand, other parts of the presentation deal with the particular deep structures and transformations contained in English. A number of the descriptions are explicitly designated as tentative. In general, when the problem arises as to whether a certain item exists as a constituent in the deep structure or as a feature on, e.g. a noun or a verbal, the authors tend to choose a representation in terms of features.

The twenty-nine chapters are grouped into six sections: 'The study of language,' 'Constituents and features,' 'Segment transformations and syntactic processes,' 'Sentence embedding,' 'Simplicity and linguistic explanation,' 'Conjunction.' Each chapter is accompanied by an end summary and a substantial number of exercises.


The kind of Portuguese described in this book is the language spoken habitually by Brazilians of moderate or higher education, on normal conversational occasions, to others of their own social or cultural level. Expressions and constructions that are basically literary, regional, substandard, that reflect Luso-Portuguese usage, etc., are marked by a system of abbreviations. The speech area on which the work is largely based is that one whose linguistic center is the city of Rio de Janeiro. The system of syntactical analysis and the terminology used are traditional. All explicit grammatical statements are illustrated by brief sentences. Index of subjects and Portuguese words.


This book is intended especially for those who are preparing to become foreign-language teachers, though it will also be useful to the reader who wishes to familiarize himself with contemporary thinking on matters of language and the process of learning. For persons preparing for a teaching career, it is intended that this book be used in association with visits to classrooms to watch master teachers at work. Attention is paid to four principal skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing—with emphasis upon the importance of listening and speaking. The discussion is intended to guide teachers of many different languages, and no examples are provided in any particular language. Each of the 14 chapters is provided with an annotated reading list.

**Afrikanische Verkehrssprachen,** by Bernd Heine. (Infratest Schriftenreihe zur empirischen Sozialforschung, 4.) Köln, [Die Deutsche Welle], 1968. 280 pp., map.

The first part of this volume (pages 12-205) lists and describes 36 languages of Sub-Saharan Africa that are commonly used for communication between groups of people who speak different mother tongues. The description is not concerned with grammatical structure but rather with such questions as the development of the language as a lingua franca, its present-day geographical range, and its sociolinguistic position, especially the conditions under which it is used as a lingua franca and by whom, and its functional role. Linguistic classification is in general given only for languages that belong to established groups, e.g. Bantu. Alternative designations are copiously indicated. The languages are grouped under seven regional headings: Southern Africa, Congo Basin, Eastern Africa, Central Sudan and North Africa, West Central Africa, West African coast, Western Sudan.

The second part is concerned with questions of typology, comparison, and classification on the basis, e.g. of historical origin, function, geographical extension, etc. The volume closes with a 24-page bibliography of references cited in the text.

The Linguistic Reporter June 1969

This manual is intended to provide a basis for understanding the assumptions and conventions of generative phonology. It is assumed that the student will have a certain familiarity with articulator-/phonetics, some notion of the phonemic principle, and a limited acquaintance with the workings of transformational grammar. Each of the ten chapters is accompanied by exercises, the data for which have been taken from numerous sources, relatively few of them generative. Selective bibliography, References to Exercises, and language and subject index.


This volume contains representative passages from the works of the more important Iranian writers of the last hundred years. The selections, from twenty-six different sources, are intended to familiarize the foreign student with both the main trends and the style of the writings of that period.

Except for certain omissions (indicated in each case) and some minor additions to punctuation, the original texts have not been changed in any way. Each group of extracts is prefaced by a brief account of the life and writings of the author concerned. The selections are given in the standard orthography, with no transcription. In the 100-page glossary, which contains primarily the more difficult words and slang expressions and idioms, the vowels are indicated by the diacritical marks fatha, kesra, and damma, as is traditional in primers and readers in Iran.


A revision of Cornyn's Spoken Burmese (New York, Henry Holt, 1945), this volume provides a general introduction to the Burmese language in 25 lessons. Each lesson contains basic sentences, a word list, and sections treating pronunciation (lessons 1–6 only), the writing system (lessons 10–25), and grammar, each with drills and exercises. The Burmese material is presented to the student in transcription only for the first thirteen lessons; thereafter both transcription and the Burmese script are used. Appendices include an index of bound forms and English-Burmese and Burmese-English glossaries.

This work was supported by a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

[For information on accompanying tape recordings, write: Yale University, Foreign Language Laboratory, 111 Grove Street, New Haven, Conn. 06510.]


Designed for use after the authors' A Course in Urdu, this reader aims to introduce the student to the language, format, imagery, and concepts of Urdu poetry of the ghazal genre. The more than 50 compositions are presented in the Urdu script, each verse accompanied by literal prose translation and explanatory notes. Preliminary material includes brief biographical sketches of the 18 poets represented and an introduction to Urdu poetics (40 pp.). The final Urdu-English vocabulary list provides Urdu script, phonemic transcription, translation, and notes for each entry.

The research on which this work is based was performed pursuant to a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

Oral Brazilian Portuguese, by Henry W. Hoge and Peter Lunardini, revised by Henry W. Hoge and Ralph Kite. Milwaukee, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 1968. 494 pp. $6.95 [Order from the Order Department, University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee Bookstore, Milwaukee, Wis., 53201.]

A revised and expanded version of the 1964 edition, designed to produce basic communication competency within a relatively short period of intensive use (250 hours). Four preliminary lessons present basic dialogues, drills, and an introduction to the pronunciation and orthography. Each of the 18 lesson units contains a dialogue, structural summary, vocabulary list, drills and exercises. The Portuguese material is presented throughout in the standard orthography. A Portuguese-English glossary is appended.
meetings and conferences

Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
Urbana, Illinois.
[Write: Centro de Linguistica Aplicada, Avenida 9 de Julho 3166, Sao Paulo, Brazil.]
[Write: M. Dale Kinkade, Dept. of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas 66044.]
[Write: Honorary Congress Organizer, AILA Congress, Department of Linguistics, Sidgwick Avenue, Cambridge, England.]
[Write: Dr. Herwig Horning, Sekretariat, % Wiener Medizinische Akademie, Stadiongasse 6-8, A-1010, Vienna, Austria.]
Islamabad, Pakistan [Write: Dr. Ljaz Hussain Batalvi, 4 Turner Road, Lahore, Pakistan.]


This anthology volume attempts to trace man's thought about language from the Bible and Herodotus through the eighteenth century to the start of linguistics, the scientific study of language. The editor, in his Introduction, mentions and illustrates two major trends in the history of linguistics: philosophizing and classifying; and notes that within the last decade the descriptive emphasis characteristic of 19th century comparative research has begun to give way to a growing interest in philosophical grammar. The anthology consists of extracts from the works of Plato, Aristotle, Varro, Quintilian, Donatus, St. Anselm, Peter of Spain, Antoine Arnauld, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, J G Herder, Sir William Jones, and Wilhelm von Humboldt. A brief bibliography contains references cited in the text and introduction as well as suggestions for reading in areas not covered in the volume, e.g. the Hindu grammarians and the 19th and 20th centuries.


A revised and expanded version of the author's Modern Dutch: A First Year College Level Audio-Lingual Course (Grand Rapids, Mich., Calvin College, 1965). Lesson 1 provides an introduction to pronunciation and orthography, including drills. Each of the 29 following lessons contains a dialogue, useful expressions, questions on the dialogue, sections devoted to pronunciation and spelling, morphology, syntax, and lexis, a narrative (lessons 20-30), and drills. Occasional review lessons are included. The Dutch material is presented in the standard orthography, with some use of transcription in the early lessons. A Dutch-English glossary is appended. Accompanying tape recordings: 14 reels, dual track, 9 cm., total recording time 25 hours, $120.00.

These materials were produced under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

The Linguistic Reporter June 1969

11
The School of Translating and Interpreting of the University of Saarbrücken

by Wolfram Wilss

If one looks at the present state of training of university-educated translators and interpreters in Germany, two seemingly contradictory statements can be made:

(1) Academic training and preparation of highly qualified translators and interpreters (henceforth for brevity referred to as applied linguists) has a fairly long tradition. There are three universities in the Federal Republic—Heidelberg, Mainz, Saarbrücken—and one in East Germany—Leipzig—which have institutes for training this type of applied linguist. Of the three West German institutes, the Dolmetscher-Institut of Heidelberg University is the oldest; it was founded in 1930 and has at present a student population of between 800 and 900; the Auslands- and Dolmetscher-Institut of Mainz University was founded in 1947 and has at present a student enrolment of about the same strength as Heidelberg; the Saarbrücken Institute was founded in 1948 and takes care at present of around 400 students. No details are known about the Leipzig Institute; there is at the moment practically no cooperation between the three federal institutes and Leipzig, and Leipzig, unlike Heidelberg, Mainz and Saarbrücken, is not (yet) a member of CIUTI (Conférence Internationale Permanente de Directeurs Universitaires pour la Formation de Traducteurs et d’Interprètes); CIUTI members are at present the institutes of Antwerp, Geneva, Georgetown, Heidelberg, Mainz, Paris, Saarbrücken, Trieste, Vienna; admission of other institutes is impending.

(2) The three West German institutes—and this is also true of other CIUTI institutes, e.g. Vienna and Georgetown—are involved in a tremendous process of transformation. A clear indication of this rethinking process is, among other things, the fact that the Saarbrücken Institute has been combined with a newly created chair of Applied Linguistics with special reference to the Theory of Translation. The director of the Institute is at the same time full professor of Applied Linguistics. This is a
major breakthrough which will have many re-
percussions, the most important being that, by
establishing this chair, the University has pro-
vided a solid basis for optimal linguistic orien-
tation of the Institute's training programme.
This development coincides with, and is in-
terrelated with, the fact that international infor-
mation flow, especially in the field of science
and technology, has for some time been, and
still is, markedly on the increase. As a conse-
quence, translation has become an important
tool of international communication, and the
labelling of the twentieth century as "the cen-
tury of translation" probably has some justi-
fication, particularly if one is realistic about the
chances of English or Russian or Chinese be-
coming the internationally recognized scien-
tific information medium. In order to assure the
smooth running of the international informa-
tion flow, the build-up of translation and inter-
pretation sections, usually organized on a team-
work basis with a maximal degree of division
of labor, and of terminological bureaus has be-
come imperative all over the world on a na-
tional and an international scale.

Seen from the Institute's point of view, the
most important factor in this connection has
been that translation has acquired new dimen-
sions. Whereas formerly translation activities
were more or less confined to the translation of
literary and theological texts, our age has seen
the emergence of an entirely different type of
translation, a type which one might call prag-
matic or information-oriented translation. It is
obvious that an institute, in order to produce
sufficient qualified graduates, must carefully
synchronize its curricula with the demands
made of applied linguists in their practical pro-
fessional work. Thus Saarbrücken has recently
come forward with a new training formula
which tries to take account of the new situa-
tion described above. This formula was not
easy to arrive at. It is the result of more than
two years of intensive and multilateral commit-
tee work inside and outside the Institute.

There is now a general consensus among all
parties involved that the training and prepara-
tion of applied linguists must include five
interconnected streams:

1. Language A (native language, basic lan-
guage);
2. Languages B and C (first and second
foreign language);
3. Area or regional studies in languages B
and C,
4. Non-linguistic special subject (Sachfach);
5. Synchronic linguistics, including the
theory of translation.

On the first thought it may seem strange
that training in language A (which, inciden-
tally, may in Saarbrücken be either German or
French) should be carried as a stream of its
own. It is, however, a fact that the mastery of
language A by many students leaves something
to be desired, at least during the initial stage
of their training, and the occasional implicit
or explicit criticism of employers about the
graduates' insufficient competence in language
A plainly showed the need for introducing a
special language A course. It is a commonplace
that any applied linguist is continually exposed
to source-language interference, above all on
the lexical and grammatical levels. Since ap-
plied linguists normally translate into their na-
tive tongue (language A), the ability to handle
language A tools adequately and critically is
imperative. They must realize that only a rela-
tive command even of language A (let alone
language B and C) is attainable. Hence, mastery
of language A can never be looked upon as
something finitely achievable, but must be
viewed as an infinite process aimed at qualita-
tive and quantitative enlargement of the lan-
guage A inventory.

The second stream is devoted to providing
the students with an adequate knowledge of
two foreign languages. A training programme
comprising two foreign languages has the ad-
vantage of securing optimal professional effi-
ciency, both from the employers' and from the
employees' (in-house or free-lance) point of
view. The old problem of how to strike a sen-
sible balance between common language (Ge-
mensprache) and technical language (Fach-
sprache) has been solved by giving the former
priority over the latter, because all technical-
language texts contain common-language ele-
ments, whereas not all common-language texts
contain technical-language elements. A thor-
ough knowledge of the common language at an
advanced level is therefore a conditio sine qua
non for the translation of technical-language
texts. Thus, the basic part (Grundstudium) of
the training programme is exclusively common-
language oriented; the second part (Hauptstu-
dium) is divided into equal portions between
advanced common-language translation and
technical-language translation.

The organization of the third stream, area
studies, has occasioned much debate and exper-
The Center for Applied Linguistics is a nonprofit, internationally oriented professional institution, established in 1959 and incorporated in 1964 in Washington, D.C. The purpose of the Center is to serve as a clearinghouse and informal coordinating body in the application of linguistics to practical language problems.

The Linguistic Reporter, the Center's newsletter, is published six times a year, in February, April, June, August, October, and December. Annual subscription, $1.50; air mail, $3.50. (Individuals faced with currency restrictions or similar limitations are invited to write to the Editor.) Manuscripts, books for review, and editorial communications should be sent to Frank A. Rice, Editor, THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Communications concerning subscriptions should be directed to the Subscriptions Secretary at the same address. Permission is granted for quotation or reproduction from the contents of the LINGUISTIC REPORTER provided acknowledgement is given.

The implementation. This is due to the somewhat surprising fact that it has been difficult to establish sensible guiding principles for this training parameter. Saarbrücken has based its programme on the following four principles:

1. Area studies must be an institutionalized part of the overall programme.
2. An encyclopedic approach to area studies is senseless.
3. Area studies must be limited to selected fields; specialization is inevitable.
4. Area studies must have linguistic relevance.

The inclusion of the fourth stream (Sachfach) into the programme, e.g. international law or applied cybernetics, has been motivated by the fact that the basic comprehension of at least one non-linguistic subject is indispensable. The underlying concept is again, as in area studies, that of specialization. The Sachfach course pursues two aims: (1) to provide condensed instruction in a special non-linguistic field which the student chooses from a number of subjects, and (2) to facilitate later the methodological, conceptual, and terminological familiarization with new, unknown subject matter with which the applied linguist is confronted in his practical professional work. The interpenetration of the non-linguistic course and the linguistic courses has been achieved by organizing a number of staff teams consisting of an external Sachfach expert with a grounding in a particular foreign language (either from one of the four faculties of the university or from large industrial enterprises which employ applied linguists), and an internal staff member who is an expert in that particular language and also has some acquaintance with the Sachfach concerned.

The fifth stream has been added because every translation is an experiment in interlingual communication, an attempt to establish the closest possible equivalent in the target language to the message of the source language. It is hard to see how an applied linguist can do a satisfactory job without having cognitively learned beforehand that the systematic application of relevant linguistic categories is decisive for successfully tackling day-to-day problems of contextual equivalence and mutual translatability. Since translation and interpretation can be regarded as a case of functionally correlating structurally different languages, linguistic studies are focused on contrastive synchronic linguistics; but monolingual investigations, e.g. in the field of word formation, key-word-in-context analysis, syntactic complexity, etc., are also legitimate linguistic targets. These are carried out in seminars (attendance at two seminars compulsory) and by means of dissertations (prerequisite for admission to the final examination). How does a particular language pair present itself today? What is the role of politics, advertising, bureaucracy, science, technology, tourism, educational planning, etc., in the development of present-day language? Which are the dominating linguistic components which we exploit in order to achieve our communications ends economically? These are questions which have a direct relevance to the work of applied linguists. Each natural language today is faced with the problem of how to satisfy the ever-growing communications needs of a pluralistic society and to cover with a limited lexicon a rapidly expanding number of frequently extremely complex phenomena. Each natural language is forced to stretch its lexical resources to the utmost to
cope successfully with the intricate naming problem. Pressed hard by the massive task of finding new expressions for new concepts, language is in a state of dynamic acceleration. This is evidenced by the large number of genuine neologisms—nowadays mostly in the form of word compounds, word derivations, word abbreviations or foreign language loans—which are constantly added to the lexical inventories of all modern languages.

An as yet unsolved and apparently unsolvable problem is how to accommodate such a substantial and demanding programme in a three-year course, no matter how much effort is made to streamline the training through the introduction of strongly recommended and separately scheduled study programmes and rigorous differentiation between the curricula for translators and interpreters. Therefore, together with its two sister institutes in the Federal Republic, Saarbrücken is pressing hard for a four-year course. Other CIUTI institutes outside Germany are faced with similar problems. All institutes are obviously in search of basically convergent solutions, with the logical result that, despite the unavoidable plurality of arguments, views, and convictions concerning details, there are concrete signs of the gradual emergence of an internationally unified concept for the future academic training of applied linguists.

**Fulbright-Hays Openings in Linguistics and TEFL: 1970–71**

Inquiries concerning the following Fulbright-Hays lectureships for 1970–71 should be sent to: Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20418.

**Angola** September 1970–June 1971
Instituto de Angola, Luanda Methods of teaching English; demonstration classes. Requires an M.A. in linguistics or TEFL. Good knowledge of Portuguese or Spanish is essential.

**Argentina** July–November 1970
National University of Buenos Aires and Higher Teacher Training Institute, Buenos Aires Courses in structural linguistics at the graduate level. Good knowledge of Spanish is essential.

**Bulgaria** October 1970–June 1971
University of Sofia. Applied linguistics and methods of teaching English.

**Burundi** September 1970–June 1971
Official University of Bujumbura. Methods of teaching English; demonstration classes. Requires experience in language laboratory techniques, fluency in French, and an M.A. in applied linguistics.

**Ceylon** October 1970–July 1971
Vidyodaya University. Establish new teaching methods and techniques.

**Jordan** September 1970–June 1971
University of Jordan, Amman Lectures on teacher training in English for undergraduates; may be asked to advise on curriculum and programs for teaching English to Arabic-speaking students at the University.

**Lebanon** September 1970–June 1971
Lebanese National University. Instruction in teacher training in English; assistance in planning the curriculum and teaching materials.

**Paraguay** March–November 1970
Institute of English Teaching and American Studies, National University of Asuncion. Lectures in applied linguistics and teaching methods; assistance in administering a three-year program for teachers-in-training. Fluency in Spanish is required.

**Poland** October 1970–June 1971
University of Poznań. Two awards: one for a senior scholar to assist in preparation of teaching materials and to conduct courses in introductory linguistics; one for a lecturer to conduct English language classes.

**Romania** September 1970–June 1971
University of Cluj. Classes in conversational English; methods courses for more advanced students preparing to teach English in secondary schools; optional: an introductory course in American literature for fourth- and fifth-year students.

**Rwanda** September 1970–June 1971
Two awards: National University of Rwanda, Butare, and Institut Pédagogique National, Butare. Requirements include experience in language laboratory techniques, fluency in French, and an M.A. in applied linguistics.

**Somalia** July 1970–February 1971
Faculty of Law and Economics, University of Somali, Mogadisco. Courses for first- and second-year students. Requirements include experience in teaching English as a foreign language and university or college faculty status; male applicants only. Knowledge of Italian helpful.

The Linguistic Reporter August 1969
NDEA Title VI Projects for Fiscal Year 1969

During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1969, thirty-one contracts were negotiated by the U.S. Office of Education in support of new projects designed to improve instruction in modern foreign languages in the three general areas authorized by Title VI, Section 602, of the National Defense Education Act: surveys and studies, research and experimentation, and the development of specialized language materials. There were also thirty contracts negotiated to supplement on-going projects in the same areas.

For each project the following information is presented: (1) contractor, (2) principal investigator or project director, (3) title, (4) term of the contract, (5) cost of the contract.

SURVEYS AND STUDIES


RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION


SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE MATERIALS


Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.


new journals


Designed to provide news of the activities of ADS members and information on recently completed research. The first issue contains an address by past ADS President Raven I. McDougal, Jr., ADS committee and project reports, brief notes on general news and new publications, a “Queries” section, and listings of dissertation titles of interest to ADS members and of documents on dialect studies entered in the ERIC system.


Aims to foster the development of cybernetic programmed learning theory, computer-assisted instruction, and programmed language instruction based on explicit linguistic models. The first issue contains an editorial on the purposes of RECALL, articles by Michael Apter and Klaus Weltner, and brief news notes. To accommodate longer contributions, occasional Supplements will be issued. These are not included in subscription to RECALL. Supplements may be subscribed to as a series or purchased individually.

Describes the sources of the various theories of psychology utilized by linguists during the founding of modern linguistics and discusses the present situation in linguistics in the light of this history. It is a thesis of this book that the two psychological theories, mentalism and objectivism, have coexisted throughout the history of the psychology of language, but have alternated in dominance so as to constitute cycles, each phase of which has appeared to its adherents to be either a "new" science or a return to a "correct" system. The first part of the book is devoted to a description of the psychological views of Wundt, Paul, and Delbrück; the second part traces the history of a certain view of language from Gerget through Meyer and Weiss to Bloomfield. The Epilogue is concerned with recent developments in this field.


This is not a course in the usual sense, but rather an outline for an introductory course, designed for use by instructor and student. A preliminary section contains 'A Synopsis of the Use of Pitch and Duration in Luganda'. Many of the 94 'lessons' are outlines for the teacher's use, with summaries, notes, and vocabulary lists for the student. Occasional dialogues, narratives, dictations and drills are included. Some later lessons are designed on the microwave format. Explanation of grammar and pronunciation is often left to a companion volume, Luganda Pretraining Program (forthcoming), and other reference works. The Luganda material is presented in the standard orthography, often with diacritics added. Luganda kinship charts and a Luganda-English glossary are appended.

This work was compiled and published with the support of the Peace Corps.


The 22 papers in this volume constitute the proceedings of a Conference on Information in the Language Sciences held at Airlie House, Warrenton, Virginia, March 4-6, 1966, under the sponsorship of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The papers are grouped under three themes: 'General Trends', 'Information Needs of the Language Sciences', and 'System Design' with a focus on the language sciences. The book includes contributions from specialists in linguistics, the information and computer sciences, psychology, and anthropology. The discussions include specific attempts to define the community of language-information users as well as probes into strategic and technical areas of large-scale information-system planning.


Presents sixteen studies 'intended as a contribution toward the knowledge of the characteristics that form the peculiar sound image that gives Spanish its distinctive physiognomy among the other languages' (p. 7). Some of these studies were originally published as early as 1935, here reprinted with revisions. The first eleven studies are grouped under the heading 'Phonological Units'; the latter five under 'Literary Phonology'.

Glossary of Agricultural Terms, English-Bengali, prepared by Jack A. Dabbs et al. (International Programs Information Report, 69-1.) College Station, Texas A&M University, Department of Modern Languages, 1969. vi, 96 pp. $3.00.

Contains over 1500 English entries. The Bengali equivalents are presented in phonetic transcription and then in the Bengali script. Where there is no common equivalent for an English term, a brief explanation is given in Bengali.
meetings and conferences

[Write: M. Dale Kinkade, Dept. of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas 66044.]
[Write: Honorary Congress Organizer, AILA Congress, Department of Linguistics, Sidgwick Avenue, Cambridge, England.]
September 12–18. International Federation for Modern Languages and Literatures, 11th. Islamabad, Pakistan. [Write: Dr. Ljaz Hussain Batalvi, 4 Turner Road, Lahore, Pakistan.]
[Joint Meeting with the Canadian Committee on African Studies.]


Attempts 'to analyse the educational implications of language and social class from a theoretical point of view, and also to make some practical suggestions for the attention of educators' (p. vii), with particular reference to Great Britain. The author treats the material in eight chapters: 'Social class and educational opportunity: The demographic evidence', 'Motivation, sub-culture and educability', 'Empirical evidence on the relation between language and social background', 'Language and thought', 'A critique of Bernstein's work on language and social class', 'An experimental study of the speech and writing of some middle- and working-class boys', 'Some proposed intervention programmes in the U.S.A. and Great Britain', and 'Conclusion'. A bibliography and author and subject indexes are appended.


The twenty-five chapters in this book stem from a series of lectures broadcast by the Voice of America in its Forum series. The writers * cover a very wide range of topics: the origin of language — phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, semantics — dialects — dictionaries and usage — linguistics and related disciplines — machine translation and computer linguistics — language instruction — national and international languages — various schools of linguistics. The editor's concluding chapter presents a 'Summary and a peek at the future'.

The Publications Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics

by Frank A. Rice

The history of the publications program of the Center for Applied Linguistics is, in outline, a history of the Center itself. The Center began in 1959 as a small organization with no special place carved out for itself in the world and with no pre-established reputation. By 1969 (and in truth well before that) it had succeeded in occupying a position of major importance in the field of applied linguistics and had achieved international recognition.

During this same period the Center’s publications program developed from a modest operation concerned with the production of conference reports and other small-scale papers to an operation that produced publications of interest to scholars and teachers all over the world. In what follows I shall describe and document this development.

In the first part of this report I shall concentrate on those Center publications that were from the outset intended for sale and distribution to the general public (see appended list). This emphasis excludes, except for occasional mention, any detailed reference to the numerous reports and other documents prepared by the Center’s various programs in support of special program activities. In the second section I shall outline the history of the Center’s newsletter, the Linguistic Reporter, which was actually the first printed material the Center produced (the first issue was dated April 1959, a scant two months after the Center’s establishment).

CENTER PUBLICATIONS

The first major area of the Center’s interest (and an area which the Center was at the outset specifically established to deal with) was the teaching of English as a foreign language (or as a second language; the distinction was set up and maintained by the British, but has by and large remained unclear to most Americans). A substantial number of publications (and program documents) resulted from this interest. Some dealt with world-wide aspects of the problem [1, 2, 3]; others dealt with resources for teacher training [45, 46, 47]. Several studies were intended to provide the student or teacher with information about pertinent instructional materials and the like [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]. A major bibliographical study of such materials resulted in a three-volume work [9], covering the period 1953–68. A comprehensive review and ap-
praisal of the current situation was undertaken by some forty scholars and specialists from Britain, Canada, and the United States at the Harpers Ferry conference sponsored and organized by the Center in late February of this year (see the April 1969 issue of the Linguistic Reporter). The papers prepared for this conference are under consideration for publication.

With the establishment in 1966 of the professional association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, the Center gradually began to occupy a less central position in the field. Beginning at about that time, the Center's interest in English as a second language started to expand to include new areas of ESL problems. One of these was the problem of English for American Indians [10], where the situation is quite different from the "classic" ESL case, i.e. English in an area dominated by another, indigenous, language. The American Indian occupies the position of a speaker of an indigenous language who is swamped, for all practical purposes, by a foreign language. The implications of this situation are still being explored, and the investigations may yield some further publications.

Another area of interest, standing in some not quite clear relation to ESL, is the problem, in the U.S., of appropriate educational treatment of the speaker of a nonstandard variety of English, particularly a speaker of what is coming to be known as Black English. A number of Center publications reflect this concern, particularly the Urban Language Series [11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16].

A third area involving English is the investigation and evaluation of the language arts curriculum in the American school system, with a view to suggesting needed changes in current theory and application. This project, currently under way, will result, it is hoped, in a series of publishable studies.

A final area of concern with English is more theoretical: the linguistic description of the English verb, which was the subject of a conference held by the Center in April 1969 as part of its Tenth Anniversary Celebration. The papers of this conference will be published in early 1970.

It was not a long step from concern with ESL to a concern with second languages in general. Early in its history the Center engaged in a survey of second language teaching, which resulted, indirectly, in two publications [17, 18]. Other Center publications in this general area are concerned with second language methodology [19, 20].

Shortly before the establishment of the Center, the U.S Congress passed the National Defense Education Act of 1958. The NDEA, particularly under its Title VI, immediately occupied the central position in the development of language instructional materials, with special emphasis on what the Office of Education called the "neglected languages," i.e. languages not commonly taught in the U.S. Without the NDEA, the Center would most likely have assumed a more important role in this aspect of language development. As it was, the Center mainly concerned itself with what might be called emergency publication, i.e. reprinting for immediate use otherwise unavailable materials in certain critical languages, e.g. Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hindi [22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28]. It was only later, when the Language Development Program of the NDEA began to lose impetus, that the Center involved itself in the production of original materials, e.g. Malagasy, Wolof [29, 30]. The Center did, however, endeavor as a part of its clearinghouse function to keep track of instructional materials produced under NDEA auspices as well as elsewhere [34]. A major survey of instructional materials for the "neglected languages" has just been completed and publication plans are being drawn up.

Since the late 1940s, many linguists have been interested in the assumption that contrastive linguistic analysis—the systematic comparison of selected linguistic features of two (or more) languages—has important implications for the preparation of teaching materials and the developing of methods of instruction. The Center's major involvement in this area was the Contrastive Structure Series (1960-1963), a project to develop a series of studies contrasting the phonological and grammatical structures of English and the five commonly-taught world languages: French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. The series was later assigned to the University of Chicago Press for publication and thus does not form a part of the Center's publications history, except for two by-products: an annotated reading list for teachers [39] and a brief bibliographical checklist of books and articles [37]. The latter was replaced in 1965 by a greatly expanded bibliography [38].
Center also published two other contrastive studies, one contrasting English and Spanish [33] and the other contrasting English and Arabic [36]. A current series of projects contrasting English with certain East European and African languages will yield a number of publishable studies.

An important tool for most professions is a bibliographical guide which lists books and journals of particular importance to the beginner in the field. Upon the recommendation of the Committee on Linguistic Information (for which the Center served as secretariat for a time), the Center in 1965 compiled and published a compact bibliographical guide to the literature of linguistics [40]. In the same year the Center also published a bibliographical guide to the literature of transformational generative grammar [43]. A previous specialized study surveyed and evaluated the literature of Arabic dialectology [44].

In addition to the guide to the literature of linguistics [40], the Center also produced other publications designed to serve the profession as a whole. One of these was a periodically revised publication on university resources in the U.S. for linguistics and certain related disciplines [45, 46, 47]. A new edition, now in preparation, will include Canada. Since 1965, the Center has also produced for the Linguistic Society of America a handbook of abstracts of papers for the annual LSA meeting [48, 49, 50, 51]. Also upon the recommendation of the Committee on Linguistic Information, the Center published a bibliography of American doctoral dissertations in linguistics covering the years 1900–1964 [42], replacing an earlier title [41]. The Center, in cooperation with LSA, is planning to bring this listing up to date.

Certain Center publications were relatively unmotivated by questions of the interest of the profession as a whole or the requirements of special groups. An example is the Language Handbook Series [52, 53, 54]. Each volume is intended to provide an outline of the salient features of a particular language and a summary of the language situation and language problems of the country or area in which it is spoken. The series now contains studies of Bengali, Swahili, and Arabic. Studies of Mongolian and Vietnamese have been commissioned, and publication has been tentatively set for late 1969.

Beginning in 1964, following its incorporation as an independent nonprofit institution, the Center established a policy of printing a formal annual report on its activities [55].

THE LINGUISTIC REPORTER

The Center's newsletter, the Linguistic Reporter, has been issued six times a year since 1959. The first editor was Raleigh Morgan, Jr., then Associate Director of the Center. Upon Dr. Morgan's resignation in late 1961, the position was given to Frank A. Rice, who has served as editor ever since.

The Linguistic Reporter was intended from the outset to serve as a newsletter for the field as a whole, not merely as a medium for reporting on the activities and interests of the Center itself. The Linguistic Reporter carries brief articles, news stories, book notices, information on academic programs, and schedules of meetings and conferences. From time to time a Supplement is issued, making available a document or report which is felt to merit wider distribution.

For its first seven years (1959–1965) the Linguistic Reporter was distributed free of charge. During this period the subscription list grew from about 1500 to almost 15,000. Printing and distribution costs at that level proved an exorbitant drain on the Center's finances, and effective with Vol. 8, No. 1, February 1966, the Linguistic Reporter went on to a paid subscription basis (annual subscription, $1.50), but with liberal provisions for subscribers who were faced with currency restrictions or similar limitations. As of June 1969, the subscription list was about 3500.

From 1959 through 1968, the Linguistic Reporter was issued in a 3-column format on an 8½ x 11 in. page. The typical issue contained 8 pages. Supplements were limited to either 4 or 8 pages. Beginning with Vol. 11, No. 1, February 1969, the format was changed to 2 columns on a 7 x 10 in. page. This allowed the Linguistic Reporter considerably greater flexibility as to number of pages per issue, thus facilitating the printing of longer contributions as well as supplements of varying length.

The contents of the Linguistic Reporter afford an outline documentation of U.S. and to a lesser extent foreign activities in the field of applied linguistics over the past decade. Most of the articles and news stories deal with quite specific programs, projects, confer-
ences and the like, and have consequently a limited audience. A few articles, however, attracted wide-scale attention and were listed and recommended in various journals and newsletters in the field.

As a courtesy to the Office of Education, and as a service to linguists and language teachers as a profession, the Linguistic Reporter has since 1960 carried an annual listing of language development projects initiated under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act.

For a number of years (1961–1967) the Linguistic Reporter carried a “Linguists Wanted” column which listed openings in the field. In mid-1967 the Center established an Employment Clearinghouse for Linguistics, which also issued a periodic Bulletin, and the Linguistic Reporter dropped the column.

It seems likely that the success of the Center’s publications program lies in the fact that it was not really a program at all in the usual sense but rather a constantly readjusted and monitored effort to meet known but unmet needs and to anticipate probable but unformulated demands. This has required a knowledge of the past, a sensitivity to the present, and a readiness to accommodate the future—in outline, the history of the Center itself.

Publications of the Center for Applied Linguistics: 1959–69

**English as a Second Language**


**Nonstandard English**


**Second Languages**

17. *Second Language Learning as a Factor in National Development in Asia, Africa, and


Foreign Languages

[22] Hindi Basic Course, Units 1–18, by J. Martin Harter and others. 1960. 363 pp. [Reprint of FSI materials.] o.p


[27] Turkish Basic Course, Units 1–5, by Carleton T. Hodge and Mualla Agrali. 1961. 71 pp. [Reprint of FSI materials.]


[34] Study Aids for Critical Languages, compiled by Frank A. Rice. 1966. 35 pp. (Rev. ed., 1968; 38 pp.)

Contrastive Analysis


Linguistics


[47] University Resources in the United States for Linguistics and Teacher Training in
English as a Foreign Language. 1966. 130 pp.


Language Handbooks


Annual Reports

[55] Center for Applied Linguistics Annual Report:
1963-64. 1964. 34 pp.
1964-65. 1965. 35 pp
1966. 1967. 37 pp

6 The Linguistic Reporter Supplement 21 August 1969
The Linguistic Reporter
Newsletter of the Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

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A rapidly developing behavioral science has lately crystallized at the intersection of semiotics, the general theory of signs, and ethology, the biological study of behavior. Its subject-matter is the ways whereby living things, chiefly animals, communicate with each other, a full understanding of which requires the cooperative attack of an exceptionally wide variety of disciplines, ranging from genetics through anatomy to sensory physiology and neurophysiology, and from comparative psychology and zoology to anthropology, especially physical, social, and linguistic. To avoid using an unwieldy phrase where a single term will do, the diverse lines of research which have converged on the study of animal communication—and which, in turn, seems to have constituted the principal axis of synthesis in the entire field of animal behavior so far—may together be subsumed under the label 'zoosemiotics'. This word has been coined to emphasize the necessary dependency of this emerging field on a science which involves, broadly, the coding of information in cybernetic control processes and the consequences that are imposed by this categorization where living animals function as input/output linking devices in a biological version of the traditional information-theory circuit with a transcoder interposed.

Man has always been intrigued by the possibilities of communication among and with animals, as evidenced by his myths and pseudo-scientific literature, but modern developments may be said to stem largely—although neither directly nor obviously—from the works of Charles Darwin of a century ago.

The essential unity of a zoosemiotic event may be decomposed, for a field observer's or laboratory experimenter's convenience, into six aspects, and the sphere of animal communication studies has, in practice, tended to divide roughly in accordance with these dimensions. The factors actually emphasized depending on each investigator's training and bias. The hexagonal model suggested here entails a communication unit in which a relatively small amount of energy or matter in an animal (a) the source, brings about a relatively large redistribution of energy or matter in another animal (or in another part of the same animal). (b) the destination, and postulates (c) a channel through which the participants are capable of establishing and sustaining contact. Every
source requires a transmitter which serves to reorganize, by a process called encoding, the messages it produces into a form that the channel can accommodate; and a receiver is required to reconvert, by a process called decoding, the incoming messages into a form that can be understood by the destination. The source and the destination are therefore said to fully, or at least partially, share (d) a code, which may be defined as that set of transformation rules whereby messages can be converted from one representation to another. The string generated by an application of a set of such rules is (e) a message, which may thus be considered an ordered selection from a conventional set of signs. The physical embodiment of a message is a signal, which is usually mixed with noise, a term that refers to variability at the destination not predictable from variability introduced at the source. Finally, to be operative the message presupposes (f) a context referred to, apprehensible by the destination.

Although all six factors are normally present whenever communication takes place, one or more sector may be abstracted for purposes of analysis and, accordingly, three unevenly matured and somewhat overlapping fields of investigation can be distinguished: zoopragmatics, which deals with the manner in which an animal encodes a message, how this is transmitted in a channel, and the manner in which the user decodes it. Since any form of physical energy propagation can be exploited for purposes of communication, a primary task is to specify the sensor, or constellation of sensors, employed among the members of a given species or between members of different species, and emerging subdivisions of the field are commonly organized in terms of the properties of the channels used. Some organisms have sensors for chemicals in solution or dispersed in air (taste and smell), sensors for light (vision), sensors for pressure changes (tactile perception or hearing), or still other sensors involving, for example, parts of the electromagnetic spectrum besides the visual portion. Many animals employ multiple sense organs: thus olfactory, optical, acoustic and other mechanical signals are all involved in mutual communication in a society of honeybees; and a herd of mule deer achieves social integration by hearing, vision, smell, and touch.

Chemical systems provide the most elementary and widespread means of regulating the relations between individuals of most species. Analysis focuses on the transfer of information by substances referred to as 'pheromones'. Chemical signals—usually characterized by extreme specificity as well as discriminative accuracy—may be emitted by an animal's entire body cover, the skin, or by special scent glands (e.g., in ruminants), and still other methods; and received throughout the body (e.g., in some aquatic invertebrates), or by specialized structures called chemo-receptors, that is, the distal organs of smell and the proximal organs of taste (which often cannot be sharply distinguished). It is as yet unknown whether any animal can modulate the intensity or pulse frequency of pheromone emission to formulate new messages. Pheromones tend to function as yes/no signals: a particular scent is either produced or it is not; once emitted, however, the odor is very likely to persist and thus to convey a message after the departure of its source from the site. The one great advantage of chemical signals, is, therefore, their capacity—exploited for social integration especially by terrestrial mammals—to serve as vehicles of communication into the future. This function, whereby an individual can send messages to another in his absence and, by a delayed feedback loop, even to himself, is analogous to the human use of script rather than of speech; its overwhelming evolutionary value is confirmed by such facts that herbivores usually leave tell-tale trails at the risk of revealing their whereabouts to carnivores, while some of the latter broadcast a strong smell advertising their presence at the sacrifice of part of the surprise element in hunting the former. Chemical messages may have a direct releasing action on endocrine systems and therefore play an important role in a variety of consummatory acts (e.g., mating or feeding).

Optical systems presuppose reflected daylight in the case of diurnal species and bioluminescence in those that dwell in dark but transparent media. Patterns of visual activity
are highly variable as to shape and color, in time and range of intensity. They can also be actively displayed by movements and postures, as in the three-spined stickleback, and by facial expressions, as in the primates; or by intermittent flashing, as in fireflies. Visual signs are thus both flexible and transient: they can be rapidly switched on or off. These capacities allow for precise coding of information, and may even be exploited to misdirect, as in protective displays involving 'eyespots' in moths. Ethologists, who are often concerned with the origin and evolution of visual and other forms of signaling behavior, have described and provisionally classified them into three principal categories: very low intensity 'intention' movements, that is, those which seem to be preparatory or incipient portions of functional acts (e.g., the repeated take-off leap of a bird before flying); autonomous effects (e.g., piloerection in the dog); and so-called 'displacement' movements, that is, those which appear to be irrelevant in the context in which they are delivered (e.g., the courtship preening of pigeons). An evolutionary process of increased adaption to the signaling function is referred to and discussed in the extensive literature of ethology under the label of 'ritualization'.

Tactile systems comprehend rather disparate phenomena from all corners of the animal world, having in common the requirement that the individuals communicating by such means—in suckling, copulating, fighting, social grooming, mutual preening—must be in direct contact with one another. Although communication in this channel is thereby limited to relatively short distances, its effective range can be increased somewhat by the use of elongated feelers such as antennae, tentacles, barbels, fin-rays, or the like, and considerably further by, for example, lines of silk, as in many spiders. Since tactile signals are subject to wide variations in time and intensity, they are particularly useful for the transmission of quantitative information, concerning distance for example. The nature of topographic discriminations, achieved through an animal's surface or through more or less sensitive contact receptors, is not well understood; the possibilities of cutaneous message processing are, however, being explored.

Partly because of their immediate appeal to the imagination of men and partly stimulated by technological refinements which became available in the decades after World War II, the study of the mechanical vibrations by which some animals communicate constitutes by far the most advanced branch of the field. Labels such as 'biological acoustics' or 'bio-acoustics' are often applied to this research area, which may be further subdivided according to the medium involved. Acoustical systems may operate through the air, as in insects, in birds which, as a class, are the most vocal of animals, and in numerous land mammals, among them bats, shrews, rodents, deer, seals, carnivores—especially Felidae and Canidae—and monkeys and anthropoid apes. Acoustical systems may likewise operate under water for social communication and display, and have been variously developed among Crustacea, aquatic insects, fish, and Cetacea; in recent years, communication in marine mammals has especially been receiving increased attention. Finally, rhythmic changes of density in a solid may also form an acoustical system, as the quacks of queen honeybees are transmitted directly through the hive material. Although both visual and auditory perception occur in space and time, vision is preeminently the spatial sense, just as audition is the temporal sense par excellence. In acoustic communication, reaction times are typically fast, and sound signals can be received at distances as great as chemical ones. The emission of sounds involves a minute output of energy and their transient character makes accurate timing possible. With the proper receiving organs, sounds—especially those in the lower frequencies—can be more or less precisely directional when it is advantageous that information about the sender's location be broadcast; on the other hand, with the use of higher frequencies, the sender's whereabouts may be kept concealed. Sound fills the entire space around the source and thus does not require a straight line of connection with the receiver: a signal can travel around corners and is not usually interrupted by obstacles. This flexibility in frequencies, intensities, and patterns is important in that it allows for considerable differentiations among, as well as within, species for individual variation with many shadings and emphases.

Echolocation—where the encoder and decoder of an acoustic (or sometimes electrically coded) message is the same living animal in a situation of rapid feedback—may be regarded as a special case of communication. This phe-
nomicon was first discovered in bats, but has since been found in all sorts of other animals, including gynme beetles, the South American oilbird and the South-East Asian swiftlet, and some seals and porpoises. It has also been shown that moths of the family Arctiidac also emit noisy, ultrasonic pulses when they detect insectivorous bats pursuing them, and that these bursts may function to mislead their predators.

It is well known that certain fishes generate electric fields and it seems increasingly probable that some of the feeble impulses are employed for signaling in at least those species, such as a number of mormyrids and gymnotids, where the frequencies and patterns of discharge are distinct. Electric rhythms have even been compared to the song-displays of birds and ascribed an analogous territorial function. While it is suspected that the thermal sense is also employed as a communication channel among certain animals, there is insufficient evidence to substantiate this so far.

Matter as well as energy may serve as a message conductor, as in the honeybee, ants, and termites, where food and water exchange processes transport not merely calories but also information vital to the survival of the colony. This form of semiotic biosocial facilitation of interindividual stimulative relationships is known as 'trophallaxis'.

Although at this stage of zoopragmatics it is both necessary and proper to distinguish the several channels, to study each in isolation, as it were, the redundancy which prevails, to the user's profit, among the multiplicity of bands in natural systems—an effect sometimes referred to as 'the law of heterogeneous summation'—must soon become an object of both theoretical and practical concern. The over-all code which regulates an animal communication network often seems to consist of a set of subcodes, grouped in a hierarchy, fluctuations among which depend on such factors as the kind of information to be transmitted, the availability of alternative channels, or the distance between source and receiver. Thus, in the mountain gorilla, vocalizations, employed in dense vegetation, serve to draw attention to the animal emitting them; these sounds notify other gorillas of the specific emotional state of the performer and alert them to watch for gestures which then communicate further information. Postures and gestures, especially facial expressions, coordinate behavior within the group when the distance among the members decreases, while the visual subcode is in turn replaced by the tactile subcode when the distance is still further diminished, as between a female and her small infant.

In each species, the source of a message must share with its destination a code, the critical element of their communicative commerce constituting a particularized version of the universal 'need-to-know'. Every emitting organism's selection of a message out of its species-consistent code, as well as the receiving organism's apprehension of it, proceed either in accordance with a 'closed' genetic program automatically and predictably shaping a wholly prefabricated set of responses, or with reference to the animal's unique memory store which then directs the way in which the genetically precoded portion of the total behavior program is acted out. Even in 'open' behavior programs, certain releaser mechanisms can begin to function only at predetermined stages of maturation. The relationship of learning to instinct in animals in general has been reviewed, including the question of learning from alien species, and especially the capacity of certain birds (and perhaps some exceptional mammals) to imitate human speech—the phenomenon of vocal mimicry. This is to be distinguished from Batesian mimicry, which refers to the attempt of an organism to avoid detection by masquerading as another, and from Mullerian mimicry, where a number of species, usually dangerous, assume a striking visual pattern, for instance, coloration, common to all. As one would expect, the higher vertebrates tend to be increasingly malleable by learning—certain domesticated species can be motivated even by verbal instruction (elephants, for example, can be trained to distinguish among up to twenty-four different commands by purely auditory perception), but information about this topic as a whole, and specifically as regards the primates, is very sparse. Or, e.g., as regards dolphins, not altogether reliable. J. Huxley reports a remarkable example of Batesian optical and acoustic mimicry combined in the wryneck, a small, brown, hole-nesting bird related to the woodpecker (also sometimes known as 'the cuckoo's mate'). Huxley writes: 'If you look into a nestbox occupied by a sitting wryneck, you will see the bird press itself against the side of the box, then elongate itself upwards to the fullest
extent, and finally shoot backwards, scattering the eggs over the bare bottom of the box, at the same time emitting a formidable hiss. The resemblance to a snake is striking. Even the human observer, looking into an open box and prepared for what is coming, is severely startled. The effect on a small animal intruder entering the darkness of the nest must be overwhelming. Mullerian mimicry is exemplified by the series of black longitudinal stripes displayed by a variety of cleaner fish, using this single identification pattern to communicate with larger predators through a common code, as it were.

The basic assumption of zoosemantics is that, in the last analysis, all animals are social beings, each species with a characteristic set of communication problems to solve. All organic alliances presuppose a measure of communication (as even separated complementary strands of purified DNA recognize each other): Protozoa interchange signals; an aggregate of cells becomes an organism by virtue of the fact that the component cells can influence one another. Creatures of the same species must locate and identify each other; moreover, they must convey information as to what niche they occupy in territory as well as status in the social hierarchy, and as to their momentary mood.

Intraspecific and interspecific messages furthering ends such as these can be coarsely categorized in terms of their ecological or functional contexts, and different scholars have devised roughly comparable, but all more or less subjective, schemes to classify the supposed signification of the signals they have observed. Thus one scholar has noted intraspecific expressions of threat, warning, fear, pain, hunger, and—at least in the highest animals—such elemental feelings as defiance, well-being, superiority, elation, excitement, friendliness, submission, dejection, and solicitude: and interspecific warning signals, intimidating signals, decoying signals, and positive or negative masking signals. Others deal with species identification in aggregational systems (cellular, sessile, mobile, social, and interspecific) and dispersal systems (ritualized fighting, aggressive displays, and territorial behavior); social co-operation, involving such items of information as alarm signals (subclassified as indicators of departure, distress, warning, and the like), and food signals; sexual attraction and recognition; signals to further courtship and mating; and the ways in which parent-young relationships entail communication.

The associative ties between signals and their meanings are often arbitrary, as opposed to iconic: thus tail movements in a dog denote friendship, in a cat hostility, and in a horse the presence of flies. Some signals are 'shifters', that is, their referent differs according to the situation: thus the honeybee's directional tail-wagging dance has more than one denotatum, for it designates either a food source or a nesting site, its pragmatic import depending not upon variation in the form of the expression but solely the attendant physical context of an identical gesture pattern. The herring gull’s head-tossing has more than one function: it occurs as a pre-coital display, but this is indistinguishable from the head-tossing exhibited by a female begging for food.

At present, zoosemantics consists largely of a heterogeneous collection of ad hoc proposals, and this partly for practical reasons, deriving from the enormous complexity of the structure, psychology, and social organization of animals, as well as the relative inaccessibility of the habitats where many of them dwell (including tropical jungles and the ocean depths); but, even more fundamentally, because semantics suffers from lack of a theory adequate to cope with the data of animal communication. Such difficulties have moved some contributors with a theoretical bent to dismiss semantics entirely as being of doubtful value in their field, this being the case, classification schemes such as those enumerated above must be regarded as strictly provisional.

The importance of compiling a complete inventory of the behavior of every species studied has been stressed by many scholars, some of whom called collections of raw materials of this sort 'ethograms'. An ethogram should, of course, incorporate a description of the zoosyntactic properties of the codes peculiar to each species. In this respect, an ethographer plays the role of a cryptanalyst receiving messages not destined for him and ignorant of the pertinent transformation rules. Although there are over two million species extant, virtually none of the codes in use is fully understood, not even that which regulates the remarkable communication system honeybees have developed. While the fact that these bees perform intricate movements—the famous
'dances'—in directing their hive-mates to a source of food supply or to new quarters has been widely reported and is now a familiar story, it is not so well known that these insects transmit information by acoustic means as well. It has now been demonstrated that the length of the train of sound emitted during the straight run of the dance tells the distance of the find, but this discovery is bound to be only a first step in the comprehensive unfolding of the auditory subcode of the bees; investigators in several laboratories, working independently of one another, are currently attempting to complete an account of this hardly anticipated facet of the apiarian ethogram.

It seems useful to provisionally distinguish three possible approaches to zoosemiotics as a whole: pure, descriptive, and applied. Pure zoosemiotics is concerned with the elaboration of theoretical models or, in the broadest sense, with the development of a language designed to deal scientifically with animal signaling behavior. Descriptive zoosemiotics comprehends the study of animal communication as a natural and as a behavioral science in its pragmatic, semantic, and syntactic aspects, as briefly sketched in this essay. Finally, applied zoosemiotics aims to deal with the exploitation of animal communication systems for the benefit of man. Utilitarian applications—tasks, in the main, for the future—may be confidently envisaged in wildlife management, agriculture, and pest control. Applied zoosemiotics is used sometimes even in warfare. Thus the United States Army is developing an 'insect personnel detector', consisting of man-sniffing bedbugs, for the discovery by smell of enemy soldiers lying in ambush. Our knowledge of basic zoosemiotic processes may also be put to practical uses to supplement existing human information-handling devices (in aiding the deaf and the blind, in assisting communication with man in outer space), and to advance bionics, a term that designates efforts to convert living systems into mechanical and electrical analogues.

PERSPECTIVE AND SUMMARY

Communicative processes may be studied in either organic forms, or inorganic forms, and, of course, in both interacting (e.g., man-machine communication). By organic forms, usually terrestrial life is meant, but there also exists a large speculative literature in mathematics and exobiology concerned with real or fictive communication of—and with—cosmic organisms.

It is convenient to distinguish human semiotic systems from those employed by the speechless creatures.

Human semiotic systems are of two kinds: anthroposemiotic, that is, species-specific systems of man, and zoosemiotic, that is, those component subsystems of human communication that are also found elsewhere in the animal kingdom.

Anthroposemiotic systems are: language; macrostructures, or secondary semiotic systems implying a verbal infrastructure; and other systems, that function independently of any natural language.

Zoosemiotic systems in man include paralinguistic, kinesic, proxemic, and many other devices, classifiable, in a preliminary way, in terms of the channel employed.

In animals, as well as in man, a zoosemiotic event has six dimensions, conveniently discussed under three headings: zoopragmatics, which deals with the origin, propagation, and effects of signs; zoosemantics, which deals with their signification, and zoosyntactics, which deals with codes and messages. In the literature of animal communication, these fields have developed unevenly, and the complete ethogram of no species is fully known.

Crosscutting these dimensions, one can mark three approaches to zoosemiotics: pure, descriptive, and applied.

Linguists and psycholinguists who are concerned with animal communication are interested chiefly in disclosing the biological and anthropological origins of human communication, and, further, seek answers to particular questions such as these: what are the anatomical and physiological correlates of verbal behavior and what sensory and cognitive specializations are required for language perception; what motivates the onset and accomplishment of language learning in the development of human infants; why do subhuman forms lack the capacity to acquire even the beginnings of language; how can prevent evolutionary theory account for the uniqueness of both form and behavior of language specialization in man; and what is the genetic basis for language propensity, man's most diagnostic biological endowment? Zoosemiotics, even though still
in its infancy, provides the scientist with a simpler setting in which to search for solutions than does the far more complex biosociological environment which constitutes the framework of man's communicative behavior.

READING LIST

The following is a brief reading list of representative books for the beginner in the field of zoosemiotics. For the author's extensive annotated guide to the literature and its background, see pp. 210-231 of Approaches to Animal Communication.


The Conversion of Script to Speech as Exemplified by Hungarian

by John Lotz

[John Lotz is Director of the Center for Applied Linguistics. Before coming to the Center, he was Professor of Linguistics at Columbia University. Dr. Lotz has recently completed a Hungarian Reference Grammar under contract with the U.S. Office of Education.]

This paper demonstrates how the native orthography, as exemplified by Hungarian, can serve as a device for phonemic transcription. The method developed for this exercise in applied linguistics promises to be useful in language teaching. The main text treats the problem in a straightforward, mechanical manner and in explicit detail; background information and scholarly references appear in the notes.

Even if the emphasis in teaching a language is on the spoken language and the initial period of instruction is devoted solely to oral exercises, as in most modern approaches to language teaching, the need to fix the language material in written form arises early. A systematic phonemic transcription is preferable for such a purpose. In the case of an unwritten language or for languages which do not use an alphabetic system of writing, there is no problem, since the development of a phonemic transcription is clearly the only choice. In the case of languages which have an established alphabetical writing system, but where the relationship between pronunciation and writing is highly complex and erratic, as in English, the introduction of a specific transcription is necessary. But what can be done in the case of a writing system which is fairly, but not entirely, phonemic? The use of two parallel writing systems, (1) the official orthography and (2) a phonemic transcription—as has been done—is a source of confusion. If one is to choose between the two graphic systems, the official orthography, an existing representation of the language which the student will have to learn and use anyhow, has precedence. In what follows,
I will attempt to show how it is possible to convert the official orthography into a phonemic transcription, applying the procedure to Hungarian.

The theoretical position taken here is based on the acceptance of the two normal language media, speech and writing, as equivalent symbolic systems of expression. The paper deals with the central core in language: the empty signalling elements, i.e. letters in script and sounds in speech. The relationship between the "constructive" features of the two expressive media—between stress, intonation and juncture in speech on the one hand, and punctuation in script on the other—is not explored. Here the interrelation is less systematic and less clearly understood than in the case of letters and sounds. (The constructive features constitute a concomitant channel in the transmission of information.) Also omitted, for obvious reasons, are features which are restricted to one of the media, such as the use of capital letters, hyphenation, and space arrangement in script, and emotional features in speech.

The paper will treat briefly (A) the graphemes of Hungarian, (B) the phonemes, and (C) the relationships between the two. The point of departure is script, and it is asked how script can be converted to speech (pronunciation). (The reverse problem of conversion from script to speech is not identical with that of converting speech to script.)

A. GRAPHEMES

The Hungarian writing system uses Roman letters with the addition of diacritical signs over the vocalic letters. The functional units in the Hungarian writing system, the graphemes, are of three types: (1) hengraphs, consisting of a single letter; (2) digraphs, the combination of two letters (cs, sz, dz, gy, ny, iy); and (3) a trigraph, the combination of three letters (the only example is dzs).

The Hungarian alphabet is arranged in the following traditional order: a, d, b, c, cs, ak, dz, dzs, e, f, g, gy, h, i, l, j, k, l, ly, m, n, ny, o, õ, ô, õ, p, (q), r, sz, t, ty, u, ú, ù, ü, v, (w), (x), (y), z, zs. (Note: dz and dzs are rare and are often disregarded in the enumeration of the alphabet. The letters q, w, and x occur only in foreign words. The letter y occurs in Hungarian only as the second element of a digraph [and in family names in traditional spelling].)

As mentioned above, we disregard specific features of script which have no systematic correlation in speech, such as capitalization; hyphenation; abbreviations, e.g. kb. (for körülbelül) 'approximately'; logographic signs, e.g. &; etc.

B. PHONEMES

Hungarian has the following phonemes (no attempt is made here at a comprehensive analysis, only modes of articulation being indicated; notation is in the traditional transcription):

- **Vowels**: short: u o o (a) i e ü o long: ő ö õ õ õ
- **Semivowels**: j (w) h
- **Oral stops**: p t k t' b d g d'
- **Nasals**: m n ñ
- **Fricatives**: f s s v z z
- **Affricates**: c č z ř
- **Liquids**: 1 r *

As mentioned above, stress, intonation, and juncture will not be included.
C. CONVERSION OF LETTERS TO SOUNDS

There is a high degree of correlation between letters and speech sounds in Hungarian. The orthography is based essentially on two principles: the phonemic principle, which assigns a single sound value to the graphemes, including the digraphs and the trigraph; and an overriding morphophonemic principle, according to which at some morphemic junctures the underlying form is written. In addition, there are idiosyncratic elements in script.

Our purpose is to show that segments of the text written in the standard orthography can be converted into phonemic representations by a simple set of conversion rules. In the following we shall distinguish two sets of correspondences: (i) the case of the application of the phonemic principle, where general conversion rules indicate how the letters are to be pronounced; and (ii) specific instances of non-phonemic conversion rules, which indicate how segments of the text written non-phonemically are to be rewritten in terms of the phonemic principle. The second set of correspondences treats cases involving the morphophonemic principle (which is by far the most important part), as well as a few cases of phonological deviation and of idiosyncratic spelling. The major portion of any Hungarian text, as can be seen from the sample text presented below, is covered by the phonemic principle.

I. The phonemic principle. There is a basic one-to-one correlation between grapheme and phoneme, as shown below. (The grapheme is given first, matched by the symbol for its transcription.)

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Note: The graphemes j and hy have the same phonemic value. Consonant gemination is indicated by repetition of the letter in the case of hengraphs, and by repetition of only the first letter in the case of digraphs and the trigraph, except in hyphenation and compounding, when the entire grapheme is repeated, e.g. halaryu 'swan' [ha‘ri‘u], hyphenated haya-ryu; and jeggygyürül 'engagement ring' [from jeggy 'sign (engagement)' + gyürül 'ring']; the graphemes dz and dzs are shown orthographically as geminates only in repetitive suffixation, e.g. eddzik 'let us train' (cf. edz 'train').

The graphemes on the basis of their phonemic correspondence are divided into two categories:

1. Vocalic graphemes (vowels): a a e é í ó ö ü û õ
2. Consonant graphemes (consonants): all the other graphemes.

Except for the marginal case under Rule 11 below, only consonants are affected by the following non-phonemic conversion rules.

II. Non-phonemic rules. Deviations from the phonemic interpretation of the
Graphemes are of three kinds: (a) morphophonemic, (b) phonological, and (c) idiosyncratic.

A. MORPHOPHONEMIC ALTERNATIONS

1. Degemination. Preceded or followed by a consonant, all geminates are simplified. Geminates may occur either as the first two letters or the last two of a multi-consonantal (normally three-consonantal) cluster, e.g. szébbnel → szénnél 'at the more beautiful', házunkkal → házunkal 'with our house', rossztól → rossztól 'from the bad'.

Symbolized: $C_1C_2 \rightarrow C_1$ preceded or followed by a consonant.

2. Voicing switch. Obstruents participating in the voiced-voiceless correlation are changed to conform with the voicing of the initial obstruent of the following morpheme, i.e. before stops, affricates and fricatives (but not before nasals, liquids or vowels); e.g.:

- rész [rész] 'part' → réz [réz] 'copper'
- részölt [részölt] 'from part' → régiölt [régiölt] 'from copper'
- részeben [részben] 'in part' → részen [rézben] 'in copper'

(But cf. részáli [részali] 'at the part', részelī [rézselī] 'at copper'.) Before h devoicing takes place, e.g. adhat 'he may give' ($d \rightarrow t$).

The switching symbol indicates that the grapheme is to be replaced by its matching partner.

Symbolized: $\begin{array}{c} p f h d g s y \ddot{y} v s \ddot{s} d \ddot{s} e z \\ \rightarrow p f h d g s y v s \ddot{s} d \ddot{s} e z \end{array}$ before a grapheme in the switching set and h

3. Adpalatalization. The graphemes ñ, ñ and ñ, ñ, ñ follow by a ñ are pronounced as short palatals when preceded by a consonant, otherwise as geminate palatals, e.g. lítja → lattya [lat'tya] 'he sees it'; hagyja → haggya [haggya] 'he leaves it'; bánja → bánya [bán'ya] 'he hurts it'.

Symbolized: $\begin{array}{c} d n e n \ddot{e} n \\ \rightarrow d n e n \ddot{e} n \end{array}$ before a consonant, tnty otherwise

4. Adaaffrication. The graphemes ñ and ñ followed by ñ, ñ, ñ, ñ, ñ and ñ become short affricates when preceded or followed by another consonant, otherwise geminate affricates, e.g. ronás → rones 'destroy', fürse → fürcsé [fürcsé] 'he shall heat it', utcse → ucca 'street', szabadság → szabacság [szabacság] 'freedom', készre → kécsere [kécsere] 'twice'.

Symbolized: $\begin{array}{c} t f s c \ddot{c} \\ \rightarrow t f s c \ddot{c} \end{array}$ before or after a consonant, c after or before a consonant, cc otherwise

Sometimes the phenomena described above (Rules 1–4) occur across word boundaries, e.g. egy ház → ety ház 'one house'.

5. Laryngal loss. In root-final position h is not generally pronounced, except before a vowel, e.g. méh → mé 'bee', méhben → mében 'in a bee'; but méhek 'bees'.

Symbolized: $h \rightarrow \emptyset$ in root-final position, except before a vowel.

6. Pseudodigraphs. Sometimes grapheme sequences which appear to constitute digraphs, single or geminate, actually belong to separate morphemes and must be pronounced accordingly (underlining indicates the element which is a part of the separate morpheme), e.g. község 'village, community', from köz 'general' + -ség
(abstract suffix); egészseg 'health', from egész 'whole' + -ség (for the actual pronunciation of both község and egészseg, see Rule 14, below); meggyőz 'confess', from meg- (converb for completion) + győz 'he is confessing'. This often occurs in the traditional spelling of proper names (cf. Rule 12, below), e.g. Vörösmarty → Vorösmarty (name of a poet).

Pseudodigraphs (and pseudotrigraphs) can also occur at the seams of compounds, e.g. vagzige 'wild mountain goat', lógyez 'goose fat'.

Symbolized: C → the grapheme C is not part of a digraph.

Here, of course, respelling is not possible by means of the Hungarian orthography. The symbol → indicates re-interpretation, rather than respelling. In hyphenation, however, the distinction can be made, e.g. község vs. mőzsza '100 kilograms'.

7. Isolated cases. Three morphemes have root variants pronounced with a geminate consonant, even though they are written with a single grapheme, e.g. egy 'one', kisebb 'smaller', and lesz 'he, she, it becomes'.

Symbolized: egy → eggy
        lesz → lessz
        kisebb → kissebb

b. PHONOLOGICAL DEVIATIONS

8. ly → j. As mentioned above, ly egz is identical in pronunciation with j, i.e. here we have a two-to-one relationship between letter and sound. It would be possible to dispense with this rule, but for the sake of neatness it is included. Note that the distinction sometimes serves to differentiate words, e.g. folyt 'he strangles', folyt 'it was flowing'. They may also be combined, e.g. folyjon 'let it flow'.

Symbolized: ly → j
       ly → jj

9. Nasal adjustments of n. The grapheme n represents the general "all-purpose" nasal [n] and is adjusted to the following obstruent, e.g. kigban → kimban 'in severe pain', szemved → szemved 'he suffers', konyt → konyt 'chignon', ronyg → ronyg 'rag'.

Symbolized: n → m before p, b, f, v
        n → ny before ny, gy

10. The rarely occurring voiced affricates dz and dzs are always long when permissible according to the distributional rules of Hungarian, i.e. intervocally and in word-final position, e.g. edz → eddz 'he trains', hodzs → hoddsza '(Turkish) wise man' (but kondzza 'lance').

Symbolized: dz → d dz intervocally and in word-final position
       dz → dzs intervocally (does not occur finally)

11. There are two phonemes in Hungarian which have no graphic representation: short unrounded open [a] as in Svájc 'Switzerland', and a labial semivowel [w] as in autó 'car'. These cases, of course, cannot be indicated by means of the Hungarian orthography; however, attention will be called to them by reference to examples.

Symbolized: d → as d in Svájc 'Switzerland'
       u → as u in autó 'car'

C. IDIOSYNCRASIES

12. Deviations in the standard orthography occur in archaic native forms, especially in family names, and sometimes in place names. The most common cases are cz → c and, at the end of names, y → i.

Symbolized: cz → c
y → i

13. Foreign elements. In foreign words the letters q, w, x, independent y, and the digraph ch occur. Sometimes the spelling of the original language is retained, e.g. Marx, hexameter, Darwin, technika.

Symbolized: x → kx
q → kv
w → v
ch → hh intervocally and in word-final position, h otherwise

14. There are a number of provincial, colloquial, and fast pronunciations. In standard pronunciation, the more common cases are: lj → jj, e.g. őfen → őfen ‘may he live!’; zz, szx → ss, e.g. köszög → kösség ‘village’, egészség → egészség ‘health’; G, t → C, e.g. kommunizmus → komunizmus ‘Communism’, millió → milió ‘million’.

The cases of colloquial, substandard, or fast-contracted pronunciations are of no pedagogical significance in our context.

15. The most radical way of dealing with idiosyncracies is by complete respelling, e.g. Theweszk → Török, Shakespeare → Sekszpir, Washington → Vasíaktun.

The conversion rules, which are summarized in the accompanying chart, allow the respelling or re-interpretation of any Hungarian text in the native orthography and provide an exact pronunciation for any word in the text, in accordance with the phonemic values assigned by the phonemic principle.

In practice, the method works as follows: Segments which do not follow the phonemic principle described above should be marked. The simplest way to indicate these segments is by underlining (simple underlining is sufficient, since the situations covered in the chart are disparate and mutually exclusive), e.g. házstől ‘from the house’—according to Rule 2, x → sz, resulting in the phonemic-orthographic spelling házstől.

Sometimes two operations have to be performed on the same stretch. This can be indicated by double underlining of the appropriate segment, e.g. szépségtől ‘from the more beautiful’—according to Rule 1, hh → h, and according to Rule 2, h → p, resulting in the phonemic-orthographic spelling szépstől.

Sometimes the underlining are of unequal length, e.g. játéka ‘let him play it’. Here Rule 1 reduces the geminate sz to sz, then Rule 4 converts the resulting sz to cc, resulting in the spelling jácsa.

Here the question of ordering the operations can be raised. This is of no practical significance, because of the disparate nature of the conversion rules. In practice, the first underlining has to be resolved first, then the second. From a theoretical point of view, however, the rules are ordered.

To demonstrate the application of the conversion rules to a connected text there follow first a few examples, prepared specifically for this paper and presenting a concentration of instances, then a page from my Hungarian Reader (Stockholm,
1938, p. 47), the beginning of a short story by Géza Gárdonyi (1863–1922). The popular-narrative style of this story contains a higher percentage of conversion rule applications than an expository or poetic text and should serve to show how the application appears in practice.

The summary chart of the conversion rules faces the Sample Text. In a book it could be attached as a fold-out page, to be used with the entire textbook, without requiring that the user constantly turn to the location of the chart in the text.

EXAMPLES

Orthography: a kisebség és többség köszti egészséges viszony
Rules: \(7 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} 2 \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1}\)
Respelling: a kisepseg es tobspseg kozti egeszseg es vizony
'healthy relationship between minority and majority'

Orthography: méhek a méhkazban
Rules: \(5 \frac{1}{2}\)
Respelling: méhek a méhkazban
'bees in the beehive'

Orthography: készlet láttja
Rules: \(7 \frac{1}{3}\)
Respelling: kéklet láttja
'he sees it twice'

Orthography: ne rontsd ell!
Rules: \(\frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{2}\)
Respelling: ne rondzs di!
'don’t destroy it!'

Orthography: folyjon
Rules: \(\frac{1}{1}\)
Respelling: fojjon
'let it flow'

Orthography: sokban sokkban
Rules: \(2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}\)
Respelling: sogban sogban
'in many’ ‘in short'
21. Festő a falun.
— Gárdonyi Géza.

Ma, ahogy kilépek az utcára, látom, hogy a gyerekek mind az elvég felől futnak. Megállítom a Burucz-gyereket, hogy mi történt?

— Egy úr van a falu végen, — mondja zihálva, kipirosodottan, — képet csinál.

Egy úr, aki képet csinál; — nem lehet egyéb, csak festő. Magam is arralol néztem. Csaknem rá is akadtam.


A festő fiatal, szőke ember volt, afféle hosszúhajú szünyog- legény, aminőket mindenféle lehet láttni nyáron az országban. A fején széleskarmájú püha kalup; a kabátja meg bársonyóból való, olaszos.

De magyar fiú volt. Amint figyelmeztették, hogy a tanító jön, letette az esséjét és fellelt.

— Róz István vagyok, — mondotta — Münchenből jöttem haza az űszere, egy néhány stádiumot csinálva ifjuban.

— Hogyan vetődött ide, a mi kis előjett falunkba?


— Teszék folytatni, azért beszélgethetünk.

A rétnek egy darabját festette: a hídát, a nyárút, meg egy néhány bü Zhát, a víz mellett. Folvette az esséjét és föl-fölpillantva festett tovább.

— Látszik, — mondotta — hogy itt még sohaso járt magam-főle ember. A falu tele van szebbnél-szebb tanulmányfejdel, de akár kinéz színtelen eddig, hogy legyen modellom, igényt tiltakozott.

— Isten tudja, mut értékel a modell szén. A maguk nyelvén kell azokkal beszélni, jó festő uram.

— Beszélten én az ő nyelvüknél is. Egy barnaképű fűcska végre leküzdte egy hatosért a félelmét, de azt is elvitték tőlem.
CHART OF CONVERSION RULES

1. \( C, C \rightarrow C \) preceded or followed by a consonant.

2. \( \begin{align*}
\rightarrow a & \ b & \ c & \ d & \ e & \ f & \ g & \ h & \ i & \ j & \ k & \ l & \ m & \ n & \ o & \ p & \ q & \ r & \ s & \ t & \ u & \ v & \ w & \ x & \ y & \ z \\
\rightarrow  & b & d & g & v & z & \rightarrow & tz & dz & \\
\end{align*} \) before a grapheme in the switching set and \( h \)

3. \( \begin{align*}
\rightarrow ty & \rightarrow gy & \rightarrow ny \\
\rightarrow \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\end{align*} \) before or after a consonant, \( ty \) otherwise \( gy \) otherwise \( ny \) otherwise

4. \( \begin{align*}
\rightarrow c & \rightarrow cc & \rightarrow cs & \rightarrow ces \\
\rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\end{align*} \) before or after a consonant, \( cc \) otherwise \( cs \) otherwise \( ces \) otherwise

5. \( h \rightarrow \phi \) in root-final position, except before a vowel.

6. \( C \rightarrow \) the grapheme \( C \) is not part of a digraph.

7. \( egy \rightarrow eggy \)
   \( lessz \rightarrow lessz \)
   \( kissebb \rightarrow kissebb \)

8. \( ly \rightarrow j \)
   \( llv \rightarrow j \)

9. \( n \rightarrow m \) before \( p, b, f, v \)
   \( n \rightarrow ny \) before \( ty, gy \)

10. \( dzc \rightarrow dzx \) intervocally and in word-final position
    \( dzx \rightarrow dzxs \) intervocally

11. \( d \rightarrow \) as \( d \) in \( Svájc 'Switzerland' \)
    \( u \rightarrow u \) as \( u \) in \( autó 'car' \)

12. \( czc \rightarrow c \)
    \( x \rightarrow i \)

13. \( x \rightarrow ksz \)
    \( kw \rightarrow kv \)
    \( w \rightarrow v \)
    \( ch \rightarrow hh \) intervocally and in word-final position, \( h \) otherwise

14. \( j \rightarrow jj \)
    \( jz, jz \rightarrow ss \)
    \( C, C \rightarrow C \)

15. complete respelling
NOTES

1. This version of the paper was prepared under a contract between the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics (transferred from Columbia University) to produce a "Hungarian Reference Grammar". The conversion chart has been distributed in my classes at Columbia University since 1959.

The materials presented here form a chapter in the section entitled "Expressive Media", which includes: 1. Speech (Phonology); 2. Script (Graphematics); 3. Conversion of Script to Speech (reproduced here); 4. Conversion of Speech to Script; and several chapters on a Hungarian X-Ray Sound Motion Picture Film and on various Hungarian contrastive subjects.

2. The teaching of unwritten languages may take place even in a formal classroom situation, since such languages are sometimes taught for practical purposes, e.g. in the training of Peace Corps volunteers.

3. This is the position taken in my grammar, Das ungarische Sprachsystem, Stockholm, 1939. A detailed analysis of the complex situation involving the imperative was carried out in my article, "The Imperative in Hungarian", American Studies in Uralic Linguistics, Indiana University Publications—Uralic and Altaic Series, vol. 1, 1960, pp. 83—92.

Among the various structuralist schools, glossematics took a similar position. Hjelmslev and Uldall, however, relegated the normal media, speech and script, to a lower level, called substance, in the glossematic hierarchy, to be determined by a higher level, called form. But the theory was not—and I think could not be—applied to empirical language material.

The view commonly held by American structuralists equates the formal structure of speech with language, and regards script as outside the scope of central language phenomena. This latter view was expressed first—to my knowledge—by Aristotle, establishing the chain: psychological content → speech → script.

4. I use the term grapheme rather reluctantly. But a term is needed to differentiate between the unit shapes in script, for which the term letter is retained in accordance with conventional usage, and the functional units in the writing system, for which the term grapheme is introduced. In discussions of Hungarian, the lack of this dis-
tinction leads to confusion. (I would like to add that it seems to me that the Aristotelian term referred to in the preceding note refers to script in general, rather than to units in script.)

5. All citations of Hungarian material are given in italics. Hungarian materials rewritten according to the conversion rules are given in Roman. Phonemic references are enclosed within square brackets. Underlining indicates a segment to be rewritten or reinterpreted according to the appropriate conversion rule; double underlining indicates that two conversion rules are involved. In addition, the following symbols are used:

- **C** a consonant
- **C_C** a geminate consonant
- **→** to be respelled or reinterpreted as...
- **↑** voicing switch before an element of
- **↓** the opposite set, and **h**
- **Ø** zero

6. In a script system like Hungarian there is the need for a term for functional units consisting of a single letter. Due to my classical prejudice, I have ruled out *unigraph* because it combines a Greek and a Latin root. (But the word “television” does not disturb me.) Of the available Greek morphemes referring to one, *mono* was obviously out because of *monograph*: the choice of the feminine form, *mia*, seemed to be unmotivated; so I settled on *hengraph*. (Note that *hendecasyllabic* is a recognized term in English metrics.)

7. Hyphenation might be distinctive, e.g. *fe-lül* ‘above’ (single word) vs. *fei-lül* ‘sit up to’ (compound word).

8. This transcription is the one commonly used in American linguistics. It is for all practical purposes identical with the one devised in the 1870’s by Joseph Budenz, the great codifier of Uralic linguistics.

9. The short, open, unrounded *[a]* and the labial semivowel *[w]* are marginal; they occur, though, normally in such “foreign” nominal roots as *Svájc ‘Switzerland’* *[Svajc]* and *autó ‘automobile’* *[autó]*. They are discussed for the purposes of this paper under Rule 11.

   In the usage of many speakers of Standard Hungarian there is a distinction between a closed *[e]* and an open *[i]*, corresponding to the undifferentiated *[e]* of the majority of speakers, e.g. *[ménék]* ‘you (pl.) go’, *[ménétak]* ‘they went’, *[máintak]* ‘I save’, *[máninták]* ‘(they are) exempt’. Since the orthography does not indicate the differentiation, this distinction will be ignored in this paper.

10. Latin script for Hungarian was introduced in the eleventh century. (Earlier, Hungarian words appeared in Arabic geographical descriptions and Byzantine political tracts. There was also a native runic script in existence, based on the Turkic runes, which survived until modern times.) The influences shaping Hungarian orthography were: Neo-Latin-Italian influence (*gy* for palatal *[d’]*, cf. Italian *maggiorie*; and the letter *s* for *[l]*, reflecting North Italian pronunciation); Czech-Husite influence through the mediation of the University of Cracow in Poland (indication of vowel length); and German (the “Umlaut” diacritic, e.g. *[u:] and *[sz]* for *[i]*). The orthography became fairly well stabilized in the sixteenth century through the typographic practices of the Protestant printing presses, e.g. utilization of morphophonemic writing. During the Counter-Reformation, Catholic printers
used a fairly strict phonemic orthography, but around 1800 the etymological (= morphophonemic) principle prevailed. (In a general sense it can be said that the conversion rules set forth here result from a consistent application of the “Catholic” orthographic rules instead of the prevailing “Protestant” ones.) After its establishment in the 1830’s, the Hungarian Academy of Sciences became responsible for the orthography. The regulations of the Academy have the force of a government decree for schools and for official use. The latest regulations were issued in 1954: A magyar helyesírás szabályai [Rules of Hungarian Orthography], Budapest, 1954. For a succinct account of the above, see J. Kuczka, A magyar helyesírás története [History of Hungarian Orthography], 2nd rev. ed., Budapest, 1959.

11. New idiosyncrasies are sometimes created by the Academy itself. For instance, the 1954 regulations require that Russian а be rendered by Hungarian ɒ, except in the name “Stalin”, where ɒ [ɒ] is to be used, Szdlin. Also the name “Lenin” is spelled Lenin and not *Lenyin, which would normally be required by the transliteration rules.

12. The use of the phonemic principle in Hungarian orthography applies to segments which are unmarked, to use a term which has recently become fashionable in America.

13. Distributionally inclined formalists among structural linguists would use for the definition of the class of vocalic letters in Hungarian the fact that these are the letters capable of accentuation (the dot on i and j can be ignored), claiming thereby a superior formal definition. I would regard such a definition as an empty “trick”; the classes would not change, even if they were set up by enumeration. (Such a formal definition would not work for Finnish, where ɒ represents [õ] and y represents [ii].) The basis for the distinction is in speech articulation, not in the nature of the script.

14. A morphophonemic sequence of three identical consonants is written as a geminate, e.g. tollal (for *to\ll-lal) ‘with the pen’, szebben (for *szebb-ben) ‘in the more beautiful’ (cf. szebb-en ‘in a more beautiful way’).

15. Before [h] only voiceless obstruents can occur, e.g. adhat → athat ‘he may give’. [v] does not affect the preceding obstruent, but it is affected by the voicelessness of the following obstruent, e.g. adva ‘given’, hava ‘effected’; but év ‘year’, évől ‘from the year’ → évülől. (Historically, [v] came from Old Hungarian [w] and was not part of the obstruent system.)

It is interesting to contrast English and Hungarian obstruent clusters. Superficially, they appear to be very similar, namely, they are either voiceless or voiced in their entirety, apart from a few exceptions such as width. The genesis of these clusters, however, is very different; cf. my “Contrastive Study of the Morphophonemics of Obstruent Clusters in English and Hungarian” in Miscellanea di studi dedicati a Emerico Vdrady, Modena, 1966, pp. 197–201.

16. It would be possible, in view of the fact that Rules 1 and 2 are already established, to state the rule in a simpler fashion only as ɹ + ɹ → cc and ɹ + ɺ → ccc. Rule 2 would take care of the devoicing and Rule 1 of the degemination, when applicable, e.g. bolondsg ‘silliness’ [bolončag] would operate in the following way: the ɹ would become ɹ before ɹ according to Rule 2, ɹɺ would become ccc according to Rule 4 and ccc would become ɹ according to Rule 1. I have not adopted this interpretation because I wanted to hold the number of operations to a minimum.

Graphic doublets can arise, e.g. fáradtsg ‘endeavor’ and fáradtsǎg ‘tiredness’, from
'to get tired, to work hard for' + -t (past participle) and -sdz (abstract suffix)—both pronounced [fárscsă̈] (homophony vs. heterography).

17. The case of ronsz 'destroy' is the only outright case of misinterpretation in Hungarian orthography; ronsz should be written roncs (cf. the recent nominal formation, written roncsz 'wreck').

18. Utca is sometimes spelled ucca; here, út 'road' has intruded from folk etymology.

19. Historically, the Old Hungarian [x] is retained only before vowels, as the laryngal [h]; in recent loanwords, however, the [x] has reappeared in root (and syllable) final position, e.g. szh 'shah', potroh 'abdomen (of an insect)', pech 'bad luck' [pshh]. Sometimes the [h] is optional, e.g. düh 'anger' [düz] or [düh]. There is no problem for the purposes of this paper, since it is only underlined h that is not pronounced.

20. When followed by a consonant, the gy of egy is short, in accordance with Rule 1, e.g. egyben 'by one'; also in a number of derivatives: egyed 'individual', egyediil 'alone', egyetem 'university' (in these cases, of course, no underlining is required.) In the positive form, the s [ʃ] of kis 'little' is short. Likewise, in the other persons, the sz [ʃ] of lesz- 'become' is short, e.g. leszek 'I become'.

21. The grapheme iy continues an older palatal lateral [j]; its reflexes in dialects vary, e.g. kirily 'king' [kirja] (the standard pronunciation), [kirá], and [királ]. Therefore one might argue that in the native Sprachgefühl it did not coincide with j and consequently the difference in spelling was retained in spite of those who advocated replacing the iy by j.

22. Nasals pose an interesting problem in Hungarian and have attracted wide attention. (Cf. Eli Fischer-Jørgensen in Actes du huitième congrès international des linguistes, Oslo, 1958, p. 475.) The various structural approaches since Trubetzkoy have great difficulties even in formulating the problem. It is easy, of course, to give mechanical rules for the generation of these sounds. I think the solution lies in the fact that the palatal articulation differs essentially from the other buccal articulations. (Cf. my "X-Ray Sound Motion Picture Film and Some Phonological Questions of Hungarian", Ural-Altaische Jahrbücher, vol. 36, 1965, pp. 31-38.)

23. Since dz and dzs are always pronounced as geminates when distributionally possible, one might regard them as unmarked, and derive the single affricate from Rule 1. I have not followed this treatment, though much can be said in favor of it, because I wanted to stick closely to the "substance", e.g. [ɛz̝uk] can be written in several ways: edźuk 'we train', eddźuk 'let us train' (accepted since 1954 as the prescribed spelling, interpreting the [dz] as an affricate; earlier it was spelled edźziik, treating it as a verb ending in z).

24. Cf. note 9, above.

25. In actual usage, there are standard pronunciations which differ from their orthographical representation, e.g. variations in consonant quantity and the quantity of the high vowels [i], [u], [ü]. Also, certain compounds or less frequent technical terms are usually not pronounced in accordance with the rules indicated above, e.g. kőész [kőeš] 'doubt' vs. réstég 'meadowland' (a technical geographical term), usually pronounced [reštég]; hatzor 'six times' vs. szétzör 'scatter around' (the first is always pronounced [hočcoř], the second usually [sětsőř]). Likewise [ts] in Margit sziget 'Margaret Island'. For the cases where no change takes place, the...
solution is simple: no underlining is needed.

In addition to these standard variations there are also sub-standard cases, e.g.
gemination: erössen for erősen 'strongly'; or contractions: naccsdgos for nagyadgos
'honorable' (term of address); mit csinál? 'what is he doing?' as [mičinál]. These are
not part of the standard language and do not have to be indicated, but they can be
handled by complete respelling; cf. Rule 15.

It is interesting to note that bookish pronunciation, which disregards many of
the changes described in the rules above, occurs quite often. (I collected a dialect
term from Southern Hungary for this: írásilag beszél 'he speaks according to the
writing.')

26. The phonological changes underlying the conversion rules in script are as
follows:

Qualitative Changes

Laryngal
  Loss of [h]—Rule 5
  Voicing switch—Rule 2

Apical
  Adpalatalization—Rule 3
  Adaffrication—Rule 4

Nasal
  Palatal adjustment—Rule 9
  Labiodental adjustment—Rule 9

Quantitative Changes
  Degemination—Rules 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, (13), (14)

For explanation and examples, consult the rules cited.

27. These rules are literally rewrite rules, to use Chomsky's term, except for
Rules 6 and 15, which are re-interpretations rather than conversions. From the
viewpoint of this analysis I see no reason to distinguish between the two types of
rules.

The notation can also be used for statistical purposes, e.g. the statistical analysis
of the Hungarian consonants, an area where the data are particularly unreliable
because of unclarity concerning morphophonemes, sounds, letters and graphemes.

In the orthography the underlying morphophonemic shapes are written; they
represent the language sign as a conveyer of meaning. The method employed here
allows these signs to be converted and to emerge on the plane of expression.
I became associated with the Chicago Assyrian Dictionary project shortly before 1954, the date of the reorganization which led to our present schedule of publication, beginning in 1956. The project goes back of course much further in time and a number of reports about it have appeared in orientalist journals and elsewhere. It is not my purpose here to take you through the history of its early stages, which has been excellently described by I. J. Gelb in the Introduction to volume I, part 1, published in 1964, but rather to give an apéry of how the project actually works, now that it has passed its half-way point.

The project was conceived at the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago in 1921, during the directorship of James Henry Breasted. It was patterned after the Berlin Egyptian Dictionary (A. Erman and H. Grapow, Wörterbuch der ägyptischen Sprache, Leipzig, 1925–63), which itself was modeled on the Thesaurus Linguae Latinae (Leipzig, 1904–). Thus the Chicago Assyrian Dictionary was originally intended to be a thesaurus of the Akkadian language. In spite of the name Assyrian, which has been retained for convenience’ sake, the dictionary covers in fact both the Assyrian and the Babylonian dialects of Akkadian, an East Semitic language attested in written records from roughly 2400 B.C. to 100 A.D. Moreover, texts in contemporary neighboring languages were to be excerpted for Akkadian loan words, and conversely, non-Akkadian words used in Akkadian texts were to be included.

When the project got under way, Akkadian had been deciphered for about a hundred years, but even so, the 1920’s were much too early, as we now see, for an undertaking of this scope. First of all, the usual sources for a bilingual dictionary, namely, other bilingual
dictionaries, were very few in number. But the main obstacle for collecting material was the lack of good text editions. So, the first task of the CAD project was to establish the text—from duplicates and fragmentary material—from which the words could be collected. This task is an ever continuing one: New editions of previously known but incomplete or inaccurately published texts continue to appear and are still the most urgent desiderata for many sources. Thus, in this case particularly, philology had to precede lexicography.

Another shortcoming in the early days of the CAD was the inadequate familiarity with Sumerian, a non-Semitic language of ancient Mesopotamia which had died out long before Akkadian did but which was used as a vehicle for a great variety of learned literature, by itself or in bilingual versions with Akkadian, throughout the lifetime of cuneiform literature. Only in the past two decades have Sumerologists been able to offer us substantial help with Akkadian lexicography, not only by interpreting, with the help of unilingual Sumerian sources, the Sumerian versions of bilingual texts and vocabularies, but also by providing cultural and linguistic contexts from which unilingual Akkadian texts may gain further elucidation.

Notwithstanding the lack of critical editions, close to two million file cards were prepared during the first stage, the collecting stage, of the CAD. The cards ranged from those containing a sizable portion of text, often with translation and notes, obtained by mimeographing existing publications or manuscripts specially prepared by Assyriologists here and abroad, through hand-written cards showing only the key word with a minimal but immediately relevant context from a number of texts pertaining to a specific group, such as, for instance, Old Babylonian legal texts, to simple bibliographical notes on previous discussions of the word, and to such luxury items as etymological information, usually culled from dictionaries of various Semitic languages.

After a small number of pilot projects, such as sample articles and writing up of words belonging to selected semantic sets—for instance, names of trees, selected because tree names are known from bilingual Sumero-Akkadian lists—the decision was made in 1954 to start publishing in single volumes, one volume per letter of the alphabet. We were extremely fortunate in finding a publisher, J. J. Augustin, who has so far printed eleven volumes of the CAD and reprinted second and even third editions of all volumes published before 1965.

The first published volume of the CAD was volume Η (1956). This volume had manifest inconsistencies and shortcomings, which were gradually corrected and remedied as we gained experience with the publication of subsequent volumes, particularly during the period 1957–1962, when Elizabeth Bowman was our editorial secretary. Since 1962 we have not made many changes, and of course as more volumes are published, the less desirable it is to introduce changes, so as not to confuse reader and writer alike. Still, consistency and uniformity is not our forte, partly because of our editorial policy from the outset of proceeding with publication without waiting for the development of some perfected theoretical groundwork for lexicography, and partly because the preliminary drafts are produced by a constantly changing staff of scholars associated with the CAD for a post-doctoral training period or as visitors, whom we cannot force into too rigid patterns. The editorial staff, of course, tries to see to it that individual idiosyncrasies are kept to a reasonable minimum and that the articles in each volume are more or less uniformly handled. A complete Gleichschaltung, however, would make the dictionary lose much of its flavor. A glance at the title pages shows the number of collaborators who have effectively contributed to the writing of articles. For eleven volumes, they number sixteen.

This diversity is actually a great asset of the CAD. One collaborator may be a specialist in social and economic history, who brings his experience and insight to bear on the elucidation of any word in his field. Another is a specialist in medical texts, who will not feel satisfied until he has identified a medicinal plant that a colleague might dismiss with the simple definition “a plant.” And, of course, the CAD project had the great fortune of having on its staff A. Leo Oppenheim and, until last year, Benno Landsberger, two scholars whose interests encompassed the broad spectrum of Mesopotamian culture. Constant communication among the staff assures that each member will contribute his personal knowledge at the most vital stage, that of establishing the meaning of a word. I should add that the manuscript or proof of each volume is sent to two colleagues abroad, for their review and criticism.
This is not intended to give the impression that as a consequence the CAD can give an adequate definition for every word. There are numerous entries with the definition “a plant,” “an insect,” “a garment,” “part of a boat,” “part of the body,” and the like, and also those which are glossed simply “mng. unknown,” or more boldly, “mng. uncertain.” Since we solve, or try to solve, lexical problems as we proceed in the alphabet—but always cite and translate complete sentences—the definitions of words that have not yet appeared in a published volume are necessarily provisional.

It is not only in lexicography, however, but also in grammar, including phonology (or I should say morphophonemics) that the CAD will play a responsible part. While we now have good grammars of Akkadian, it is only through collecting the material, and by only very reluctantly emending an irregular form, that we can hope to provide material for further research in grammar. The CAD has already brought into question some established grammatical rules, and has pointed the way to fruitful research.

Let me now turn to some statistics. Eleven volumes are now completed and ten are published, with a total of 3,113 pages. The total number of entries, excluding cross-references, is so far 7,181, ranging from 346 entries in volume Z to 1,331 in volume K. The number of references to sources averages about 10,000 per volume, so we may project for the completed dictionary about 12,000–15,000 entries and 250,000 citations or references. Even so, the CAD will be no thesaurus, as it was originally envisaged. This is because, although Akkadian is a dead language, it has a constantly expanding corpus. The steady stream of publications and new editions is still not able to do justice to the material conserved in museums all over the world, not to speak of newly dug up tablets in the continuing series of excavations in Mesopotamia and elsewhere in the Near East. Thus, not only can the material presented not be exhaustive, it sometimes cannot even be representative, e.g. in the case of attestations for a word that comes to light from hitherto unattested periods and geographical areas.

At first, it was planned that addenda and corrigenda would be published in each subsequent volume, but this idea was soon abandoned, partly because new additions keep accruing, and partly because of the fact that the volumes have not been published in alphabetical order. Therefore, we are delaying the publication of a supplement until the dictionary is completed.

Another problem consisted of the question whether to include bound morphemes, that is, units smaller than the word. This was decided in the negative, not from any theoretical considerations, but because our collections were only sporadic in this area, and also because at about the time the CAD began publication there appeared a comprehensive grammar, W. von Soden’s *Grundriss der akkadischen Grammatik* (Rome, 1952). It was also decided to give very little space to function words, such as particles, prepositions, and the like, which have no well-definable lexical meaning, and to list only their spelling and Sumerian equivalents, since their meaning again belongs in the grammar. Of course this is not the only possi-
ble procedure; von Soden's *Akkadisches Handwörterbuch* (Wiesbaden, 1959—), which is being published concurrently with the CAD, not only treats such grammatical elements at length, but also lists morphemes smaller than the word, often with cross-references to the author's grammar.

Proper names are treated in various ways; personal and geographic names that correspond to or contain common words are listed under the pertinent word; other such names that have no meaning in Akkadian, as also names of gods, are completely omitted.

So much for the coverage. A few words now on the relation of dictionary entries to the linguistic structure; or rather, the problems arising from the mapping of semantics onto the linguistic structure.

In Akkadian, as in other Semitic languages, a certain semantic field is attached to the so-called root, the three consonants that make up the majority of the words. Previous dictionaries of Akkadian have grouped all derivatives, on a hierarchic principle, under the consonantal skeleton, as is still done for many Semitic languages. The CAD, however, lists each word in its proper place in the alphabet, that is, derivatives with prefixes appear under m, n, s, i, etc., and when the vowels interdigitating with the root consonants differ, even words appearing in the same volume may be far apart from each other. It is only a minor technical matter to provide the information that root-dictionaries provide by their system of listing all derivatives in the same place, under the root, beginning usually with the infinitive: It is only necessary to cross-reference each derivative to the infinitive. But what if no verb exists, but only, say, an adjective and a substantive? Also, are we falsifying structural information if we list under a denominative verb a noun which undoubtedly is the source of that verb? We solve this question in a practical way, listing all words belonging to the same root under the infinitive; only if there is no infinitive do we list them under the semantically primary word.

A more significant question for Akkadian lexicography is how and where to list derived verbal stems that have meanings widely different from that of the base stem. Infinitives of only two stems for each root, the base and one derived stem, begin with the same letter, and even this is not the case with a class of irregular verbs whose infinitives have a vocalic initial. Infinitives of the other stems begin with a vowel, with an n, or with an i. Since derivatives are listed at their proper place in the alphabet, infinitives of the derived stems, being derivatives with proper meanings, ought to be listed, on this principle, under the letter they begin with, i.e. under n, i, or the proper initial vowel. According to some, such a procedure would be more consistent; on the other hand, students of Akkadian and Semitic languages usually regard the complex network of derived verbal stems as an intricate and self-explanatory system, more closely inter-connected than nominal derivatives of one root, and expect their treatment in the dictionary under the same entry. And so the CAD does in fact treat all derived verbal stems under the infinitive of the base stem, if one exists, no matter how widely divergent their meaning is, and expects the user to look up any inflected verbal form under the infinitive of the base stem. Only if the verb does not occur in the base stem does the CAD list it in the attested derived infinitive, which then begins not necessarily with the first letter of the root, but with a vowel, an n, or an i.

I will now anticipate a question: Do we use the computer? We do not use it for lexicographic work, mainly because it would have entailed keypunching our two million cards, and if we did go to that trouble, the cards would have had to be brought up to date, and thus, although various suggestions have been offered us from the Computation Center at the University of Chicago, we had to decide that within the time limit set for finishing the CAD, there was no way of switching to machines. However, we do have a project involving the computer, which will eventually list all cited texts, with reference to the volume and page where they have been discussed and translated. This "reference index," as we call it, is technically a simple sort job, but there are enough complications for it to have bogged down several times. We now have a test run which is almost ready to be put to use. A special staff will be required to punch and proof-read the references from the entire set of dictionary volumes. When the references from hitherto published volumes have been sorted, the writers of the dictionary themselves will be able to check whether there was in some previous volume an emendation or better translation of the sentence they study. And so, the philological work will be done in part at least by the computer after all.
In many ways the English Language Institute (ELI) of the American University in Cairo (AUC) is just another ELI which offers intensive English (15-25 hours per week) to the prospective graduate and undergraduate students of AUC. A student who is acceptable to the Committee on Admissions, except for his deficiency in English, is admitted to ELI for clearing this deficiency. Under a closely supervised curriculum, and within the fold of a largely English-speaking society, a student may be able to raise his English proficiency to the requisite level (an equated score of 80 by the Michigan Test of English Proficiency) within one, two, three or four semesters. (The University has just established an office of testing and evaluation which is charged with the preparation of suitable proficiency tests for the English language as well as entrance examinations for prospective AUC students.)

All the teachers of ELI are native speakers of English. Every teacher is required to enroll in the M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language offered by ELI, if he does not already hold such a degree. This dual function of ELI, which enables it to meet not only the need of its students but also that of its teachers, is one of the features which renders the Institute unique. This arrangement enables both the teachers and the students to engage in a variety of experiments, thus turning the Institute into a veritable laboratory. In fact, our future plans call for increasing the research and experimentation tempo of the Institute, making it a research center serving the Middle East and Africa.

ELI/AUC is equipped with two recently-installed language laboratories which serve not only the ELI students but also those learning the Arabic language in the Center for Arabic Studies program. In addition, the language laboratories serve more than 300 students of AUC’s adult education program. Under a Director assisted by two full-time electronic technicians and an adequate secretarial staff, the language laboratories are used an average of fifty hours per week.

Another unique feature of the ELI/AUC is its internship program. A grant from the Ford Foundation has made it possible to offer a one-year Teaching Internship award to those who have completed their M.A. in TEFL but wish to have experience in teaching English. These interns are required to teach 15-18 hours per week under supervision. The award enables the intern to live comfortably in Cairo and visit both Egypt and various parts of the Middle East. A portion of the award is available in dollars for use in the US.

For those who do not have an M.A. in TEFL but are willing to acquire one within two years, ELI/AUC awards a Graduate Internship grant. In this program, also under Ford Foundation support, the intern commits himself for two years of work and study during which he teaches English at ELI while taking courses for his M.A. degree in TEFL. The program is so designed that, by taking two to three courses each semester, the intern can complete the requirements for the M.A. within four semesters, plus the intervening summer. The work of all the interns is closely supervised by an experienced Coordinator as well as by the Director of ELI. In the Fall of 1969 we expect to have over thirty interns.

The senior faculty of ELI is composed of the following: Dr. Salah El Araby, Assistant Professor; Dr. Yehia El Ezabi, Assistant Professor; Dr. Ruth Hok, Professor (as of Fall 1969); Dr. Faze Larudee, Professor and Director; Dr. Robert Miller, Associate Professor (as of Fall 1969); Dr. Mohamed I. Youssef, Assistant Professor.

The courses in the M.A. in TEFL program include Required Courses: Structure of English; History of the English Language, Testing and Material Preparation; Psychological Factors in Language Learning; Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language; Phonetics and Phonemics; Advanced English Grammar; and Electives: Resources for Teaching English as a Foreign Language.
Observation and Evaluation of Language Teaching: History of Language Teaching

With these resources at its disposal, ELI/AUC is constantly searching for ways in which it might extend the scope of its professional services. During the past year it has rendered such services to at least three countries in the Middle East. At present it is negotiating for other projects in teacher education, language laboratory consultation, and in conducting surveys to determine the needs of large institutions for teaching English as a foreign language.

In the same spirit of service to the Middle East, ELI/AUC arranged for the first regional conference on the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the Middle East (TESOL-ME). This conference, which was sponsored jointly by the Ford Foundation and AUC, had a threefold purpose: (1) to exchange information among the participants as to the state of English language teaching in their respective countries; (2) to discuss problems and projects in the teaching of English which confronted various countries participating in the conference, and (3) to become familiar with new developments in teacher education and research in language learning.

Coming from ten different countries in the Arabic-speaking Middle East, the participants discussed teaching English for four days (May 5–8, 1969). Before returning to their respective countries, the participants decided to work toward establishing an association to be called “Association for the Teaching of English in the Middle East.” It is hoped that such an association will be organized by 1970 and that the first meeting will be held before June.

Inquiries should be addressed to Professor Faze Larudee, Director, English Language Institute, American University in Cairo—In the U.S.: 866 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017—In the UAR: 113, Sharia Kasr El Aim, Cairo.

U.S. Government Audiovisual Service Facility

The National Audiovisual Center, a recently established audiovisual service facility in Washington, D.C., serves as the principal information, sales, and distribution coordinating point for most U.S. Government audiovisual materials, including motion pictures, filmstrips, slide sets, audio tape, and special video and audiovisual packets.

Since July, NAVC has functioned as a central sales and distribution point for Government-produced language tape materials to accompany the various Foreign Service Institute basic courses, readers, etc., printed and placed on sale by the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Inquiries regarding these FSI foreign language tapes should be directed to Sales Branch, National Audiovisual Center, General Services Administration, Washington, D.C. 20409.

As of September, the following FSI tape materials were available for purchase from NAVC: Amharic, Bulgarian, Cambodian, Chinyanja, Finnish, French, Fula, German, Greek, Hausa, Hebrew, Hungarian, Igbo, Japanese, Kirundi, Kituba, Korean, Lingala, Luganda, Moré, Serbo-Croatian, Spanish, Swahili, Turkish, Twi, Vietnamese, Yoruba

A Colloquium on Hamito-Semitic Comparative Linguistics will be held by the Historical Linguistics section of the Linguistics Association of Great Britain at the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, March 18–20, 1970. The main object of the colloquium is discussion of the internal comparison of the five main language groups which have been proposed as members of a possible Hamito-Semitic language family (the Semitic, Libyan-Berber, Cushitic and Chadic groups, and Ancient Egyptian with Coptic) and the exchange of information relevant to such comparison.

Papers are invited on the internal comparison of one of these groups only; however, there will be opportunity in the opening and closing sessions for discussion of relations among the groups, together with broader issues of Hamito-Semitic linguistics, including possible deductions from reconstructed protolexica regarding the ecology and cultural background of the speakers of the ancestral languages of the groups. There will also be a session on March 20 in which prehistorians will read papers on the prehistoric background in the area in which these languages are likely to have developed. For further information, write Dr Bynon, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, London W.C.1, England.

The Linguistic Reporter December 1969
The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will allocate funds to seventeen universities for the partial support of twenty-one language and area centers during the summer of 1970. The programs, supported under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act, will offer intensive language instruction and related area studies. Each of the host universities will determine the standards for admission, academic credits, and fees for the programs it administers and will select the persons to receive any NDEA graduate and undergraduate fellowships allocated to it by HEW. Inquiries should be addressed to the Director of the appropriate NDEA Language and Area Center of the institutions listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>DATES</th>
<th>LANGUAGES OFFERED</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of California, Berkeley</td>
<td>June 22–September 5</td>
<td>Hindi, Hindi-Urdu, Indonesian, Sanskrit, Tamil, Urdu</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of California, Los Angeles</td>
<td>a June 29–August 21</td>
<td>Afrikaans, Hausa, Igbo, Swahili, Yoruba</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b July 6–September 3</td>
<td>Bulgarian, Czech, Estonian, Hungarian, Old Church Slavonic, Romanian, Russian, Serbo-Croatian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Columbia University</td>
<td>a June 15–August 7</td>
<td>Arabic, Persian, Turkish</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b June 15–August 21</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese, Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornell University</td>
<td>a June 18–August 26</td>
<td>Burmese, Indonesian, Javanese, Thai, Vietnamese</td>
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<td>b June 22–August 28</td>
<td>Quechua</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Hawaii</td>
<td>June 15–September 4</td>
<td>Indonesian, Tagalog, Thai, Vietnamese</td>
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<td>Indiana University</td>
<td>a June 15–August 25</td>
<td>Croatian, Russian, and Yugoslav study tours</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b June 16–August 7</td>
<td>Afrikaans, Arabic, Dyula-Bambara, Hausa, Igbo, Luganda, Mende, Susu, Swahili, Temne, Twi, Yoruba</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Kansas</td>
<td>June 8–August 1</td>
<td>Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Michigan</td>
<td>June 14–August 22</td>
<td>Bengali, Hindi, Persian, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu</td>
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<td>Middlebury College</td>
<td>June 14–August 22</td>
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<td>University of New Mexico</td>
<td>June 15–August 7</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
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<td>Ohio State University</td>
<td>June 23–August 14</td>
<td>Belorussian, Church Slavonic, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian</td>
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<td>University of Rochester</td>
<td>June 15–August 7</td>
<td>Bengali, Hindi-Urdu, Persian, Punjabi, Sanskrit</td>
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<td>Stanford University</td>
<td>June 22–August 28</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese</td>
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<td>Washington University</td>
<td>June 15–August 21</td>
<td>Chinese, Japanese</td>
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<td>University of Washington</td>
<td>June 22–August 21</td>
<td>Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, Turkish</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of Wisconsin</td>
<td>June 22–August 15</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
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Materials on Sociolinguistics Available through ERIC

ERIC is a nationwide information system consisting of nineteen subject-oriented clearinghouses coordinated by Central ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center), Division of Research Training and Dissemination, Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education.

The following 35 titles have been selected from documents on sociolinguistics entered in the ERIC system. Their résumés, consisting of bibliographic information, indexing terms, and an abstract, have appeared in Research in Education, a publication of the Office of Education.

ED 010 690 Broz, James J., Jr. Trends and implications of current research in dialectology. 29p. MF-$0.25, HC-$1.35

ED 010 876 Center for Applied Linguistics. Current social dialect research at American higher institutions. Report 2. 1966. 38p. MF-$0.25, HC-$2.00

ED 026 414 ERIC Clearinghouse for Urban Disadvantaged, Yeshiva University. Language development in disadvantaged children. An annotated bibliography. 1968. 86p. MF-$0.50, HC-$4.40

ED 018 800 Shuy, Roger W. A selective bibliography on social dialects. 1968. 5p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.35.


ED 020 518 Baratz, Joan C. and Edna Povich. Grammatical constructions in the language of the Negro preschool child. 1968. 30p. MF-$0.25, HC-$1.60.

ED 029 767 Berg, Paul Conrad. Language barriers of the culturally different. 1969. 14p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.80.

ED 022 186 Bryden, James D. An acoustic and social dialect analysis of perceptual variations in listener identification and rating of Negro speakers. Final report. 1968. 147p. MF-$0.75, HC-$7.45.

ED 019 265 Garvey, Catherine. A preliminary study of standard English speech patterns in the Baltimore City public schools. 1968. 45p. MF-$0.25, HC-$2.35.

ED 018 783 Golden, Ruth I. Learning standard English by linguistic methods. 10p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.60.

ED 026 627 Houston, Susan H. A sociolinguistic consideration of the Black English of children in northern Florida. 1968. 16p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.90


ED 024 053 ——— A study of non-standard English. 1969. 75p. MF-$0.50, HC-$3.85.

ED 016 948 ——— and Paul Cohen. Some suggestions for teaching standard English to speakers of non-standard dialects. 1967. 34p. MF-$0.25, HC-$1.80.

ED 016 946 ——— Systematic relations of standard and non-standard rules in the grammar of Negro speakers. 1967. 19p. MF-$0.25, HC-$1.05.


ED 010 875 Loflin, Marvin. A note on the deep structure of non-standard English in Washington, D.C. 1966. 9p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.55.

ED 028 416 Long, Richard A. The Uncle Remus dialect: A preliminary linguistic view. 1969. 7p. MF-$0.25, HC-$0.45.

ED 010 052 McDavid, Raven I., Jr. and William M. Austin. Communication barriers to the culturally deprived. 179p. MF-$0.75, HC-$9.05.

ED 027 522 Shuy, Roger W. Sex as a factor in sociolinguistic research. 1969. 15p. MF-$0.25,
An Anthropological Approach to Ghetto Life


The essays in this volume are intended to present a view of some facts of the life of the ordinary men, women, and children of the ghetto, based on fieldwork in a neighborhood of the Washington, D.C. ghetto. The fieldwork approach taken was one of informal participant observation.

Chapter 1, The Setting, is an attempt to visualize the general context of the life of people in the ghetto community and to present some of the characteristics of the people themselves as well as to convey some understanding of how the people of the community themselves see it. Chapter 2, Life Styles, surveys the heterogeneity of the ghetto population and delineates and describes four life style types: mainstreamers, swingers, street families, and street-corner men. Chapter 3, Walking My Walk and Talking My Talk, continues the discussion of life styles with a delineation of how life styles relate to each other, both diachronically and synchronically. Chapter 4, Male and Female, is the first of three chapters on various facets of ghetto sex roles. This chapter gives a general outline of the structural and cultural influences at work. Chapter 5, Street-corner Mythmaking, is a more specialized discussion of the ways in which many ghetto men work together toward establishing a collective definition of manliness. Chapter 6, Growing Up Male, is a critical examination of modes of sex role socialization for boys in matrilineal families. Chapter 7, Things in Common, points to the kinds of common experiences and orientations which contribute to community integration in the ghetto despite its diversity. Chapter 8, Waiting for the Burning to Begin, aims at giving some insight into how ghetto dwellers define their discontent with their relationships to the outside world, how they react to the prospects of turmoil, and how they view the insurrection when it finally comes. Chapter 9, Mainstream and Ghetto in Culture, is a theoretical discussion of what is cultural about typical ghetto modes of action. Its point of departure is the controversy over the idea of a culture of poverty. The appendix, In the Field, provides a view of the conduct of the fieldwork on which the volume is based.

At the time when this fieldwork was carried out—August 1966 to July 1968—the author, a Swedish anthropologist, was a staff member of the Urban Language Study project of the Center for Applied Linguistics.

This report describes an attempt to understand the function of the vocal tract through the correlation of a detailed kinetic analysis of a lateral cineradiograph with the simultaneously recorded speech signal. This is done in a quantitative fashion by making measurements from frame-by-frame tracings of the cineradiograph. Graphs of the behavior of these measurements versus time are then correlated with acoustic information and known aspects of articulation relating to such parameters as voicing, air pressure, and nasality. In making these correlations, the speech signal is viewed as much as possible in terms of its phonetic transcription, as a sequence of phonetic segments specified by combinations of phonetic features, based in part on articulatory criteria.


Volume 1 of the FSI basic course in Modern Written Arabic contains Lessons 1–32, a Review, and an Arabic-English vocabulary. Each lesson is divided into four sections. Basic Sentences, which contain the new vocabulary and grammatical constructions in the lesson, Supplementary Sentences, utilizing the vocabulary and grammatical constructions introduced in the Basic Sentences, Drills, emphasizing commonly recurring grammatical patterns and words and phrases; Notes, designed to explain the new grammatical constructions included in the lesson, Vocabulary, listing each new item in the order in which it occurs in the lesson, with a meaning appropriate to its context. The student is expected to have a prior knowledge of the Arabic writing system and to have acquired a reasonably accurate Arabic pronunciation.

Material in Arabic script is presented without voweled; transcription is given in the vocabularies and to a limited extent in the notes.


This book attempts to develop a theoretical basis for the study of intonation in English by emphasizing the need for intonational phenomena to be integrated within a more general theory of non-segmental phonology. Chapters 1 and 2 discuss certain procedural difficulties and review the history of work on the subject. Chapter 3 outlines various fundamental concepts required for the study of sound, relating these to the linguistically relevant notions of voice quality and prosodic system. Chapter 4 defines and interrelates the prosodic features and provides a theoretical perspective for the detailed study of those pitch contrasts which form the subject matter of intonation (chapter 5). Chapter 6 discusses the relevance of intonation for grammatical analysis, and chapter 7 attempts to isolate the main problems hindering progress in the semantics of intonation. A concluding Bibliography (pages 309–359) gives a comprehensive picture of work done in the field, primarily in the present century and involving modern English.


The model of grammatical description presented in this book conforms in its main lines to the transformational generative model set up by Chomsky, but deviates from it in certain respects. These mainly affect that part of Chomsky's component known as the 'base', which generates the base or 'deep' structures.

In the model of the base proposed here, two main constituents are distinguished for every deep structure representation of a sentence, viz the operators and the nucleus. The nucleus is presented as a predicative construction consisting of a main verb and nominal items in the position of subject, direct, indirect, or prepositional object. The operators delimit the truth value of the predication expressed in the nucleus; they include an existential and a universal quantifier, tense, modalities, negation, and performatives. It is expected that the distinction of a deep structure category of operators will throw some new light on the relationship between logic and linguistics.


Subtitled 'An inquiry into the science, art, and development of language teaching methodology, 500 B.C.-1969', this study has as its main concern not merely an account of teaching ideas, but an explanation of why at various times in the past some ideas were preferred to others. To this end, teaching ideas are related to their social and intellectual context. The primary sources of documentation include discussions of language-teaching principles and practice, the secondary sources, histories of education, scholarship, and human sciences.

The arrangement of the book is not chronological, but thematic. The classification is an adaptation of the schema used by W. F. Mackey in his Language Teaching Analysis (Longmans, 1966). There is no attempt at worldwide coverage, only the countries whose intellectual traditions are derived from Greece are included. The bibliography lists abbreviations referring to serial publications, and primary and secondary sources.


The author defines the philosophy of language as 'the attempt to give philosophically illuminating descriptions of certain general features of language, such as reference, truth, meaning, and necessity...' (p. 4). In this volume, of interest to linguists as well as philosophers, he presents an analysis of what it is to make statements, ask questions, make promises, and give orders, in terms of rules and intentional actions performed according to rules. The results of this analysis are then applied to current problems in philosophy, reference, universals, the naturalistic fallacy, and the analysis of meaning as use. Part One, 'A Theory of Speech Acts', discusses 'Methods and scope', 'Expressions, meaning and speech acts', 'The structure of illocutionary acts', 'Reference as a speech act', and 'Predication'. Part Two, 'Some Applications of the Theory', includes 'Three fallacies in contemporary philosophy', 'Problems of reference', and 'Deriving ought from is'.


This book is designed as an introductory course in stylistics for undergraduate students of English. It presents a general scheme for the discussion of the language of literary texts, and a framework of reference on linguistic matters for anyone interested in the interpretation of poetry. Chapters 1 and 2 deal with the language of poetry and the creative use of language. Chapters 3 and 4 discuss the subject of poetic license and the concept of linguistic 'foregrounding' (briefly, unexpected departures from a 'background' of linguistic or other socially accepted norms). The remaining chapters deal with various kinds of foregrounding. Chapters 5 and 6 with the repetitions of words and sounds. Chapter 7 with the conventional foregrounding of patterns in verse; Chapters 8-10 with special modes of meaning and the part played by literal absurdity. Chapter 11 with the foregrounding of situation; and Chapter 12 with puns and other uses of multiple meaning. Each chapter is followed by passages of poetry for further discussion.
meetings and conferences


December 28–30 American Association of Teacher of French. Detroit, Michigan.

December 28–30 American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese.

Chicago, Illinois.


[Write: F. Gomes de Matos. Centro de Linguística Aplicada, Avenida 9 de julho 3166, São Paulo, S.P., Brazil]


March 18–21. Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 4th.

San Francisco, California.


A summary of the author’s research on the acquisition and development of language, based on the study of sentences children produce and understand from age two to seven years. The introductory chapter discusses possible goals and approaches to the study of child language. Later chapters report the results of experiments utilizing some of the techniques of experimental psychology within the framework of transformational grammar. Most of the research reported is concerned with the normal development of syntactic rules, although the author touches upon the acquisition of phonological and semantic rules and includes the results of some studies comparing normal and deviant language development.


This series was intended to supply the advanced student of spoken Chinese with reading matter which he can actually use in his speech. The three volumes contain short stories, conversations, learned articles, and an autobiographical narrative. The author’s translation of Lewis Carroll’s Through the Looking-Glass, and two short plays. The material is presented in both Chinese characters and the GR transcription, and is accompanied by numerous explanatory notes.

This work was supported by a contract with the U.S. Office of Education.


This book consists of eighty-six structured, patterned drills based upon rules which reflect the competence of native speakers to pronominalize, delete, and otherwise transform English sentences in the context of other English sentences. The drills are intended for use in English courses for foreign students and for speakers of nonstandard dialects. They presuppose an elementary knowledge of standard written English. The drills are presented in a semi-programmed format. Many of the drills are based upon the transformational analysis of English found in R. B. Lees’ The Grammar of English Nominalizations (Bloomington, 1960).


The purpose of this book is to present historical linguistics as it is understood and practiced by linguists committed to the conception of language and grammar implicit in the theory of generative grammar. A ‘Background’ chapter introduces and explains the distinction between competence and performance and discusses the major components of the grammar of any language, following Chomsky and Halle. The remainder of the book presents historical linguistics under a series of headings: primary change, grammar simplification, sound change and analogy, syntax, reconstruction, causality of change, and scribal practice. Each chapter closes with suggestions for supplementary reading.
The Development and Field Testing of a Self-Instructional French Program

by Patricia A. Johansen

(Patricia A. Johansen is Director of the Psycholinguistics Program at the Center for Applied Linguistics. Mrs. Johansen has been active in the development of programmed instructional systems since 1957.)

The Self-Instructional Language Project was initiated in March 1965 by the Center for Applied Linguistics under contract to the Defense Language Institute. The project's mandate was to explore the feasibility of using a totally self-instructional format for the teaching of introductory and intermediate spoken language skills. The vicissitudes of the project's funding status, however, have restructured the original plan for consecutive development of the introductory and intermediate levels of the program. The following project history reflects a decision in the summer of 1967 to reduce staff and proceed through the revision and testing of the introductory level before undertaking the development of an intermediate course.

In order to place the project's efforts in proper historical perspective, it should be noted that at the time this project was undertaken the early hopes for the application of the technology of programmed instruction to language teaching had failed to materialize. Several full-scale self-instructional language programs had been developed and tested, and the results were disappointing. The adoption of both full-scale and special-purpose programs was limited, and those who chose to believe that the art of language teaching could never be successfully organized into a programmed training sequence were receiving considerable reinforcement.

This project, therefore, was viewed by the Center not only as an attempt to determine the feasibility of developing a self-instructional course that would meet certain military language training needs, but also as a more general attempt to demonstrate the potential of total self-instruction for spoken language training.

The years since 1965, however, have witnessed a considerable resurgence of enthusiasm for a programmed approach in language training. The reason for the renewed interest is at least two-fold. First, the programs being prepared today are more sophisticated than those of four or five years ago. (For example, the Center program has, both through its staffing and consultants, represented a multidisciplinary approach to the problem of programmed language training.) Programmed language instruction is now viewed as a separate idiom and not just as another format for presenting conventional teaching techniques. As successful programs evolve, other researchers attempt to solve their particular training problems with programmed materials. Secondly, the emergence of computer-assisted instruction as a significant force on the educational scene has caused the language teaching community to re-
assess its early reluctance to consider the self-instructional environment as a reasonable context for language training.

The task of the Self-Instructional Language Project was to develop a spoken language course which would be appropriate to the military's voluntary academic enrichment program—specifically for administration through local education centers or through the United States Armed Forces Institute (USAFI). The program was to be structured for administration on a schedule of three to ten lessons per week. An additional requirement was that the course have sufficient relevance to conventional secondary and college courses that academic accreditation could be established for successful completion of the program. The course was to serve as a prototype for self-instructional courses in other languages.

HISTORY OF THE PROJECT

Phase 1. The first phase began in March 1965 and extended through February 1966. During this phase, the project's senior staff consisted of Catherine J. Garvey, Project Director; James S. Noblett, French Specialist; and Patricia A. Johansen, Psychologist. Sanford Schane of the University of California at San Diego served as consultant in French linguistics during the first and second phases of the project's work.

The focus of the project's efforts during this first year was the development of a plan for the course. Existing self-instructional materials were critically reviewed. An analysis was made of the kinds of interaction between student and program that would be required to present spoken language training in a self-instructional format. In addition, an outline of the introductory course content was prepared and specifications were developed for a presentation device. It is this teaching system which was to serve as the prototype for other course development efforts. It is also the teaching system, as much as its specific realization in the present French course, which was evaluated in the several experimental tests to be reported here.

Phase 2. The second phase of the project's work began in March 1966 and extended through February 1967. During this phase, the first draft of the introductory level of the course was prepared. It contained 93 lessons with an average of 89 frames per lesson.

The Linguistic Reporter December 1969
project focused its attention on a device then under development by the programming department of Appleton-Century-Crofts (now New Century). A decision was made to proceed with the development of the program for this device, the Portable Laboratory System (PLS), because it offered many of the capabilities deemed essential for the presentation of a program directed toward the development of speaking, listening, and reading skills. The PLS was modified to meet certain project requirements and has served as the equipment component of the teaching system since that time.

In addition to the actual writing of the program, the preparation of the visual text and tapes required for the presentation of the course on the PLS was completed during this phase. The senior project staff by this time had been augmented to include an additional linguist, Frederick S. Smith, who supervised the recording and preparation of tapes.

Through the first two phases of the project's activities it was served by two panels of consultants and advisors. One panel, known as the Working Panel,2 was funded directly by the project and consisted of linguists and psychologists who had been involved in the development of new language teaching techniques (with French as the target language) or who were involved in research on the acquisition of language skills via programmed instruction. The second panel, known as the Defense Language Institute/Center for Applied Linguistics Advisory Panel,3 was independent of the Self-Instructional Language Project but had, as one of its several responsibilities, the evaluation of the approach and progress of the Self-Instructional Language Project.

Phase 3 In March 1967, under contract to the U.S. Office of Education, the project undertook the developmental testing of the introductory course. This third phase extended through September 1967. The developmental testing attempted to assess the effects of several aspects of the teaching system. The first consideration was, of course, the overall effectiveness of the program in communicating its content, skills, and concepts to the student. In addition, the adequacy of the teaching system in maintaining student interest and enthusiasm was evaluated. Finally, an analysis of the day-to-day performance of the students permitted a diagnosis of those aspects of course content which the program failed to transmit to the student and an investigation of the adequacy of certain frame sequences in developing specific skills.

The first draft of the program was intentionally written with a minimum of practice and review. The intent was to expand the course on the basis of actual student performance. The developmental testing data indicated that, although this 'minimum' course was adequate for the best of the five students who took the program, most students would require increased practice if they were to complete the course with ease.

Results from both program-specific and external criterion tests indicated that the students were approaching, and in some instances surpassing, the general goals of the program, i.e., proficiency in speaking and reading at first-year college level, or S-1 R-1 proficiency on the DLI or Foreign Service Institute proficiency scales.4 In addition, the student response to the self-instructional setting was extremely positive. Even the poorest student 'enjoyed' taking the program, and all students found the privacy of the student-program relationship salutary.

Viewed in the light of the impressive efficiency of the program—the average completion time was under 58 hours—these results were taken as promising indicators that a self-instructional spoken language course was not only an acceptable alternative to conventional instruction but also demonstrably more efficient, at least for the short term presentation.

Phase 4 Beginning in September 1967, the project undertook the revision of the introductory course under the sponsorship of the Defense Language Institute. An analysis of the frame-by-frame data from the developmental testing served to guide the revision and expansion of the program in this phase. Observation of the student-machine interaction during the testing also suggested certain modifications of machine functions which were incorporated in the teaching system.

Catherine Garvey and James Noblitt left the program for university positions in August 1967 but continued to serve as consultants. At the same time, Mrs. Johansen became project director. In November 1968, Claudia P. Wilds joined the staff as associate director. Work on the frame-by-frame revision of the program continued through June 1968, at which time the contract was amended to in-
clude production of the revised program materials and field testing of the program in an academic environment.

Phase 5. The actual academic field testing of the program began in January 1969 and was completed in August 1969. Two experimental implementations of the program were undertaken. The major test was conducted at Cornell University under the direction of James Noblitt. The Cornell test represented a controlled, intensive administration in which the programmed course served as the sole source of instruction; a detailed description follows on p. 23. A second, more informal test was conducted at the University of California at Irvine under the direction of Howard Appel.

THE REVISED PROGRAM

The 100 lessons of the revised version of the introductory course are distributed among the various stages of the program as follows: Phonology, twenty-two lessons; Orthography, seven lessons; Grammar, fifty-five lessons; Introduction to Reading, twelve lessons, and Listening Comprehension, four lessons. These 100 lessons represent an increase of seven lessons over the first draft of the program. The actual number of frames in the revised program, however, is 10,324, which represents a 25 per cent increase over the total number of frames in the first draft. The basic outline of the program remains unchanged in the revision although certain program sequences have been revised significantly, and, of course, the program has been expanded to include additional practice and review.

The number of vocabulary items was not increased in the revised course. The total word count for the course is approximately 900 items, of which roughly half may be considered a part of the student’s active repertoire. The remainder has been established for passive recognition. About one-fourth of the total are cognate words. This word count does not include several hundred cognate or near cognate words which were used for additional practice in the phonology or orthography stages, but were never reintroduced for production or recognition in the grammar or reading stages.

Phonology. The phonology is divided into three phases. The twelve lessons of the first phase are devoted primarily to teaching fourteen vowels and three consonant sounds. The student is introduced to the sound system of French through a series of short, fixed expressions (protocols) which were developed to permit the introduction of a single new sound with each new protocol. Each sound is further rehearsed by using cognates containing the target sound. The first four of the seventeen protocols, with their associated sounds and examples of the practice cognates, are shown in Table 1. The initial presentation of each vowel focuses on the problems which English speakers encounter in producing the French sounds. Subsets of vowels ([i] [y] [u]; [e] [ɛ]; [o] [ɔ]; [ɔ] [ɔ]; and [s] [œ] [o] are also juxtaposed as within-French production and discrimination problems.

The first draft of the program postponed the introduction of written French until the formal treatment of orthography. Evidence from the developmental test, however, indicated that the introduction of the orthography after the presentation of the sound system was extremely disruptive to previously established production skills. In an attempt to reduce this disruption, the revised course provides orthography as an occasional secondary stimulus during the phonology stage, when the emphasis on production training is greatest.

The second phase of phonology (six lessons) introduces the students to the characteristics of French syllabification and intonation, using the previously learned protocols and cognates as a point of departure. In order to provide the students with longer utterances over which to rehearse typical intonation patterns and to provide additional material for the later orthography stage, a group of longer protocols is also introduced in this phase.

The final four lessons of the phonology stage are devoted to what the project has come to TABLE 1 Protocols and Cognates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protocols</th>
<th>Cognates</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ça va?</td>
<td>[a] classe, salade, sac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ça va</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A midi?</td>
<td>[i] guide, timide, pipe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oui, ça va.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voilà Madame Toulouse.</td>
<td>[u] soupe, moustache, cousine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Où ça?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ça vous amuse?</td>
<td>[y] flute, public, musique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pas du tout.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Linguistic Reporter December 1969
call phonograms. In this phase the student is introduced to a set of grammatical structures which are signaled by minimal phonemic differences in French. The concept of gender and number as marked by the French determiners le, la, les; un, une, des; and mon, ma, mes; as well as adjective agreement and the subject pronouns il, elle, are touched upon in this phase. The phonogram phase is designed to reinforce the importance of accurate pronunciation of French sounds and to provide the groundwork for the initial grammar lessons which are to follow.

**Orthography.** The seven lessons of the orthography stage use the previously heard material from phonology as the basic content. New cognates are introduced for additional practice. The use of cognates in both the phonology and orthography serves two pedagogical purposes. First, it permits the rapid introduction of practice items without increasing the memory load on the student. Second, and perhaps more important, it permits the program to address itself to potential errors which, though not a problem for all students, are viewed by the students as probable and realistic.

The ordering of the content of the orthography stage moves from the most general rules and the most predictable phoneme-grapheme correspondences to the more complex. It was predicted that the most difficult problem for the student would be the assignment of different sounds to the same graph (e.g. [ə], [ɛ], or [ɛ] to the graph 'e', or [o] or [ɔ] to the graph 'o'). The various spellings of the nasalized vowels and the differential production of these vowel sounds are also a problem. The emphasis on both of these areas has been increased in the revised course.

The patterns of liaison, which were alluded to in the earlier lessons on syllabification, are reintroduced in the orthography stage. The student is not, however, called upon to predict liaison—only to recognize the written form of known utterances which involve liaison. The grammatical correlates of liaison are not introduced until the next stage.

In general, the purpose of the orthography stage is to teach the student to recognize the written forms of utterances which he has previously heard and to reproduce them orally on the basis of a written stimulus. He is called upon to 'read' new material only when the pronunciation of the written stimulus is completely predictable. Throughout the introductory level, the program treats written French as a stimulus; the student is not called upon to produce written French responses.

**Grammar.** The fifty-five lessons of the grammar stage are structured around thirteen topics, or conversations. The subject matter of the topics was determined on the basis of a questionnaire administered to military personnel recently returned from France. Essentially, the questionnaire asked for a description of instances in which knowledge of French was extremely helpful or in which the inability to use French presented difficulties. Those situations which seemed to lend themselves to highly instrumental conversations were selected for use in the introductory level. Topics of a more phatic or social nature were reserved for the intermediate level.

Native French informants were asked to prepare short conversations (eight to twelve lines) on the subjects selected. The informants were instructed to use normal conversational French but in general not to use complex structures when simple ones were equally appropriate. These conversations were reviewed by the staff and submitted for final editing to several of the native French speakers who served on the project's advisory panels. The grammatical structures contained in the topics were catalogued and these became the basic grammatical content of the course.

The rationale for the ordering of the grammar content was a function of many considerations—productivity of a structure, predicted difficulty, structural and contrastive implications, and relevance to anticipated student needs. Any or all of these considerations were occasionally superseded in the final writing of the grammar stage by the requirements of effective programming sequences.

The conversational topics have been used as the point of departure for the presentation of the related grammar points. Typically a topic serves as the focus for three grammar lessons. The sequencing of content within these lessons is roughly as follows.

The first lesson is introduced by an auditory presentation of the topic, followed immediately by a four-step breakdown of the topic in which a picture is paired with each of the four topic segments. The pictures are designed to provide an appropriate context or background for the
topics, e.g., railroad station, street corner, shop, etc. The majority of the content of each topic is new to the students. The presentation of the topic is followed by approximately 30 frames of comprehension verification in which the student is led by juxtaposition of new and old vocabulary and structures, intelligent guessing, and occasionally outright translation to arrive at a general understanding of the topic content. The comprehension verification is followed by a segmentation section which manipulates the structures and vocabulary in order to give the student some feeling for the range of applicability of the new content. For example, new vocabulary is placed in familiar structural contexts, and new syntactic and grammatical structures are manipulated using familiar vocabulary. The purpose of both the comprehension verification and segmentation sections is to make the student comfortable with the content of the new topic without imposing the rigid requirements of either memorization or word-for-word translation.

The balance of the first lesson is usually devoted either to rehearsing some of the new vocabulary, to introducing additional vocabulary relevant to the topic, or to the exposition of a particular grammatical or syntactic structure introduced in the topic.

The second lesson always begins with a re-introduction of the topic. The first part of the lesson is devoted to guided production which requires the student to produce all of the topic orally. In general, each utterance of the topic is rehearsed echoically (with some build-up for longer or phonetically difficult utterances), then produced on the basis of the written French, and finally produced on the basis of an English equivalent. The purpose of the guided production is to ensure that the student can produce all elements of the topic and is totally familiar with the specific meaning of all the utterances. Again, memorization of all or part of the topic is not the objective of this section. All elements of the topics which are to be integrated into the student's active repertoire are explicitly treated.

The last section of the second lesson is devoted to the exposition of one or more of the structures found in the topic. Typically the programming strategy requires that the student already have in his repertoire additional tokens or instances of the structure to be taught. Thus the sample structure from the topic can be further manipulated in known, though previously unanalyzed, material. The introduction of new examples is reserved for the third step in the presentation of the structure.

This pattern of presentation is generally repeated throughout the third lesson until all the structures scheduled for exposition have been introduced. As the situation seems appropriate, new vocabulary, including token items needed for subsequent lessons, is established. The final frames in the sequence of grammar lessons associated with a topic usually require the student to manipulate the newly acquired structures and vocabulary under relatively unstructured stimulus conditions. The student responds to French questions, generates a French utterance appropriate to a particular situation, or provides a French equivalent of an English stimulus.

At three points in the grammar stage the topic sequencing is interrupted to provide for the integration of previously learned structures. These systemic integration lessons attempt to juxtapose related and potentially competing structures which have already been treated as more or less independent elements. The hope is that once the student has gained some confidence in his ability to manipulate a structure independently, he will have less difficulty in learning the higher order contingencies which govern the relationships among certain structures.

Introduction to Reading. The twelve lessons of the reading stage represent, in part, an extension of the grammar. New grammatical structures are presented; however, the focus of the reading stage is on the written stimulus rather than on the auditory. Consequently, the structures reserved for introduction here are those which are marked primarily in their written rather than their spoken form. Many of the new structures introduced in the reading stage are not activated—that is, they are not considered part of the student's spoken repertoire. In addition to the new grammatical content of this stage, the students are called upon to read typical signs, selections from contemporary French prose, and a Prévert poem.

Listening Comprehension. The four lessons of the listening comprehension stage represent a new section in the revised program. Several formats are used. A number of conversations are presented and the student is required to answer questions about the content of the con-
STUDENT-PROGRAM INTERACTION

The primary mediating instrument between the student and the program is, of course, the presentation device. This section will describe the general characteristics of the presentation device used by the project. A detailed description will not be presented, however, since the prospects for the future availability of a teaching machine which has the specific characteristics of the Portable Laboratory System seem extremely remote at this time. The intent here is to provide a description of a set of interactions which the project believes to be essential to the presentation of spoken language training in the self-instructional context. Others may see ways of making these interactions manifest by more imaginative and perhaps less complex means than those described here. Obviously, once the project's presentation requirements were realized in a particular device, further attempts to reach alternative solutions became secondary to the task of developing a viable program.

In addition to the characteristics of the equipment component, two other aspects of student-program interaction must also be considered—the task-structuring role of the visual component of the program and the pedagogical characteristics of the recorded materials.

The program requires the use of four basic modes of operation—presentation, production, visual choice, and auditory choice. These basic behavioral tasks are defined as follows: (a) Presentation. the student attends to auditory or visual material which does not require an immediate overt response; (b) Production: the student responds orally to an instruction or sample; (c) Visual choice. the student, on the basis of a sample or instruction, is required to choose between visual alternatives; (d) Auditory choice. the student, on the basis of a sample or instruction, is required to choose between auditory alternatives.

Combination and expansion of the four basic modes has resulted in a flexible presentation system which uses 31 different modes of operation. Perhaps a description of the possible expansions for two of the basic modes will suffice to define the range of presentation flexibility required by the program.

The basic production mode, for example, can be made manifest in several ways. The stimulus can be visual, auditory, or both. The stimulus can take the form of a model to be
The Linguistic Reporter December 1969

echoed, a sample to be manipulated, or an instruction. The frame can require one or two oral responses from the student. If two responses are required, the auditory feedback for the first response can provide a model for the second, instruct the student to modify his first response in some way, or draw his attention to some specific characteristic of the utterance under consideration. The second oral response may or may not be followed by a second auditory feedback segment, and, if only one response is required, feedback following that response may also be eliminated. In short, the production mode represents eight possible patterns of operation.

The basic auditory choice mode has ten possible manifestations. Again the stimulus may be either visual, auditory, or both. The stimulus may take the form of a sample to be matched, a question to be answered, or an instruction which defines the basis for making the choice. The student may listen to the auditory alternatives several times before he makes a choice or after he makes an incorrect choice. If he makes an incorrect choice, he receives an auditory correction or an error signal. His correct choice may be followed by immediate advancement to the next frame, an auditory confirmation, or a production sequence.

It may be that all of the patterns which have been defined are not essential to the presentation of the program. The differences between a number of patterns are minimal and the student is rarely aware that the teaching system uses 31 different interaction patterns. It should be pointed out, however, that one of the problems of total self-instruction is the maintenance of student interest and participation in the program. A more restricted range of interactions would mean that the numerous repetitions of the same or closely related utterances required to establish fluency would have to be presented in a small set of invariable sequences. With the present set of interactions, on the other hand, one utterance from a protocol of the phonology stage (e.g., *Et vous, madame?*) is rehearsed orally approximately 15 times but never under precisely the same stimulus-response contingencies. It is impossible to predict how severely a less flexible system would affect student performance or program efficiency.

The project has, from the beginning, taken the position that the definition and control of the conditions under which a student's response to the program takes place is as critical to the effectiveness of the teaching system as the content of the program itself. It was this concern, as much as any other requirement, which led to the selection of the presentation device.

Three basic responses are possible with the present equipment: oral, choice, and advance. It is the oral response which is unique.

The sequence for an oral response is as follows. When the program calls for an oral response, a light on a microphone comes on, signaling the student that he is to speak. The program pauses and waits until the microphone senses that the student has provided a spoken response. When the student completes the spoken response, the device interprets the cessation of speech as termination of the response and advances to the next event.

The critical element is the fact that the oral response sequence is a well-defined, integral part of the student's progress through the program. The light signals the initiation of the sequence; the student must speak or the program will pause indefinitely; and the consequence of the student's response is advance to the next event. One may compare this sequence to the typical language laboratory format in which a pause on the tape sets the occasion for the response, and the end of the tape pause, not the end of the student's utterance, brings on the next event. In the first instance, the nature of the sequence is such that the signal for response is completely unambiguous and the contingencies require an overt act (speech) in order to progress. In the second case, the occasion for the response (pause on the tape) is not always differentiated from an internal pause in the recorded material and, more important, a 'non-response' from the student will bring about the same effect as active participation—the program will continue.

Although the contrary student may produce an irrelevant utterance in fulfilling the requirements of the oral response sequence, the evidence from the various tests indicates that students 'cheat' the program very rarely. Typically, when the student cannot formulate the required utterance, he will say *'Je ne sais pas*' or *'Vous ne savez pas'*. In any case, the act of by-passing the required response must be overt.

The choice response format is not as dramatically different from conventional formats as the oral response sequence. There are, nevertheless, certain features which increase the sophistication of this response mode. Most
important of these is the flexibility in the treatment of incorrect choices which is made possible by the non-linear characteristic of the audio component. If a student makes an erroneous choice, he can be provided with an audio correction which may comment on the error or present additional information relevant to the making of the choice. Thus, although the program does not use extra-frame remedial branching or frame repetition, it does treat the error through within-frame commentary. When audio alternatives are involved, the student may, as a part of the response sequence, choose to hear the alternatives several times before making a choice, and may replay them after an incorrect choice. Thus the student is not faced with the prospect of making an irrelevant choice simply because he has missed the contrasting feature in the alternatives on the first play. A more subtle characteristic of the present device is the isomorphic relationship between the visual materials and the choice buttons. Since the arrangement of the visual area and the response buttons permits proximate, one-to-one pairing of visual alternatives and buttons, the student rarely makes a careless error. This feature, though perhaps not a critical one when dealing with normal adults, does reduce the attention and energy the student must devote to the physical act of making the response.

The advance response is used only for the specific situation in which the student is called upon to read material in the visual area or in supplementary documents. In such instances the student indicates by pressing the advance button that he has completed the required reading and is ready to proceed. This is the only circumstance in which the student explicitly controls the advance of the program. In all other cases, the program advances automatically on the basis of the student's spoken or choice response or because the termination of an audio segment has set the occasion for the next frame.

The sophistication of the response sequences described above lies in the fact that no behavior is required of the student that is not related to his learning task and that all responses have an immediate effect on the learning environment. The parsimony of the student-program interaction undoubtedly contributes to the efficiency of the program. The relevance of the required responses is a component of its effectiveness.

In designing the format for the presentation of the visual material on the 2 x 8 cards required by the presentation device, an attempt was made to use the visuals not only for presentation of text and pictures, but also as an intrinsic element in defining and controlling the student's behavior. The specific manifestation of this effort is an artifact of the machine requirements and need not be described in detail. Suffice it to say that nine arrangements for material in the visual area were defined and the specification of the visual mode (arrangement) was a routine part of the development of each frame.

Of more interest, however, is the rationale which led to the development of the visual modes. In brief, the purpose of the visual modes was to establish, immediately upon the presentation of the visual component of a frame, which of the four basic behavioral tasks was required in that frame. Presentation frames were differentiated from production frames; visual choice frames from auditory choice frames. Whether two or three visual alternatives were involved was also signaled. In addition, the arrangement of the visual material indicated to the student when he should anticipate an auditory sample.

In some cases the information carried by the visual modes was redundant to other signals (e.g., lighted buttons) on the student console. In other instances, the visual mode was the only means by which the student could anticipate the requirements of the frame.

No attempt was made to educate the student to the purpose of the visual modes. Nevertheless, observation of the students quickly demonstrated the impact of the visual modes on their behavior. Students moved toward the microphone when a production frame was signaled and sat back in their chairs when an auditory presentation frame was anticipated. Several students, without prompting, have accurately articulated the rationale behind the visual modes.

The most important pedagogical return from this rather subtle attempt to control student behavior is the alerting of the student. He is prepared to perform appropriately and, therefore, is receptive to the frame content (audio or visual) from the moment the frame card is in place.

In planning for the development of an extensive self-instructional program, the magnitude of the task of preparing the materials for
presentation is frequently overlooked and invariably underestimated. Nevertheless, it is a crucial step in the evolution of a viable program and, if treated lightly, can subvert the total developmental effort.

There are a number of considerations which govern production. First, of course, is the attempt to realize the pedagogical intent of a frame in the text and tape. In addition, the accuracy of the visual and audio materials is critical. In the self-instructional environment, the student must rely on the program for all of his information. He will quickly lose confidence in the program if it 'makes mistakes'. (Observation of student behavior indicates that they will tolerate delays because of equipment failure more readily than they will suffer inaccuracies in the program materials.) Since the audio and visual materials are mechanically synchronized in the French program, the problem of quality control is extremely complex. Not only must the content of the visual text and tapes be accurate, but the coding (visual and machine) must also be completely reliable. Finally, the program materials must be subjectively pleasant, though not distracting. The pictures, the recording voices, and the arrangement of text should all contribute to the continuity of the program without themselves attracting attention. The concern must be to move the student through the program without diverting his attention from the specific task at hand. This is undoubtedly part of the art of preparing programs. When effectively handled, it is rarely noticed; when neglected, it is painfully apparent.

The importance of the recordings to the program cannot be overemphasized. The recordings reflect its 'personality'. In other words, the potential success or failure of the course rests, in large part, upon the degree to which the recordings are able to establish and maintain rapport between the student and the program. The preparation of the recordings will be treated in some detail. Unfortunately, most persons concerned with developing second language recordings document their specifications and rationale, but rarely the pedagogical considerations that governed their recording decisions.

In the French program the tape which corresponds to each lesson is made up of a series of discrete frame units. In any frame as many as four parallel audio segments may be recorded. This particular tape design is a component of the special versatility of the teaching device, which permits random access to the audio segments. A negative consequence of the tape design was the corresponding complexity of preparing master recordings for duplication. While it was possible to record directly (and with quite acceptable audio fidelity) on the four-channel audio playback component of the presentation device, this technique made the task of editing extremely burdensome. If any of the audio segments of a particular frame was unacceptable, then either on-the-spot erasure and re-recording were required, or the whole frame had to be recorded anew. This process was not only time-consuming but thoroughly disruptive to the normal discipline of a recording session. Early attempts to record the first draft of the program had demonstrated the inefficiency of such techniques and had made it clear that the goal of consistency and continuity of presentation, which was pedagogically critical, would be compromised if direct recordings were used. In an attempt to find a solution to the problem, a recording device of studio quality was built. It permitted the making of linear master recordings which, when edited, were copied semi-automatically onto the play-back unit in the required format. Unfortunately this two-step procedure resulted in some loss of audio quality. However, the difficulty in controlling the voicing of the program scripts had been reduced. The goal of pedagogically sound recordings was finally realized, but at the cost of a loss of fidelity in the final recorded product.

Early in the planning of the program it was decided to rely principally on male voices for the recordings. One reason for this was that the program was written with the military population in mind. More important, however, was the fact that after listening to tapes of other programs it seemed that the male voices 'wore better' than the female, i.e., could be tolerated for longer periods of exposure. For this reason, the American instructor's voice and the most frequently used French voices are male. The seven French voices heard on the tapes (four male and three female) are all those of native speakers of standard French, none of whom had had prior experience as a professional voice. Four of the voices (three male and one female) play a principal role in the recording insofar as it is their voices which serve as models for the student's oral responses. The most strictly controlled of the record-
ings were the first twelve lessons of the phonology stage. The student's main task in these lessons is acquisition of the 17 target vowels and consonants. To maintain the desired focus on the primary task, such considerations as intonation and stress, which are separately treated later, were approached as neutrally as possible. Voicers were permitted to work out what they thought to be the most appropriate interpretation of any interchange. The only requirement then was that there be consistency in production from that point forward. Variety in interpretation was not permitted, even from another speaker. In eliciting or confirming a response the student always hears the utterance with the same intonation, the same pacing, etc. Early in the program the pacing is deliberate, though by no means slow. It was hoped that this would offer models which the student felt more confident of imitating. In addition, it provided for clearer articulation in the recordings. Even the native Frenchman, it seems, tends toward vowel reduction in such expressions as Ça va', and in rapid speech Vous êtes fatigué? is too often rendered as a rather unpedagogical 'êtes fatigué?.

The student's practice of target sounds in cognates presented particular problems for the recording. Considerations of word stress were not addressed at this point; however, it was important that the student not be led to form any false hypotheses about it. Frenchmen normally dissociate pitch or intonation phenomena from word stress, whereas an English speaker is conditioned to recognize so-called 'pitch accent' as stress. In an attempt to take this into account, words spoken in citation form were divided into two groups—those of two syllables and all others. Words of one syllable and of more than two syllables were produced uniformly with two-note falling intonation. This seemed to convey best the phenomenon of equal stress in French. With two-syllable words, however, the two-note falling contour clearly signals first syllable stress to the English speaking student. Therefore, all two-syllable words were rendered with slight second syllable prominence. If the student then concluded that stress is word-final in French, the truth, it was felt, would be only slightly compromised.

In addition to pronunciation training by means of conversational interchanges and cognate words the student is exposed to extensive practice in discriminating correct and incorrect pronunciations. The voicing of correct and incorrect alternatives was done by an American (coincidentally the voice of the American instructor) since the errors are supposed to represent possible student errors. Associated confirmation segments or oral response models, however, were always given by a native Frenchman. At no point in the program are the French voices used to produce utterances in other than correct French.

By the time the student begins the thirtieth lesson, basic formal instruction in French phonology and orthography has been completed. The introductory conversational topics of each new grammar lesson group are not presented for memorization as are the shorter protocol interchanges of the phonology stage. Also, from this point on the student is frequently required to respond by producing novel utterances. These two shifts in program approach were reflected in changes in the recording techniques. For example, variety in interpretation by different speakers was no longer systematically discouraged. Concern with the controlled pacing of delivery diminished as well. In general, the voicers were urged to make appropriate accommodation to the specific context of any new utterance without being distractingly dramatic. Nonetheless, since the overriding consideration in all the recordings was the interpretation of the content of each frame in terms of its pedagogical intent, such things as deliberate or syllable-by-syllable pacing and control of intonation contours were reinstated whenever appropriate and facilitative to the frame content. Toward the end of the grammar stage and in the remainder of the program, however, it was felt that the recording both could and should model normal French, free of obvious pedagogical constraint.

THE CORNELL FIELD TEST

Although the developmental testing had indicated the potential effectiveness of the program, it did not provide any indication of the viability of the program under normal instructional conditions. The purpose of the academic field test was to demonstrate the feasibility of implementing a totally self-instructional program of this kind in the academic environment. In addition to the logistical problems which the implementation of a program might pose (e.g. scheduling, space, equipment maintenance, etc.), the problem of student and
teacher acceptance had to be considered. Finally, and perhaps most important, the field test offered an opportunity to determine how the program compared with conventional instruction in scope, effectiveness, and efficiency.

The Cornell test was undertaken for the spring semester of 1968/69 academic year. The program was offered for credit as an alternative to Cornell’s intensive introductory French course. Six credit hours are given for the first semester of the intensive course, and it is considered to be roughly equivalent to a year of non-intensive college instruction. The standard course requires seven contact hours per week plus optional language laboratory and homework.

The twelve students who participated in the Cornell test were volunteers. Nine of the students took the course for credit. As it happened, three of the students who took the program were not native speakers of English. One was seen as completely bilingual (English and Chinese); the second, a native speaker of German, encountered some difficulty because of his unfamiliarity with some of the formal aspects of English grammar; the third, a Peruvian, had marked difficulty with English and seemed to experience rather severe problems with some of the expository content of the program.

The course schedule required that students complete two lessons a day. With additional testing time, equipment difficulties, and normal absence rates, the 50 days required to complete the program lessons proved to be a reasonable requirement within the fourteen-week semester. Students were scheduled for one hour each day at a time when their following hour was not committed. Thus if the two daily lessons exceeded the scheduled hour, the students could complete the second lesson. Occasionally students requested and were permitted to repeat lessons. No formal records were kept of lesson repetitions since the number of repetitions was small and not considered critical. The test area was monitored at all times and records of starting and completion times were kept for all students. Table 2 shows the mean time and range of times required to complete the whole program and an average lesson.

The materials from the Reference Book were distributed to the students after they had completed both the lessons and the progress test associated with each section of the program. (The Reference Book materials were withheld from the students so that the progress test results would reflect only the information gained from the program and not that acquired through extra review and study of the Reference Book. Such restrictions would be unnecessarily punitive to the student in the case of a normal administration of the program.)

Students estimated that their study of the Reference Book took from 20 minutes to 7 hours a week, with a mean estimate of 2 hours 40 minutes. Estimated total time for completion of the 14 progress tests is 3 hours 30 minutes.

Table 3 shows the mean score and the range of scores on the internal measures used to evaluate the program: the fourteen progress tests and the three sections of the final test. All these instruments were arbitrarily scaled to yield a maximum score of 100, but there was obvious variation in difficulty from test to test.

### TABLE 2. Completion Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total program</td>
<td>59 hr 15 min</td>
<td>52 hr 50 min–74 hr 53 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average lesson</td>
<td>36 min</td>
<td>32 min–45 min</td>
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### TABLE 3. Internal Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Range</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Progress Test Mean Score</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>59–94.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Speaking Test</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>43–99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Test</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>48–97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Test</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>34–96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final Grade c</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>51–92 c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Each student’s average score on the 14 progress tests.
b Based on a student’s mean score on the progress tests (50%) and his mean score on the final tests (50%).
c Eleven out of the twelve students passed with 61 or above.
TABLE 4. External Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MLAT</td>
<td>136.5</td>
<td>112–166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEEB Listening Test</td>
<td>467.6</td>
<td>400–565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEEB Reading Test</td>
<td>466.0</td>
<td>411–513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEEB Combined Score</td>
<td>466.8</td>
<td>410.5–509 b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Data based on 11 students; the Peruvian's score is omitted.

b Eleven out of the twelve students passed with 425 or above.

After the students completed the program and had taken the speaking, listening, and reading sections of the final test (for most students on the last day of the semester), they were given some supplementary reading material which they were told might be useful in expanding their passive vocabulary and reading experience. All students apparently completed one or two passages of the extra material, but few, if any, completed more than four or five of the supplementary reading passages.

The Carroll-Sapon Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) was administered to all students who took the program. Unfortunately, it was not possible to give the test until very late in the semester. The extremely high correlations between program-specific measures and MLAT scores reported below indicate that perhaps the MLAT scores have in some way been affected by the students' exposure to the program. It is difficult to decide whether the MLAT scores are a predictor of program performance or a result of it. In any event, the MLAT scores range from slightly below average to well above average. (The Peruvian's score, which was extremely low, was not considered valid because his limited competence in English was a handicap on certain parts of the test.)

In addition to the final program-specific tests all students took the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) French Listening Comprehension Test and French Reading Test. (Entering students at Cornell meet the university's language requirement—the equivalent of 12 semester hours—if they receive a CEEB score of 560. To enroll in the second six-hour course, they must either pass the first course or get 425 on the CEEB.) It was felt that if the program students could qualify with a score of 425 on the CEEB, that would be operationally equivalent to successful completion of the standard Cornell six-hour course.

Table 4 shows the mean score and the range of scores for the two external measures used at Cornell.

Typically, programmed instruction in other subject matters tends to reduce individual differences in final proficiency. The results reported here are unusual in this respect. The range of scores on the final proficiency measures represents a typical distribution for a conventional course. It may be that the program as administered (rigid schedules, minimum repetition, and controlled availability of the Reference Book) does not provide sufficient flexibility to allow for individual rates of learning.

Table 5 shows the rank-difference correlations among the various internal and external measures.

TABLE 5. Rank Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>(7)</th>
<th>(8)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Progress Tests</td>
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<td>.77</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.73 b</td>
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<td>(2)</td>
<td>Final Speaking</td>
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<td>.69</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.65 b</td>
<td>-.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>Final Listening</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.41 b</td>
<td>-.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>Final Reading</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.51 b</td>
<td>.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>MLAT a</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>-.58</td>
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<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>CEEB Listening</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>CEEB Reading</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>Final Grade b</td>
<td>-.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>Completion Time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation of the MLAT with any other measure is based on N = 11; the Peruvian's score is omitted.

b The final Cornell grade was based on the weighted average of measures (1)–(4) and therefore has not been correlated with any of them.
As would be expected the scores on the internal measures are highly correlated. Completion time shows a moderate negative correlation with other program measures; in other words, students who do well on the program tend to take less time to complete it. The CEEB listening test does not correlate with any other measures including the CEEB reading. Since the test is not available for perusal, no realistic explanation for this anomaly can be attempted.

An attitude questionnaire was administered to all students at the completion of the course. The most conclusive findings of the questionnaire were reflected in the students' feelings about the program as a whole. Nine of the twelve found the program more pleasant and no more difficult than other introductory language courses they had taken; the same proportion wanted to continue studying French in a course of the same format. The features of the program they enjoyed most were individual pacing (six students); lack of pressure, competition or distraction from other students (six students); and privacy of learning (four students). Only four students listed 'least enjoyable' features: uncomfortable seating and headphones (two students), a lack of outside reading and writing assignments (two students); and a lack of student-student interaction (two students).

All but one student would have liked at least occasional contact with a speaker of French, primarily to provide conversation practice, but also to judge pronunciation and explain points of grammar. The only student who was more critical than enthusiastic was the one who failed.

CONCLUSIONS

Perhaps the most surprising aspect of the Cornell results is the time required to complete the program. In spite of the fact that the number of frames was increased by 25 per cent in the revised program, the average completion time increased only about three per cent, from 57 hours 24 minutes to 59 hours 15 minutes. Some of this net gain may be attributed to the superiority of the Cornell students over the developmental test group, but it is possible that much of the increased efficiency should be attributed to modifications of the machine functions following the developmental test. The purpose of these modifications was to reduce the need to present irrelevant or redundant steps in a frame by increasing the flexibility of the frame design.

Whatever the explanation, the fact remains that all but one of the program students met the external criterion of success in less than two-thirds the time (in contact hours) required for the course for which the program served as an alternative. This is not to say that students who take the conventional course are not in a number of ways better than the program students; nor does it say that the scope of the program should not be expanded. It simply says that in terms of the only available, relevant external criterion the program succeeded in its objectives.

These results must, however, be tempered by the fact that the Cornell students represented a rather high aptitude group. Endorsement of the program as the sole source of instruction for students with lower aptitudes would have to await further trials with an expanded range of aptitude levels.

The feedback from the students and the questionnaire indicates that, where available, the students would probably benefit from a one-hour weekly session with an instructor. An additional administrative modification which might improve the effectiveness of the program with lower aptitude students would be to make a revised form of the Reference Book available to a student before he took the corresponding section of the program. The student would then be alerted to what to expect and would, perhaps, be better prepared to accept the instruction.

There seems to be no question about the overall feasibility of developing effective totally self-instructional materials for spoken language training. The results of the work reported here reinforce the emerging acceptance of programmed instruction as a useful technology in second language learning. The question which must realistically be asked, however, is under what conditions total self-instruction is desirable. It is clear from the project's experience that some aspects of training lend themselves to the self-instructional environment better than others. The introductory level materials adapt rather well to this format. However, the increased requirements for free conversational interchange at the intermediate level would probably strain the capabilities of the present technology. This does not mean that such instruction could not be developed. It means, ra-
ther, that the efficiency which characterizes the introductory materials would have to be sacrificed. If the need for total self-instruction at the intermediate level is compelling, it can undoubtedly be met.

The more profitable direction of effort may be toward a maximizing of instructional effectiveness by capitalizing on the efficiency of well-programmed self-instructional materials where they are most effective, leaving the less structured activities to the face-to-face interaction of the classroom. Such an approach is not meant to suggest that the classroom interaction cannot also be programmed. It can and should be if the overall instructional system is to move toward explicit objectives in an effective and efficient manner.

It would be inappropriate to close without some comment on the future of the introductory French program and the Self-Instructional Language Project. As previously noted, the presentation device used during the development of the program is not presently available. However, the project is cooperating with New Century in the revision of the introductory course for use with a simplified presentation device. A number of secondary schools and colleges have expressed interest in using this version of the program on an experimental basis in the fall of 1970 and the Center will attempt to evaluate the results of these experimental efforts. It is assumed that the use of the program on the simplified device will result in reduced efficiency and perhaps reduced effectiveness. However, it is felt that the program has sufficient intrinsic merit to warrant an attempt to make it generally available, though some loss in the overall sophistication of the system is inevitable with the new device.

Although the projected plans of the Self-Instructional Language Project called for the initiation of developmental work on the intermediate course in 1969, it seems unlikely that funding will be available for such an effort. However, it is hoped that as more information is gained from the use of the introductory course, a more forceful case for the intermediate course can be made. Unfortunately, many efforts toward self-instructional language training have stopped at the introductory level. The new challenge lies with the development of more advanced materials, and the project will continue to seek support for work in this area.

NOTES

1 It must be noted that the PLS has always been seen as a research device. The prototype of the actual production model of the PLS designed for classroom use has since come to be known as the New Century Teaching Machine (NCTM). It is not clear at this time when or if the NCTM will become available commercially. Though a number of researchers have developed materials on the PLS for ultimate presentation on the NCTM, apparently the commercial demand for the NCTM has not yet proved sufficient to justify its production in quantity.

2 Pierre Capretz, James Holland, Lauren Resnick, and Albert Valdman

3 The Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Absolute Language Proficiency Ratings range from '0' (no proficiency) to '5' (native proficiency). The short definition of speaking level '1', for example, is 'Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements'.

4 The problems and questions involved in attempting to construct a grammar ordering based primarily on pedagogical rather than formal linguistic considerations is too broad a topic to be covered here. However, a forthcoming paper by James Noblitt will discuss the formulation of a pedagogical grammar using examples from the French program.

5 The project is indebted to Fernand L. Marty of Hollins College who made available a number of his excellent recent photographs of French signs and other useful written instructions.

6 The supplementary readings were taken from *Basic French: A Programmed Course*, by Theodore H. Mueller and Henri Niedzielski (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968)