ELT-1

English Language Teaching, Volume 1 Issue 1

Milestones in ELT

The British Council was established in 1934 and one of our main aims has always been to promote a wider knowledge of the English language. Over the years we have issued many important publications that have set the agenda for ELT professionals, often in partnership with other organisations and institutions.

As part of our 75th anniversary celebrations, we re-launched a selection of these publications online, and more have now been added in connection with our 80th anniversary. Many of the messages and ideas are just as relevant today as they were when first published. We believe they are also useful historical sources through which colleagues can see how our profession has developed over the years.

English Language Teaching, Volume 1 Issue 1

The first issue of *English Language Teaching,* subtitled A Periodical Devoted to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language, was published in October 1946. Originally issued by the British Council and now published by Oxford University Press, the journal has continuously served as a focal point for the profession. Indeed, its title, abbreviated to 'ELT', began to be adopted as an umbrella term for the whole enterprise of teaching English as a second or foreign language. The term 'ELT' gained even wider currency after *English Language Teaching* was renamed *English Language Teaching Journal (ELTJ)* in 1973, and then simply *ELT Journal* in 1981. The journal's founder and first editor was AS Hornby (1808–1978), and he contributed many articles in the journal's early years, including articles on Linguistic pedagogy and Sentence patterns and substitution in this first issue.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

A Periodical devoted to the Teaching
of English as a Foreign Language

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Notes

The British Council's New Chairman

At a special meeting of the Executive Committee on 5th June, 1946, and on the nomination of the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, General Sir Ronald Adam, Bart., G.C.B., D.S.O., until recently Adjutant-General to the Forces, was appointed Chairman of the Council.

The new Chairman is Colonel-Commandant of the Army Educational Corps and has been closely connected with educational developments in the Army. He played a leading part in guiding these developments, including the Army Bureau of Current Affairs lecture-discussion courses, and the encouragement in more informal ways of cultural interests, notably the provision in Forces Centres and in units, of facilities for the studying and practice of music and the arts. He was elected in April last, President of the British Institute of Adult Education in succession to Lord Sankey.

In a statement to the Press, Sir Ronald Adam said that he regarded the Council's work as of the highest importance and was much looking forward to his new duties.

Foreign Language Studies

Their Place in the National Life

In Great Britain today we are no longer satisfied with a minority culture. Universal secondary education to the age of sixteen, an expansion of opportunities for those over sixteen, fuller scope for adult education, and increased facilities for organized workers' movements, including foreign travel, are features of this country's post-war programme. Foreign language studies will undoubtedly be given a prominent place in these new plans.

'In some countries modern language studies are purely utilitarian. The foreign language is studied for practical purposes, and a knowledge of French, Spanish, Russian or English is a tool as necessary to the student as the stethoscope to the doctor, or the tractor to the mechanized farmer of today. There is, however, a broader purpose in language study, that of helping the learner to develop his faculties and in this way to become a more valuable citizen.

There is a story of an Emperor of China who was unwilling to enter into diplomatic relations with the countries of Europe because his own great Empire, being as he thought already perfect, could gain no advantage through contact with strangers. There have been other countries where nationalism, though not so extreme as in this legendary case, has yet opposed the study of foreign languages except for purely utilitarian motives. National pride in language is legitimate and praiseworthy. But a survey of European history suggests that it was a comparatively late development. During the Middle Ages Latin was the language in which educated men throughout Christendom exchanged their ideas. If one looks at a list of the great figures in the intellectual life of Europe during the vigorous period of the Renaissance, one cannot help being struck by the diversity of their national origins, and at the same time by the ease with which they communicated with one another in the common medium, the Latin tongue. The Renaissance, one of the most active periods in the intellectual history of the world, was a period when the vernaculars did not play a leading part. Francis Bacon clothed in Latin the ideas to which he attached most importance, thinking that by so doing he would give them greater permanence.

A phase of intellectual activity such as the Renaissance has a fructifying effect on the national languages themselves. While, during the Middle Ages, the Catholic Church held sway throughout Europe, the

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Latin language was the medium in which educated men exchanged ideas. Yet, during this same period, such was the fructifying power of this intellectual activity, those national languages gained in every quality and dimension—in range, in vocabulary, in depth and in power of expression.

Readers of this periodical are interested in the English language. They have studied it and are now engaged in teaching it. They do not need to be told that it was in this very period that Britain's greatest writers flourished and that her greatest literary monuments were erected. Milton was the finest Latin scholar of his day, and also an Italian scholar. He wrote what is considered by many to be the greatest epic in the English language. It was Milton's knowledge of other languages that enabled his genius to enrich our English speech and writing in such great measure. It is a translation from a foreign language, the Bible, which has exercized the greatest influence on our common English speech. A vigorous man profits from association with others. A vigorous language will profit equally from association with other languages. While freely admitting the utilitarian value of foreign language studies, let us recognize that there are other and higher values.

The argument is sometimes heard that time spent on the study of a foreign language is time taken away from the study of one's own language and one's national literature. Opposed to this there is a kind of academic snobbery which tends to regard the study of a foreign language and literature as superior to the study of the native language and literature. There have been people in Great Britain, for example, who have been inclined to think that a French or Russian novel must be better than an English novel.

Both the argument and the snob attitude are unsound. There is no reason to believe that a knowledge of foreign literature is likely to diminish the appreciation of one's native literature. The Persian who learns to enjoy the works of Shakespeare does not thereby become unfitted in any way to appreciate the works of his own great poets. The knowledge which he may acquire of the English classics will probably add to the pleasure and enjoyment to be derived from his own literature. One of the most fascinating studies is the comparative study of literature, the effort to see how different men at different times in different countries have dealt in their writings with the problems of their lives—to see what questions they chiefly consider, and with what success they attack these questions.

During the 18th century in Great Britain, Latin was gradually dis-

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placed by English as the language in which learned men wrote their works. Learning was no longer an affair for an audience of European specialists, as it had been when Latin was the medium. Learning was available for all educated people in these islands. British thought was, during the 18th century, acquiring a definite national character. But at this very time British culture in general was more and more indebted to foreign influences. It was the time when men from this country were in the habit of making the Grand Tour, when British travellers mixed in the society of foreign courts and capitals. They brought back to this country not only statues and paintings, but French literary and philosophical ideas, Italian music and poetry, and novelties from every corner of Europe. And at the same time British institutions contributed to important intellectual movements in France. Newton, Locke and Hume were great names on the continent of Europe. There was a constant interchange of ideas, and such an exchange was possible because there was a study of foreign languages. Here is another remarkable fact. For the greater part of the 18th century, Britain was not only violently opposed to French politics, but the British and French armies and navies were in conflict all over the world. Cultural exchanges are a natural and necessary form of international intercourse. They must, in the long run, override ordinary considerations of both domestic and foreign policy. No nation can afford to live an insulated life to-day. If nations try to live on their own stocks of thought and sentiment, it will not be long before they all suffer from stagnation and decay.

Those for whom this periodical is intended, by their acquaintance with the English language, English literature, British ideas, and the British way of life, can help to make an essential contribution to the development, the flowering, of their own civilizations. No nation can reach valid conclusions or can enjoy a full experience without reference to the life of others.

The life of every nation is there for us to read in its history and in its literature. The people of Britain have had rich, widespread and varied experiences. They have much to tell, of triumph and failure, and those who study these experiences may hope to improve on their successes and to avoid their failures. The British Council, originally christened " The British Council for Cultural Relations with Other Countries," was inaugurated in 1936, " for the purpose of promoting a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language abroad and developing closer cultural relations between the United Kingdom and other countries abroad." The basis of its aims is reciprocity. Great Britain has throughout her history contributed, by her language,

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literature, and achievements, to the progress of mankind. She has benefited, throughout her history, by what she has willingly received from the cultures and civilizations of other nations. This exchange, this cultural reciprocity, will, be believe, have more influence on the progress of mankind than evanescent political triumphs.

Linguistic Research

The criticism is sometimes heard that linguistic research is too often concerned with trifles, sometimes with worthless trifles. But life itself is concerned with little things : what is important is to see them largely. Scientific inquiry must occupy itself with a mass of details whose significance is not evident to the uninitiated. The scientists who studied the life-conditions of mosquito larvæ were able to produce methods for the control of malaria ; the students of pure mathematics have made discoveries that are likely to revolutionize the ways of living of the whole human race. Investigators need not be asking continually what value their work will or can have : that value may reveal itself in the most unexpected ways. Research brings its own reward, chiefly in the elation felt by the worker at a discovery which throws light on what was before dark or obscure.

The linguistic investigator, whether he is the phonetician interested in the production of speech sounds, or the grammarian studying syntax, or the statistician compiling his tables of word and semantic frequencies, may appear to be concerning himself with problems of no immediate practical value. But forms and words, the subject of the investigator, although lifeless in themselves, become alive when rightly interpreted. The phonetician may point out that the letter killeth, but the sound giveth life ; the grammarian, investigating and classifying thousands of sentences, sees his reward when his labours appear as the substitution tables that help the teacher and learner in the classroom. Even the word-counter, whose task appears so mechanical, is rewarded when his counts make possible the production of numerous simplified texts, designed to enable the learner to read extensively without constant dictionary-thumbing, and so become really familiar with the essential vocabulary of the new language.

Our new periodical, it is hoped, will provide a forum for those engaged in linguistic research in many parts of the world. It will enable the teacher in the classroom to know what has been done and what is being done to help him in his task, and to exchange with fellow-workers his own experiences and findings.

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Linguistic Pedagogy

*A Series of Articles on the Teaching and Learning
of English as a Foreign Language*

By A. S. Hornby

I. The Doctrines of de Saussure

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) was for many years a professor
at the University of Geneva. By many philologists in many countries
he is considered the founder of modern linguistics. His main doctrine
has had a great influence upon linguistic methodology.

The teachings of de Saussure, so far as linguistic methodology is
concerned, are to be found in the volume *Cours de Linguistique Générale**
compiled after de Saussure's death by his disciples Sèchehaye and Bally.
They have been made known to students of linguistic methodology
through the writings of Dr. H. E. Palmer, first in articles which appeared
in the *Bulletin* of the Institute for Research in English Teaching
(Department of Education, Tokyo) ten or twelve years ago, and in an
article in *Oversea Education* (April, 1942). They are also set forth in
This Language-Learning Business (Palmer and Redman).†

De Saussure's doctrine is formulated in French, and it is by no means
easy to find English equivalents for his terms. It is necessary to explain
and to provide analogies. It should also be borne in mind that de
Saussure treated language in the abstract. The application of the
doctrine to teaching methods is the work of his followers.

The main point of the doctrine may be stated briefly thus :—

Language (de Saussure's *langage*) may be considered from two aspects,
the first being the " code " aspect (de Saussure's *langue*), and the second
the " activity " aspect (de Saussure's *parole*).

Langage is the sum, the " code " and " activity " aspects together (or
langue+parole).

> *Parole* is *langage—langue*.
> *Langue* is *langage—parole*.

The words *langage, langue* and *parole* are used by de Saussure with
special connotations, and any attempt to supply single-word English
equivalents would probably result in ambiguity and confusion. At
various times Dr. Palmer has used for *langue* the terms " language as
code " and " language as an organized system of signs " ; for *parole* he

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has used " language as speech," " language as a mode of social be-
haviour " and " language as an activity." For the sake of brevity the
terms " code " aspect and " activity " aspect will be used henceforth
in this article.

The " code " aspect is the organized information about the language.
It is to be found in the dictionaries and grammar books, in all the rules
that can be formulated about the spelling, pronunciation, intonation,
usages and so on of the language. Here is a quotation on this aspect
from the *Cours de Linguistique Générale*.

> " What is the *langue* ? We do not consider it as being identical
> with *langage* : it is only a portion of it—an essential portion, it is
> true. It is both a social product of the faculty of language and a
> total of the necessary conventions adopted by the social body to
> allow the exercise of this faculty among individuals. Looked at as a
> whole *langage* is multiform and heteroclite, astride of several
> domains, physical, physiological and psychological ; it belongs also
> to the individual domain and to the social domain ; it does not
> allow itself to be classed in any category of human facts, because
> we cannot determine its identity.
>
> *Langue*, on the contrary, is a complete whole and in itself a
> principle of classification. From the moment we give it the first
> place among the facts of language, we introduce a natural order
> into a totality that lends itself to no other classification.
>
> " It is not spoken language that is natural to man, but the faculty
> of constituting a code, i.e. a system of distinct symbols corres-
> ponding to distinct ideas . . ."
>
> " The code is not a function of the individual speaker."

The " activity " aspect of language is a series of acts of expression.
It is not confined to " spoken English," which is why it is misleading
to use " speech " as an equivalent for de Saussure's term *parole*. Here
is a further quotation from the *Cours de Linguistique Générale*.

> " *Parole* is an individual act of will and intelligence, in which we
> must distinguish (1) the combinations by which the individual
> speaker utilizes the language-code in order to express his personal
> thought, and (2) the psycho-physical mechanism that makes it
> possible for him to exteriorize such combinations."

Further light on the terms is supplied in the following quotations*
from Professor Sèchehaye, the chief interpreter in Switzerland of the
de Saussure doctrine.

> " The term *langage* is a vague and convenient term with which

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* In a letter to Dr. Palmer, printed in the *Bulletin* of the Institute for Research in
English Teaching, Tokyo, June, 1934.

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to express a general idea in the absence of all analysis. I use it constantly, but in reality it represents nothing precise or definable."

"*La parole* : every act of 'language,' of communication, even if only a simple cry or gesture."

"*La langue* : the entirety of the conventions in a linguistic community, making it possible to express clear ideas by means of arbitrary symbols in accordance with certain rules."

The " code " aspect of language is the aspect often given most emphasis in the study of dead languages. The " codes " for Latin and Greek are rigid for the obvious reason that Latin and Greek are dead. It was the " code " aspect that, until the reform movement began, was most stressed in the study of modern languages in most British secondary schools. It was easier to test from the examiner's point of view. The average school teacher or college lecturer had spent years in acquiring this kind of knowledge, and naturally passed on to those under him what he felt best qualified to teach. The learner often ended his period of study with an accumulation of facts about the language : he was usually unable to understand it when he heard it, or to speak or write it well himself, though, by a process of patient deciphering he was usually able to read it.

The " activity " aspect of language is that known to the foreign nursery governess. She does not worry her young charges with rules of syntax, with dictionaries, or with the rest of the apparatus of the teacher who uses the " code " approach. Yet the results are usually admirable : her charges achieve remarkable fluency in a comparatively short time.

These then are the chief points of the doctrine. We have the two aspects of language, the " code " aspect and the " activity " aspect. The first may be compared to the railway guide, the cookery book, the golfer's manual, or the engineer's book of formulas and mathematical tables. The second may be compared to the railway system in operation, the cook's practical work at the kitchen table and cooking stove, practice with balls and clubs on the golf course, or the work which the engineering student does in the machine shop. The railway guide, even if as comprehensive as the pre-war Bradshaw, will be useless if the railway workers are on strike. The cookery-book will not feed a hungry man.

The next step for the student of linguistic pedagogy is that of applying the doctrine to the teaching and learning of a foreign language. The new language may be approached solely from the " code " aspect, solely from the " activity " aspect, or from both aspects, either simultaneously or alternately. Complete reliance on the " code " aspect,

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experience shows, rarely brings useful results. Complete reliance on the
" activity " aspect appears to give good results with very young children.
We cannot feel so certain in the case of adult learners. Waiters in
cosmopolitan hotels, stewards on liners, the dragomans in the Near
East, do it is true, learn in this way. But the quality and extent of their
linguistic knowledge are not usually of the kind considered desirable
in academic work. Before we can decide on procedures, we have to
consider numerous factors, of which the most important are :—

1. *The Age of the Learner*

Very young learners are able and willing to submit to the procedures
needed for learning a language from the " activity " aspect, i.e. listening
to and obeying commands to perform actions, answering simple drill-
like questions, going through repetitions, and engaging in the numerous
other activities associated with the Direct-Oral Method. Adult learners
are often unwilling to accept the necessity for such procedures : a too
extensive use of them may arouse resistances. Young learners are often
unable or unwilling to learn from the " code " aspect : they may be
alarmed if presented with too much syntax, by charts of the speech
organs, and the rest of the code apparatus. Adult learners often welcome
all the codified information that is available (to the profit of the makers
of books !), and delude themselves with the belief that they may acquire
the new language by this means.

2. *Conditions of Language Learning*

Is the new language to be studied in class for a few hours weekly,
with little or no opportunity of using it outside ? This is the case with
most secondary school students. Or is the language to be studied in an
environment where it may be heard on all sides, and where there are
constant opportunities of using it ? The large numbers of foreign
students who came to Great Britain before 1939 to study in the Poly-
technics, learnt English, and usually learnt it well, under these
conditions.

3. *The Aims of the Learner*

Are these four-fold, including understanding the language when
spoken, speaking it, and reading and writing it ? Or does the learner
wish only to be able to read it (as in the case of those who wish to study
technical books and periodicals) ? Or does he wish to speak the language
for purposes of social intercourse or travel, and have no particular
desire to read extensively, either in literature or in technical publica-
tions ? Or is he, perhaps, studying the foreign language merely because
it is a compulsory subject in an examination syllabus ?

There are other factors, such as the length of time available, and the

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competence of the teacher. These are so variable that it is not possible to consider them within the limits of a short article.

The majority of language teachers are engaged in classroom work, usually in an area where their pupils have few opportunities of hearing and using the language outside lesson periods. Let us, therefore, consider their problems first.

If the pupils are children, the new language is best presented in its " activity " aspect from the start, and for a considerable period—perhaps three or four years. For at least the first three months it is desirable to teach by methods almost exclusively oral. Reading is introduced gradually, care being taken that pupils have been made familiar in advance with all the words, collocations, and grammar mechanisms that occur in the reading material. New material is presented first from the " activity " aspect. Pupils listen, see, and understand ; they listen, understand, and perform actions ; they listen and make oral responses. They then read. The vocabulary and grammar mechanisms are carefully selected and controlled.

When a sufficient quantity of material has been presented and digested in this way, it may be desirable to offer some " code." This may include grammar, but not of the formal kind : it must be inductive. " Code " is to be used for the consolidation of what has been acquired earlier by " activity " procedures. The rules that are induced will be such as are useful for synthesis. Analysis must take a back place. The rules will be for sentence building, and will be illustrated by sentence patterns and substitution tables. Patterns for intonation will be induced from the oral work with which the class is already familiar ; they will not be produced from a text-book. For subsequent work, extending over three years at least, this same procedure will be used. New material will be presented from the " activity " aspect and consolidated by the use of " code."

The procedures with adult learners will be different. As has already been suggested, adult learners are usually less willing to submit to the disciplines required by the Direct-Oral Method. They are better able to grapple with the intricacies of codified information. It will be desirable, therefore, to present the new language from the " code " aspect at an earlier stage, in larger quantities, and at a faster rate. But adult learners should be made to realise that a mere accumulation of facts about the language, however well marshalled and however thorough the mastery of them may be, will not suffice to enable them to use the language. There must be activity : the learner must hear the language spoken and must speak it himself. Even if his aim is only reading, he should learn to use the new language.

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The Film in British Education

by Oliver Bell

Director of the British Film Institute

Even in the opening years of this century the possibilities of the film in education were recognized by a number of younger British teachers. In 1913, indeed, the London County Council considered the question of using " their Council's school organisation for the purposes of enabling head teachers to take parties of pupils to cinematograph entertainments."

In 1917 the matter was considered again.

In 1920 a group of Northampton teachers, most of whom were geography specialists, had acquired projectors, given lessons in the classroom in which the film played the major role, and published their tentative conclusions.

During the 1920's similar work was going on all over the country and a Report of the Committee on the Cinematograph in Education, published by the Board of Education in 1924, reached the conclusion that a strong *prima facie* case had been established in support of the view that the cinematograph could be of real value as an adjunct to education methods. Progress in equipping schools remained, however, painfully slow. The difficulties involved in the use of standard films and the fact that none were specially devised for the classroom, were enough to damp the enthusiasm of all but the stoutest hearted. In 1929 came the advent of sound, which complicated the problem still more.

Progress was therefore spasmodic and though by 1932 it was possible for the chairman of the Geographical Association to announce that there were 200 projectors in use in the schools of the country, it was not until the British Film Institute was created in 1934 that it was possible to bring continuous pressure to bear upon all sections of the educational world.

During the 1930's progress was relatively rapid. The sub-standard sound and silent projector was perfected. The well-known firm· of Gaumont-British Instructional sank nearly a quarter of a million pounds of capital in the production of sound films specially made for the classroom. The Local Education Authorities upon whom fell the

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onus of buying the material for schools under their control were persuaded that it was no longer a question of whether films should be used, but rather one of how they should be used. By 1939 over 2,000 projectors were in operation.

Early in its career the British Film Institute had established an educational panel whose subject committees produced reports on the use of the film in teaching geography, history, science, physical education and languages. In its Monthly Film Bulletin were included reviews by expert teachers who used films in their ordinary work. In 1939 there was in fact every indication that the country was on the threshold of far-reaching developments both from the point of view of equipping schools and the production of films. The optimists believed that the so-called " vicious circle " was definitely broken. The " vicious circle " was caused by the fact that many schools were unwilling to instal projection apparatus because there was insufficient good material to justify the cost. And on the other hand the commercial film makers were unwilling to lock up their capital until there were sufficient projectors in the schools to give them a reasonable hope of seeing a return on their money within a year or so.

The outbreak of war in 1939 stopped development dead. All the machines which the manufacturers could produce were needed for the services. All the educational production facilities of the country were wanted to turn out training films. Schools were evacuated. Machines could not be adequately serviced. The younger teachers who were accustomed to use the projectors in their teaching methods were called into the services. Yet looking back it is possible to see that not much ground was lost and from the experience of the services new ideas have come to birth, notably in the integration of the various visual media for teaching a particular subject into one " visual unit."

The fact that so little ground was lost, I may say without undue boasting, was due to the efforts of the British Film Institute. Early in 1940, with the help of the Board of Education, it sent four teachers round the country for six months. They were charged to keep interest alive, to train the older teachers in the practical manipulation of apparatus, and to help to solve administrative difficulties. In 1941, with the help of the Carnegie Trustees a teacher was temporarily released from the R.A.F. to continue this work for a further year. In 1943 another teacher was found to carry on the work and in 1945 yet another teacher was added, so that there were two experts ever at hand to keep the importance of the visual method in education constantly before the educational world.

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How well they succeeded is shown by the fact that late in 1944 the Ministry of Education asked the Film Institute to draw up a plan for the development of visual education after the war. The Institute suggested the establishment of an organisation on the lines of the very successful Central Council for School Broadcasting. That is to say, that the Institute recommended that a survey be undertaken on the needs of curriculum in terms of visual education. That the production of this material be financially assisted by the Government through the establishment of a guaranteed market for material produced under the scheme. That distribution be undertaken through a series of regional film libraries.

Though the scheme has not been adopted *in toto* it forms the basis of the Ministry of Education's new schemes. The subject is now considered to be of sufficient importance to justify its being taken over by the two agencies responsible for education in Great Britain, namely, the Ministry of Education on the one hand and the Local Education Authorities on the other. On the former is to devolve the responsibility of seeing that films and other material shall be made, mainly it is understood by private enterprise : on the latter that of seeing that they are adequately distributed. Thus production and distribution are to be separate. The old ideal of British education that the Ministry should not actively intervene with the liberty of the teacher has been vindicated.

Looking forward, it seems that Great Britain will organize her visual education in a typical British manner. There will be compromise between direct State intervention and private enterprise. There will be compromise between the extent to which the state is to be responsible for production of material and the extent to which it is to be produced by private initiative. There will be compromise between the centralization of distribution under the auspices of the State and between its complete decentralization in the Local Authorities. In this way the British hope to have the best of both worlds and to organize the matter on an effective but essentially loose basis.

It is generally believed that the film will come to play an increasingly important role in education. There is scarcely a subject in which it is not possible to use the film effectively. We all know that a great deal remains to be learnt as to its limitations. At what age for example can the film first be used and for what purposes ? Preliminary observations suggest that children can take in a silent film even in the nursery school. Again there is still unsolved the old controversy as to whether the sound film or the silent film is most effective in the classroom. One strong body of British teachers holds most strongly that up to the age of 12

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and even beyond, the silent film is best for classroom use. They uphold this view on the grounds of ease of manipulation of the apparatus and because of the greater flexibility of the silent film in the hands of a good teacher who can adjust his comments to his knowledge of the minds of the group he is teaching.

Another equally large group holds that the sound film is normally to be used even it if means taking the class to a special projection room suitably treated to ensure good sound reproduction.

As to the types of film which can be used there is less argument. There are three main types. First there is the Illustration Film. This should be short and serve to emphasise one point and one point only. Examples are the cyclic films for showing, say, the passage of an electric current round a bell circuit, or the passage of the rays of light through a lens. Another example is a street scene in a foreign country, or the movement of an animal. The teacher uses this film solely to push home one point.

The second type of film is the Lesson Film, a film which forms the core of a lesson. It has to be suitably introduced into the teacher's course and the class prepared to derive as much advantage as possible from looking at it. This is the most common type of film. It is believed that of all types, good, bad and indifferent, there are probably nearly 1,500 such films available. They cover all subjects, science, physical education, the arts, mathematics, economics, history, geography and so forth. They are suitable for use in primary or secondary schools and in higher or adult education .

The third type is the Background Film. This is a film which is not designed to teach a specific subject but to give a general background or introduction to a subject or to formulate an idea for behaviour, discussion· or general education. This film unlike the lesson film whose length is normally restricted to 10–15 minutes, may run as long as 40 minutes, since all that is needed is to produce an impression and not to give exact knowledge of every detail which must be remembered. For the purpose of background film education, much use is made of the documentary type of film, a type of film, incidentally, in which the British have established a world reputation for themselves. These films treat social problems like housing, unemployment, traffic problems, town planning or inter-imperial relationships. Potentially, these have the widest appeal of any type of educational film, and are being increasingly used by progressive teachers.

Another type of film should also be mentioned. That is the film used to teach Film Appreciation. It is recognised that the cinema has great

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attraction for children. Very often they are shown films which are nothing more nor less than arrant rubbish from every point of view. The only proper corrective is to inculcate some proper standards of judgment. This is a subject which the British Film Institute has made very much its own. It has created a special library of films designed to show the history and development of the art of the cinema. It encourages the formation of school film societies. It provides lecturers and special courses on the subject, much as does the Museum of Modern Art in New York. Though comparatively new, the idea of Film Appreciation is gaining favour. Many teachers believe that it is through the cinema and the interest which everything about it evokes in the child mind, that their pupils can be led to interest themselves in the older and major Arts, music, literature, drama and painting or design.

After the six painful years of warfare, it is pleasing to be able to record not a loss of ground but considerable progress in both the technique and theory of the use of films in British education. The next five years should show a great deal more progress. In the film the teacher has been given an instrument of immense potentialities. I am sure he will not neglect them.

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It is one of the noblest tasks of the student of modern languages to diffuse knowledge and love of what is best in other peoples. It is by speech as by literature—or best, by both combined—that one comes to understand the people from whom they emanated. The linguistic investigator and the literary investigator, especially the man who is concerned with the civilized races of his own period, has also the task of combating the ghastly malady of our time, nationalism, which is something remote as the poles from patriotism : the essence of patriotism is love—love of land and people and speech, and it may well be combined with friendship and sympathy for other peoples. But the essential mark of nationalism is antipathy, disdain, finally hatred of all that is strange, just because it is strange. Much of that instinctive antipathy is due to a want of knowledge, and disappears more and more the better one learns to know the foreign language. It is here that literary and linguistic understanding is a help.

OTTO JESPERSEN

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Sentence Patterns and Substitution Tables—1

A sentence pattern is a formula showing the units which make up a sentence. The formula S × Vb. × D.O., for example, means *Subject × Verb × Direct Object*, and is exemplified by such sentences as—

> The dog chased the cat.

> Who stole the money ?

A substitution table is an arrangement in columns of units which may be combined to make sentences. From a table containing five or six columns and the same number of horizontal lines, hundreds of sentences may be made. They will all be grammatically possible, though they may not all make sense.

The sentence pattern is a useful guide to the learner, but unless he has reached the stage at which he is familiar with grammatical terminology, the substitution table is probably more valuable. These tables may be used in many ways. By making from them large numbers of sentences, the learner becomes fluent in speech habits. He may also find them useful in acquiring a knowledge of syntax. Tables may vary from the very simple to the complex.

Here is a simple type :—

Table No. 1

1	2	3
I We You *etc.*	want wish hope mean intend expect *etc.*	to do it to go there to leave early *etc.*

As a pattern, this would be S × Vb. × *to*–infinitive, etc.

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Here is another simple type :—

Table No. 2

1	2	3	4	5
This That It Which	is (not)	a my your his her Tom's the teacher's *etc.*	hat pen book desk *etc.*	(is it?) (isn't it?)

This table, written on the blackboard, copied into the learner's notebook, or provided in the textbook, provides a model for hundreds of similar sentences. It can be used to illustrate the necessity for some kind of determinative word (as in the third column) before a singular common noun.

Table No. 3 illustrates a treatment for material nouns, and may be used to show the use of such expressions as *a piece of* and *a lump of*.

Table No. 3

1	2	3	4
This That It	is	(made of) (a piece of) (a bit of) (a lump of) (a sheet of) *etc.*	glass wood paper stone leather sugar furniture *etc.*

Here are two sentence patterns for the verb *be*.

Pattern 1. S × Vb. (*be*) × Adv. Complement.

Pattern 2. *There* × Vb. (*be*) × S × Adv. Complement.

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The first pattern is illustrated in Table No. 4 below.

Table No. 4

1	2	3
The book That box My hat Your pen *etc.*	is was	on the desk on the floor under the table near the door upstairs
The flowers Your pencils His things Those two boys *etc.*	are were	in the next room in the school over there *etc.*

The second pattern is illustrated in Table No. 5 below.

Table No. 5

1	2	3	4
There is (was) Is (was) there	a	book box pen *etc.*	on the table in the drawer in my pocket *etc.*
There are (were)	some two *etc.*	books boxes pens *etc.*	
There are (were) not Are (were) there	any two *etc.*		

Teachers will find such tables useful in correction work. If, for example, a pupil produces the sentence " This is book," he may be referred to Table No. 2 and his attention drawn to column three. If he produces the sentence "A pen is in my pocket," he may be invited to compare Tables Nos. 4 and 5, and to note in which of them the indefinite article occurs. Where translation into English is required of the learner, it is useful to provide, with each of the sentences to be translated, an indication of the English pattern, and of the corresponding substitution table, into which the English version should fit.

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Substitution tables may also be used to provide material for conversion exercises, which are, in the beginning stages, more useful than translation. Here are two tables which provide opportunities for conversion exercises, to be done either orally or in writing.

Table No. 6

1	2	3	4	5
I am He was They are etc.	not	tall strong clever etc.	enough	to reach it to carry that to do this etc.

Table No. 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The ceiling The box That book etc.	is was	too	high heavy difficult etc.	for	me him her etc.	to reach to carry to understand etc.

Here is an example of conversion. The sentence " I was not tall enough to reach it " is to be converted so that it fits into Table No. 7. The learner, with the table before him, provides the answer : " It was too high for me to reach."

Here are two more sentence patterns of a more complex type.

Pattern 3 : S × Advb. of Frequency × Vb. × I.O. × D.O. (exemplified by " He often offers me advice ").

Pattern 4 : S × Vb. × I.O. × D.O. × Advb. of Frequency of the type " every morning " or " on Sundays," or Advb. of Past or Future Time (exemplified by " He offered me some advice yesterday ").

These are clumsy patterns, and for learners the substitution table is much better.   Table No. 8 illustrates them both.

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Table No. 8

1	2 ·	3	4	5	6
I You She We They People Mr. X. *etc.*	never hardly ever seldom rarely sometimes often generally usually always *etc.*	give(s) tell(s) show(s) offer(s) *etc.*	him them us me *etc.*	one some help advice anything *etc.*	every day (morning, afternoon, *etc.*) on Sundays (Mondays, *etc.*)
		gave told offered showed *etc.*			last week (month, *etc.*) yesterday (yesterday morning, afternoon, *etc.*) two (three, *etc.*) days (weeks, *etc.*) ago
		shall give tell will offer show *etc.*			on Monday (Tuesday, *etc.*) on June 1st (*etc.*)
					next week (month, *etc.*) tomorrow (tomorrow morning, afternoon, *etc.*) in three (four, *etc.*) day's (weeks, *etc.*) time

Here are specimen sentences derived from this table :—

> I never give him any.
>
> She seldom tells us anything.
>
> She offers us help every morning.
>
> They gave her some last week.
>
> I shall offer him one on Tuesday.

The table shows clearly the pre-verbal position of such adverbs of frequency as *often, sometimes, always*. It shows the end-position of such phrases as *every day, on Sundays*, and the adverbials of past and future time.

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The substitution table need not be restricted to sentences containing verbs. Here is a pattern, and a table of examples, for a verbless type of exclamation.

Pattern 5 : Advb. × *with* × Noun or Pronoun.

Table No. 9

1	2	3
Off Away Down Up *etc.*	with	his head ! him ! the traitors ! the loyalists ! your suspicions ! *etc.*

The next table illustrates a means of guidance in the arrangement of adjectives before nouns. Rules are, in such cases, difficult to formulate clearly and simply. Tables do provide useful evidence.

Tabl₂ No. 10

1	2	3	4	5	6
A very A rather Rather a	large small	round	green pink		cabbage face
Quite a A quite	useful	oblong			box
A simply too	frightful		purple	silk	dressing-gown
A most	valuable			gold	watch
What	dreadful		yellow	snakeskin	shoes
An immensely	long		brown	leather	belt
An exceedingly	attractive	triangular	green	Cape Colony	stamp

Until we come to learn a foreign language, or to teach our own language to foreigners, we usually fail to realize the problems that confront the learner. It is frequently the simplest and most common words, structural words in most cases, that are most erratic in behaviour. Consider, for example, those short adverbs which so frequently enter

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into combination with verbs to convey concepts usually expressed in other languages by a single word. English is particularly rich in them.

Table No. 11 below is designed to illustrate their varying positions.

Table No. 11

1	2	3
Turn	the water (it)	on (off)
He took	his hat (it)	off
The boy put	his clothes (them)	on
Send	the man (him)	away
Blow	that balloon (it)	up
Switch	the wireless (it)	on (off)
When can you pay	the money (it)	back ?
He took	off	his coat
We turned	off (on)	the water
She threw	away	{ everything that was left
I can't make	out	what he means
You must pay	back	every penny I lent you
The enemy blew	up	all the bridges

Here we have illustrated the alternative positions of the adverb when the Direct Object is a noun or clause, and the single, final position of the adverb when the Direct Object is a personal pronoun (as shown by the parenthetical entries in the upper half of column 2).

Three aids have been illustrated : (1) the sentence pattern or formula, (2) the substitution table, and (3) the collection of examples, not designed for substitution, but arranged in columns. Each has its value and use.

In future issues notes will be supplied on the most frequently occurring sentence patterns in English. They will be illustrated with tables similar to those used with this introductory article, and suggestions will be made for their use in classroom work.

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Book Reviews

D. H. Stott : *Language Teaching in the New Education*, pp. 100.
University of London Press. 2s. 6d.

Mr. Stott is now Language Master at the Watford Grammar School,
and has had long experience as a language teacher in British schools.
His book deals primarily with language teaching in Great Britain, but
there are several chapters which will interest those who teach English
as a foreign language.

Chapter 4, on the Inductive Method, is an excellent presentation of
the case for avoiding the teaching of formal grammer and for using the
inductive approach. Appendix C gives useful examples of the method
as applied to French and German. Chapter 6, on " Thought and
Language," should be studied by those who declare that language is,
in the final analysis, " the instrument of thought itself."

There are useful chapters on speaking and reading the language, and
a clear analysis of the value of word frequency counts for vocabulary
control. The author reaches sound conclusions on this question.

In Appendix B the author declares himself against the use of phonetic
script, but he is dealing with the teaching of foreign languages to
English-speaking children. Perhaps he would reach a different con-
clusion if he were engaged in teaching English, with its completely un-
phonetic spelling, to students accustomed, in their own language, to
more regularity.

Stanley Rundle : *Language as a Social and Political Factor in Europe.*
Faber and Faber, pp. 207. 12s. 6d.

This is a book for the general reader. The author is a philologist,
but has not written a specialist book. This is a lucid survey of the
European language problem and its effects on the social and intellectual
life of the Continent, and of the main line of approach to a mitigation
of the problem. The book should interest politicians and geographers.

Part I deals with the language problem, differences in cultural and
mental outlook caused by language differences, the nature of language
frontiers, bilingualism, and the role of language in international affairs.

Part II is a statistical survey of the linguistic situation in Europe,
illustrated with six useful sketch-maps.

Part III provides an impartial survey of schemes for international
auxiliary languages, including Esperanto, Basic English, Dutton's
" Speedwords," and Hogben's Interglossa.

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The author reaches no final conclusion. He succeeds in presenting the problem clearly and pointing out the directions in which further experiment may be made.

All Male One-Set Plays. For Schools and Youth Centres. Edited by Alfred Jackson, pp. 157. (Samuel French, Ltd. 5s.).

The title is self-expanatory. The Preface announces that all the plays have all-male casts, one set, and a straightforward plot. They are suitable for boys in age-groups from twelve to eighteen.

In schools where English is taught as a foreign language, play-acting can be of great value. These plays are designed for children in Great Britain, and before they can be used in other areas it may be necessary for the teacher to adapt them by re-writing some of the more colloquial or slangy sections.

There are useful notes on production and diagrams of stage settings.

99 points for Amateur Actors, by Philip Beaufoy Barry. (Samuel French, Ltd. 1s. 6d.).

Here is a book that will be helpful to schools and other institutions where amateur dramatics have a place in extra-curricular activities. There are useful sections on acting, movement, gesture, costumes, wigs, make-up and effects. The index makes it a useful reference book.

A. M. Clark : *Spoken English ; An Idiomatic Grammar for Foreign Students,* pp. xix + 264. (Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh and London, 1946. 12s. 6d).

The author states that this book was written with the help of Miss Duthrie, and Colonel Underka of the Polish Forces. It appears to be the result of experience in teaching English to Polish and other Allied Forces in Great Britain during the war years.

The Introduction states that " this book is meant for those foreign students of English who have already acquired some knowledge of the language, and who can read it fairly well with the aid of a dictionary, but who would like to read it still more easily, to speak and write it more accurately, and to understand it more readily when spoken. It tries to regularise and simplify the study of colloquial English by concentrating the attention of the student on what is central and most important. It gives the grammar of good, modern speech, rather than the formal grammar of the text-books with which the student has probably been familiar."

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These are admirable aims, but unfortunately the book is so written that only the student who has already acquired the ability to read English with ease is likely to be able to make use of it. The grammatical explanations and the illustrative sentences both take for granted an almost unlimited knowledge of the English vocabulary. The work was obviously written during the war and many of the illustrative sentences refer to topicalities now far behind us.

Much of the grammar is of the old-fashioned type, as the sections on genders of nouns and pronouns, and it seems quite unnecessary to print a list (on page 79) of fifty adverbs which are not compared. Surely no foreign student of English attempts to invent *never, neverer, neverest,* or *yesterday, more yesterday, most yesterday.*

Four pages are given to paradigms of the various tenses of *have* (including such rare forms as *I be having,* labelled as the continuous form of the future tense, subjunctive mood). The enquirer who looks for guidance on the much more important question of the difference in usage and meaning between *Have you?* and *Do you have?,* and the relationship of these to the colloquial *Have you got?* will find nothing. Many of the examples illustrating the sections on verb tenses are far-fetched, as *I am to be seeing Thompson this afternoon.* Either *I'm to see* or *I'm seeing* is what would be heard.

The chapters on prepositions and conjunctions are useful for reference purposes, and the final chapter on *Idioms,* though out of place in a Grammar, is full of good examples. Not all of them are idioms, however. *The pull of the moon on the sea causes the tides.* This is a perfectly regular use of the noun *pull.*

There are numerous cheaper and handier books of this kind, and it seems unreasonable to require a student to pay 12s. 6d. for a textbook which, bound less expensively and printed on cheaper paper, might be made available at half the price.

Books You Should Know

1. P. A. D. MacCarthy, *English Pronunciation,* pp. viii + 179, (Heffer, Cambridge, 2nd edition, 1945, 5s.).

2. P. A. D. MacCarthy, *An English Pronouncing Vocabulary,* pp. 113, (Heffer, Cambridge, 1945, 3s. 6d.).

3. N. C. Scott, *English Conversations in Simplified Phonetic Transcription,* pp. 60, (Heffer, Cambridge, 1942, 2s.).

Mr. MacCarthy's book on *English Pronunciation* is a valuable contribution to the small library of books dealing with the pronunciation of English. It gives the essentials of English phonetics from the point of view of the foreign learner. The style is easy and intelligible, and there are numerous word lists for practice and drills.

A valuable feature is to be found in the notes, throughout the book, on the special difficulties of learners of various nationalities, and the advice given to them on the most useful methods for correcting their faults.

A modified form of the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association is used for transcription. It uses the smallest possible number of different letters to represent the English sounds. Only two special letters are used for the vowel sounds, and five more for the representation of the consonant sounds. In place of the length-mark (:), the ' long ' vowels are shown by double letters. This is a return to the practice of Sweet, who in his *Handbook of English Phonetics* (1877), used a broad form of transcription not much different from that used here. Professor Daniel Jones, in his Foreword, gives his approval to this feature of the transcription.

The *English Pronouncing Vocabulary* by the same author uses the same simple phonetic transcription. It contains about 12,000 words and 1000 proper names. The vocabulary has been chosen carefully to include those words which the average foreign speaker of English is likely to need to use. Technical words, and literary words, felt to be inappropriate to the spoken form of the language, were excluded. The book is inexpensive, and handy in size. It will be of great value to students, though the Daniel Jones dictionary, with five times as many entries, remains the standard work of reference.

Scott's *English Conversations* also uses a simple form of phonetic transcription, differing only from that of MacCarthy in the use of the length-mark in place of doubled letters for the ' long ' vowels.

There are thirty-eight short texts, made up of good colloquial English conversation, free from anything bookish. They illustrate current spoken English of the type usually employed for teaching purposes, and may be warmly recommended for classroom use.

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