

IMPROVING THE METHOD OF TEACHING
ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
IN IRANIAN SCHOOLS

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1977

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1979

Thesis
1979 D
R1161
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PREFACE

I wish to express appreciation to the many persons who have contributed directly or indirectly to the completion of this dissertation. I am especially appreciative of Dr. Steve Heller and Dr. William E. Segall, my thesis advisers, for their constant guidance and suggestions throughout this entire study.

Gratitude is also given to Dr. Donald Myers, Head of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Dr. Judith Dobson, and Dr. Bernard Belden for serving as advisory members.

I would like to acknowledge with appreciation Ms. Robin Broyles for the typing of this manuscript and Ms. Nancy Kaul's help in planning the format and in making extensive grammatical corrections and suggestions.

Finally, this study would truly not have been possible without the encouragement of my beloved parents and the total cooperation, patience, understanding, and love of my husband Masoud and our son Ali.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Iranian Education System

About 70 per cent of the Iranian people cannot read or write, but illiterate adults frequently want their children to have opportunities for learning. Public school education is free in Iran, and in addition, the law requires all children between the ages of seven and twelve to attend elementary school. However, because of a shortage of classrooms and teachers, many children, especially in farm areas, do not go to school. No action is taken against them, however, since these children are often needed to work in support of their family.

An Iranian child's five-year primary education begins at the age of six. It is not common to start school at an earlier age, although the Ministry of Education encourages the establishment of kindergartens and nursery schools. Recently, even kindergarten has become free, so some change may occur in the future.

Some variety exists in primary schools, but the government supervises all schools, even at the primary level, by inspecting them and requiring them to teach certain courses. Pupils in grade five take a national examination which is supervised by district authorities; a certificate is awarded to each successful candidate. Figure 1 diagrams structure of the system following this point.

Diagram of New School Organization of Iran

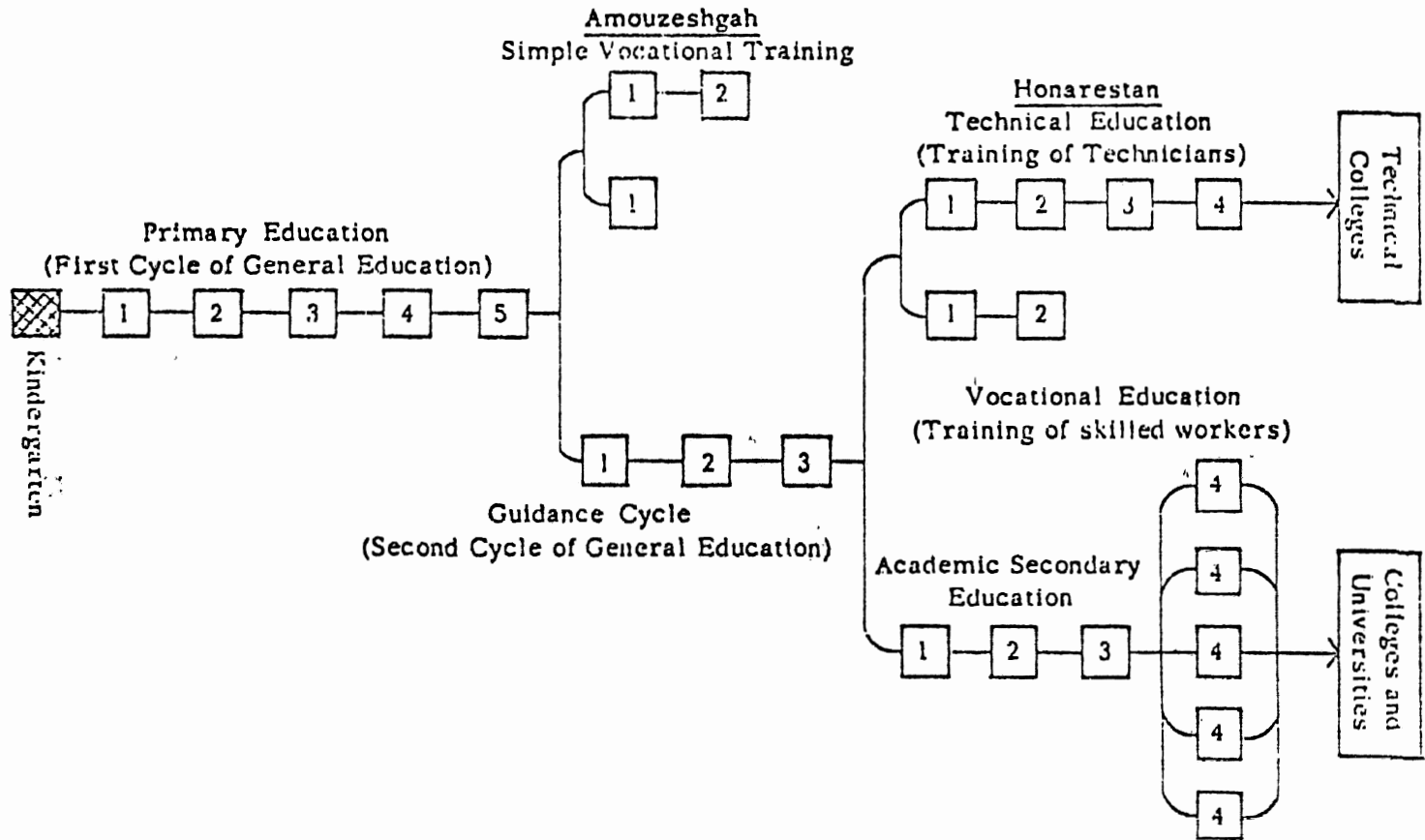


Figure 1. Diagram of New School Organization of Iran

Graduates from primary schools can either continue their education in the "Guidance Cycle" schools at the second level of general education or enter a preliminary vocational course. This Guidance Cycle is the period after elementary school, roughly equivalent to American junior high. According to the new education system in Iran, this period is called the Guidance Cycle because the students are supposed to be controlled by counselors, both in order to be disciplined and to be given help in solving personal problems dealing with family, friends, etc. The Guidance Cycle schools are of three years duration. A final examination is given at the end of the third year. Graduates may continue their education at general secondary or at vocational and technical schools. They are now approximately 14 years old.

Those who enter vocational or technical schools are outnumbered by the students choosing the general education option. The vocational schools are terminal two-year programs, intended to produce skilled workers rather than college-bound students. The technical schools offer four years of coursework, after which students can either enter the job market or continue at a technical college.

General secondary students spend three years studying and then take a nation-wide comprehensive test; they are awarded the equivalent of an American high-school diploma. A large number of these 17 and 18-year-olds now seek jobs, but an equally sizable number choose to enter a newly-established higher education program, to which not all applicants are accepted. These institutions, similar to American junior colleges, each specialize in one of five major areas, such as science or business and economics. Four years of courses are needed in order to graduate from these institutions, and the graduates finally enter universities

if they are accepted. These post-secondary schools are somewhat experimental at this point, having developed within the last four years; whether they will continue to be a part of the Iranian educational system is yet to be seen.

Iran has some public high schools, teacher's colleges and trade schools, most of which are funded by the government and have inexpensive tuition. The teacher training colleges are intended for post-general secondary education students. Most future English teachers study in these schools. Iran also has private schools at all levels, some of which are operated by religious groups and missionaries from the United States. The quality of schools varies considerably. For example, in urban areas children are separated according to their grade level, but in rural schools children of a variety of ages may be grouped together in one large classroom. As a rule the early grades of primary education and village schools are coeducational; others are segregated according to sex.

English instruction is started in the Guidance Cycle. This is a required component of the curricula throughout the next six educational levels, even for those in vocational and technical schools. English classes meet for five days out of the standard six-day school week, but each session lasts only 30 minutes.

The method of teaching English is different in different schools. Most instructors teach the language by merely reading through the textbook and translating English passages into Pharsi and vice versa. This reading-and-translating emphasis may be supplemented by some speaking drills; very simple conversations like "Hello, how are you?"--"I am fine" may be practiced. After six years of learning English, students

still cannot speak it and usually do not have the ability to write a correct paragraph. In other words, they spend all of that time and learn nothing lasting or important.

The method for teaching English in high schools is similar to that used in the Secondary and Guidance Cycles, but students generally have a firmer idea concerning whether they will pursue higher education at this point. Hence, a greater degree of planning can be observed and the students work harder to master their English lessons.

Comments will be made concerning the problems of the Iranian educational system later in this chapter, but first a more thorough description will be given of the reason for the English requirement in Iranian schools and of the manner in which English lessons are conducted.

Why English in Iran?

English is not a firmly established second language used throughout the country, as in Nigeria or the Philippines. It is only taught in school, and most students who are exposed to it there do not retain much proficiency, if any. It is not used on a wide-enough basis to justify its being introduced at the lower educational levels. And since Iran fortunately is not divided by internal language barriers--virtually everyone speaks Pharsi--English is not needed to facilitate intra-national communication. Yet English serves a purpose, enough of a purpose that the government considers it worthwhile to make English study mandatory. Why is such emphasis put on a foreign language?

Darian (1972) mentions some broad reasons why a foreign language or second language may be useful to a country; two of these reasons apply to Iran: (1) Newly emerging countries have a "need to develop

cadres of highly trained personnel, particularly in science, technology, and economics, and to meet the constant demands of information flow" (p. 150). (2) A second language may be useful in international business--"in political and cultural affairs, international business, and in general intercourse with foreign nations" (p. 150). Pharsi, the language native to Iran, is limited to a small geographical region. The only other nation with large numbers of Pharsi-speakers is Afghanistan, and even they use a different dialect. So to make international ties, a second language is vital.

A literary form of Arabic is learned by a relatively large number of Iranians, but this only serves to facilitate regional communication and does not provide access to international scientific and technological writings. French used to be studied much more frequently in government schools than English, but this was ended by World War II, which was followed by the rise of important connections between Iran and English-speaking countries (the United States in particular). As ties formed between these English-speaking international powers and Iranian businesses, English became more useful than French.

It is widely believed that:

English today enjoys a position which makes it best suited of the world's major languages to meet the communication requirements of almost all the countries which must establish wider and more effective contact with the rest of the world (Darian, 1972, p. 151).

Not many languages are used to a great extent for international communication. Darian says:

The United Nations recognizes five: English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Mandarin Chinese. Of these, Chin-

ese, including all dialects, has the greatest number of speakers, about 680 million, but its geographic spread is relatively limited and its writing system extremely difficult even for native speakers. Second with about 260 million native speakers, is English, which accounts for 62 per cent of all scientific writing. Although fifth, seventh, and eleventh respectively in native speakers, Russian, German, and French (and possibly Japanese) are the only other languages with enough scientific writing to meet all the needs of the emerging countries (pp. 151-152).

What is the attitude of Iranian students toward English? As a rule, at least some students feel English proficiency would be a relevant and worthwhile skill, providing long-term "pay-off." A number of students realize it is important to learn English so they can use it in later studies in colleges and universities of Iran. Universities like Pahlavi University or the Oil University of Abadan conduct all their courses in English. In other universities, such as those in Pharsi, Mashad, Esfahan, and Tehran, the textbooks are mainly written in Pharsi, but foreign teachers from Pakistan, India, Great Britain, and the United States are members of the faculty and as a rule teach in English. Also, in these schools professors tend to refer students to English books because there are not enough Pharsi books on some subjects. It is not uncommon for teachers to ask students to translate an article or book in their major area from English as their final project for graduation.

Another group of students, rather small in number, consists of those who mean to go to Western countries such as Canada, Great Britain or the United States for their higher education. They try to learn English as much as possible before finishing school. Sometimes, however, those who study abroad do not plan to do so in advance. Each

year Iran has 300,000 college applicants, but only 30,000 can continue their education in the colleges or universities of our country. Unfortunately, most of them have plans to continue their education in their homeland. They must leave for other countries when they do not have an opportunity in their own, and sometimes this is quite a shock. From the number of graduates from high school who cannot attend Iranian universities, only a small percentage actually go to foreign countries, and out of this group not all will go to English-speaking countries--some end up in Germany or France. So many of those who end up studying abroad were in a sense forced into this situation at the last minute by being rejected from their first-choice Iranian schools, and such students did not think it necessary to prepare for this eventuality years in advance by working hard on their English.

Another group of high school graduates are those who want to join the Iranian army or get a job in institutions where foreigners are working. In both cases it will be necessary to communicate with English-speaking foreigners, and a consequent prerequisite for landing such jobs or doing well in them is a working knowledge of English.

A significant number of Iranian students feel that they have no use at all for English, but they must face the language requirement, just like the rest. Actually, even those who may have a long-term need for mastering this language do not feel motivated to study. The classes tend to be boring and non-rewarding. All in all, teachers cannot count on having an eager group of pupils--far from it.

National English Textbooks

The actual English classes are difficult to describe precisely,

but since the National English Textbook (Graded English, Book Number 1977) serves as the blueprint for many lesson plans, an attempt will be made at characterizing it.

The books are of cheap quality as compared to those used by American students. They are printed on inferior paper and are bound with cardboard. Not much time is needed for them to wear out and fall apart. The only illustrations are tiny black-and-white pictures or sketches, occurring about once every ten pages. Access to the first year textbook was not possible at the time this paper was written, but some pages from the sixth-year book are reproduced in Appendix A.

A recent improvement is that each lesson unit starts with a short dialogue. Unfortunately, this is rarely practiced orally by students. Next there is a reading passage varying in length from a paragraph to a page. A short series of comprehension questions follows this, and then a list of "New Words and Expressions" (printed in single columns, out of context). A "Word Study" unit comes next, consisting of a list of definitions in English, once more given out of context.

The "Comprehension" subunit contains various exercises. First is a series of questions such as "What is the main heading of the text?" "What is the main idea of each paragraph?" Second is a "Speed Reading" section. "Your teacher will give you a few paragraphs to read. See how many words you can read per minute. Be sure to read with understanding." Third is a "Word Recognition" section. This gives a series of sentences which contain underlined vocabulary words in context, followed by a multiple choice list of definitions. For example:

"One-hundred centimeters equals one meter.
'equals' means: a. includes

- b. is the same as
- c. causes"

A "Grammar and Practice" subunit comes next. Three sentence pairs illustrate some type of transformation, e.g., "A. My tooth was fixed yesterday. B. I had my tooth fixed yesterday." A two-sentence explanation is given, and then 8-10 practice sentences are given. Students are supposed to change them according to the example. A grammar review of some sort is usually included next, and then a passage in which a number of blanks have been inserted. Students should fill these in with, say, the correct form of a verb, the correct article adjective, etc. A brief writing exercise concludes the section. This exercise gives a sentence pattern and requests that student follow this pattern in constructing some sentences.

Notably absent are extended oral exercises, oral dialogues, and pattern practice exercises.

The first book contains 20 brief units. Although not as advanced as the book described above, the same basic format is followed. The basic vocabulary list featured in this book will give the reader an impression of the scope of the contents (Appendix B).

Actual Teaching Situation

As mentioned before, most of the teachers follow the National English Textbook very closely. They must always be aware of how limited class time is; example, 30 minutes a day does not allow for much activity. As a result, not much progress is made in the book each day, and many teachers find it easier to divide the week into regularly scheduled activities.

There are five class periods in each week for English; this time is divided into different segments for reading, speaking, and translation (from English to Pharsi and from Pharsi to English), grammar, composition, and dictation. The way in which these are divided may vary according to which level one is dealing with. In the reading time the teacher usually reads the new lesson. Then he translates the new words and reads the lesson again; after that he asks students to come in front of the class and read through the previous lessons. This type of activity will continue until the class time is over. In translation time, the teacher will give an English sentence and ask students to translate into Pharsi; then he will give a Pharsi sentence for translating to English.

In the speaking time, two students will get in front of the class and talk together. They practice very simple sentences. The time for this kind of drill is very short, and since the number of students is too great in each class, some of these students will not even have a chance to talk once in the whole semester, especially if the teacher is not conscientious.

In the grammar time teachers will start teaching the grammar from the national English book, and they follow the lesson plan step by step, practicing the rules. In the dictation time, the teacher will walk through the classroom and read through half a page of the book requesting that the students write the dictation. During the rest of the class period the teacher may grade the papers or write the passage he dictated on the blackboard so that each student can make a comparison and check himself.

In composition class the teacher will initially talk about the

rules of writing and then during the composition periods the teacher will usually mention a topic such as spring, a rainy day, birds, etc. and make an assignment to write around ten to twenty lines for the next week. After a week in composition class, he calls the students to come up and read their compositions and he/she will either correct them while the student is reading or make corrections after the recitation is over. Only a limited number of students would read their compositions in a given class session. Such composition classes are only taught in the last year of high school; composition also makes up part of the final test.

Problems and the Need for Change

There are many different problems that teachers are faced with in teaching English. Some of these problems may have become obvious during the previous description of the Iranian educational situation and some may not have. However, all of these are important and have serious impacts on children's learning. It is impossible to thoroughly deal with all of them in a paper of this scope, but an attempt will be made to at least delineate each problem area clearly. The main difficulties are:

- (1) English is required in Iranian schools.
- (2) There is a lack of well-trained teachers.
- (3) The National English Textbook is inadequate.
- (4) Facilities are poor and the classes are too large.
- (5) The learning pace is too slow and there is a lack of progress.
- (6) The amount of time for each lesson is too short.
- (7) There is a lack of audiovisual equipment.

Problem #1: English is Required

Since English is a required subject in all government schools in Iran, everybody must enroll, even those who dislike the subject or do not see any immediate need for it. Unfortunately, those students who have a long-term need to learn English frequently do not seem motivated to learn either. So the unmotivated and sometimes hostile students in the English classroom form the majority.

Any teacher who has faced a similar situation will understand how problematic such students can be. They dislike English so they make no attempt to work hard at their studying or doing their homework assignment. These English classrooms are the most noisy classes in the schools, and to discipline these disruptive students in English classrooms is really a very hard and sometimes nearly impossible task. The bad atmosphere in the English classroom is detrimental to and even terminates the interest and motivation of those few students who initially like the course. After a while they will join the rest of the students and the situation increasingly worsens throughout the year. Teachers rarely achieve control, perhaps because they do not have the ability and knowledge to keep the students' attention or motivate them to learn. Their only instrument is the dull textbook.

Requiring English means no one can evade these classes but does not instill a common degree of motivation or a common expectation of usefulness. The worst aspect is that the bad class atmosphere turns off the interest of the more attentive students.

Problem #2: Lack of Well-Trained Teachers

Those who become teachers get paid one of the lowest salaries com-

pared with other jobs. They work hard and have great responsibilities, but they do not earn enough money to make a living without depending on some other resources. They usually must seek additional part-time jobs after school hours--jobs ranging from driving cabs to working in stores or tutoring. So they labor more than many others but receive less.

Various other problems make the teacher's job unenviable. They do not have any choice of textbooks, since government materials are assigned, and most teachers really dislike these books. No obvious solution seems to exist for this. The lack of free speech is another problem, for when students ask and deserve information, the teachers are not allowed to respond as they would like. The job of teacher can be very discouraging.

What is the result? The teacher's job in Iran is the last occupation many people would consider. Very few talented people show any interest in teaching, especially in public schools. A small number of people really desire to teach and have chosen this profession because of true dedication. These are mostly women who are not actually responsible for providing income for a family and hence do not face the severe economic constraints a breadwinner would have. For most of the rest, teaching was the one and only remaining chance of getting a job, and they are as lacking in motivation as their students. For these discouraged people Iran has inadequate teacher training centers to attempt to develop their skills in teaching. Some teacher-training centers do exist for all subjects, but they are too inadequately staffed and possess too little equipment for training future teachers. The English centers are worse than the others because in the other subjects the teachers just need mastery of their mother tongues and they can somehow manage their

jobs. However, the English faculty in the teacher-training centers do not have enough knowledge of English themselves; their knowledge of English is sometimes limited to the textbook which they are supposed to use in their classrooms. Even in these training centers audiovisual equipment is virtually non-existent and one cannot even find a simple language laboratory. Moreover, they are not skilled in helping future teachers select good methods for classroom instruction. Even after two years in these teacher training centers, the teachers have still not acquired enough language proficiency and skills to do the teaching job.

The teachers as a rule just go to their classes and do their jobs automatically, every day opening their textbooks at the beginning of the class session and reading it to the students. That is the only source they have. They give assignments for the next day from the same book--assignments which mostly consist of copying text from the book. Students do this because they are required to, but it is really boring for them.

English teachers in Iran generally fit into the following groups:

(1) Some teachers, including a large number of the older faculty, use a "reading-translation" method. They teach English in the same manner as a "dead" language is taught, without any emphasis on the oral aspect of the language. This is due to the fact that they themselves are unable to speak English. They have not had training in speaking, which makes them handicapped even if their vocabulary is fairly good on a recognition level and they understand the grammar principles. On the whole, these are the least qualified teachers.

(2) Since younger and newly-trained English teachers may have had more exposure to the concept of language as a spoken rather than written

mode of communication, they may have the intention of using an "oral" approach in their classes. But their stumbling block is the fact that they themselves have a limited command of spoken English. They generally speak better than teachers in the first category, but this is not enough to enable them to conduct classes with an oral emphasis for more than a month. When their teaching material becomes too difficult for them, they have to fall back on the "reading-translation-grammar" method.

(3) Some teachers have a fairly good command of spoken English. This category includes those individuals who have studied abroad in English-speaking countries and have been exposed to a large number of native speakers. They may still have accents and may have some difficulty with idioms, but they are able to interact with native speakers on an advanced level. These teachers are able to conduct their classes according to the oral method until the level becomes too advanced for them. They are competent teachers on the whole.

(4) Some native English-speakers have decided to teach in Iranian schools. They may be amateurs, with little or no teaching training, but their command of the language gives them adequate qualification. Some of these are wives of American businessmen or teachers. They do not usually follow any standard methodology, and their quality ranges from excellent to poor.

Problem #3: Inadequate National

English Textbooks

Each level has one textbook. A brief description was given earlier in this chapter of a textbook's general composition. The book's layout is unappealing and the content is dense and dull, failing to attract

the attention and interest of the students who must use it. These textbooks are boring, lacking in information, and extremely lacking in drills and stories. A lack of pictures is noticeable. Few attractive black and white pictures have been inserted which would brighten up the pages and make them more appealing to students. Such books make the problem of poor motivation even worse. It is worth noting that Iranian textbooks in other subject areas generally are of better quality and have colored pictures. Moreover, these are in the native language and it is not so vital that they draw attention to themselves as the English textbooks.

The lesson lengths are short, and at present no teacher's manuals are available. Some authorities have published a guide for each textbook with the translation and pronunciation of the words in Persian! This just makes the situation worse.

A lack of ditto machines and stencil machines in the schools means that the motivated teacher finds it difficult to make his own hand-out materials. The system is quite rigid.

Problem #4: Poor Facilities and Large Classes

Government schools have large classes with at least 40 to 55 students in each class. The rooms are not big enough for such a population, and chairs are crowded close together. Seating is hard and uncomfortable, and pupils have to sit so close together that often it is impossible to move without hurting or making trouble for the others who sit next to them. Walls are completely empty; no pictures, charts, or other such things are hung from the walls. Each room has a black-

board--the sole piece of visual equipment.

Usually the schoolrooms are quite hot and stuffy in late spring and fall and cold in winter. Natural lighting is scarce and electrical lighting is poor. As one might guess, these problems of environment serve to augment the discomfort of bored students, increase the unrest, and make it difficult to pay attention. Moreover, due to the large number in each class, individual attention is at a minimum. On any given day only a few have a chance to be called on by the teacher or to participate in the lesson. An American student would judge the situation to be archaic.

Problem #5: Slow Pace and Lack of

Progress

The author Betty Frey (1970) emphasizes that the "Teaching English as a Second Language" (TESL) teacher should work with his students so that they:

see real progress each day in all areas, drawing upon and increasing . . . ability to: (1) aurally understand; (2) orally respond in an acceptable manner and with confidence; (3) write the new language; and (4) read with understanding and pleasure (p. 9).

But the context for this comment is the classroom where a non-English-speaking student must deal with an English-speaking environment. In such a situation intrinsic reinforcement for improvement is rapid and frequent, and lack of progress is punished with a lack of ability to function well in day-to-day life.

The Iranian situation definitely contrasts with this. First, the English-teaching program is only one of many classes and is not conducted

intensively. Repetition throughout the day will not occur and communication at home will be in the native language. Thus progress comes step by step, and only a naive person would expect rapid and easily observable improvements in communication and comprehension abilities. These students on the whole are not going to see the "real progress each day in all areas" that serves to increase incentive. Second, English is not immediately necessary; day-to-day functioning requires only Pharsi and intrinsic rewards for English facility are not going to be forthcoming.

Problem #6: Lack of Audiovisual

Equipment

The lack of audiovisual equipment is very obvious in Iranian Schools. In many schools the only such equipment is the blackboard and chalk. Some tape recorders may be found, but in an unpleasant ratio of approximately two tape recorders for 20 classes. Advanced audiovisual equipment such as projectors, screens, or machines for producing visuals are simply not available, even in the best urban schools. Language laboratories have not been established and are not likely in the near future.

Compounding the problem is the fact that teachers are not trained to make the best of a bad situation. They do not even know how to use simple audiovisuals or to make charts and good blackboard diagrams. Such elementary skills as bringing pictures to class and using them effectively have not been part of their training or tradition. Thus the teachers pass up one of the few opportunities they have for enlivening the classes or giving the students something to discuss.

Now that these problems of teaching English in Iran have been sketched, it should be clearly pointed out that these difficulties cannot be solved overnight. More knowledgeable people are needed in curriculum planning, books and supplies must improve, and the system as a whole must be renovated in order to make real advances. But time and money, especially the latter, are great obstacles. What one can do is to study modern TESL theories and advances and, after understanding the positive and negative aspects of each, select the best and most applicable alterations which we could make to bring improvements. This goal will be attempted in the review of literature.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Introduction

The problems of teaching English in Iran have now been sketched. Clearly, the schools are on the whole doing a miserable job of serving the students' needs. At this point we might look with fresh eyes at the foundations of this situation, in order to clarify what is really wanted in Iranian English-language education. What is the goal of the English teacher? What skills should be cultivated in the students?

A concise statement of such a goal was issued by the Working Committee III of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages:

The student should understand the foreign language as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar to his own experience. . . . He should speak the foreign language in everyday situations with reasonable fluency and correctness, and with pronunciation acceptable to the native speaker of the language. . . . He should read the foreign language easily and without conscious translation. . . . He should be able to communicate in writing anything he can say. . . . Mastery of the skills must be accompanied by familiarity with the culture the language represents, as well as a larger view of life resulting from the realization that there are many cultures and value systems, some far different from our own, operative in the world today. The literary objective is not ignored, but it is considered to be implicit in the others (Rivers, 1970, p. 34).

Admittedly, this statement describes an ideal. However, the Iranian educator should strive to approach this ideal as closely as possible. Extensive changes will be required, and far-reaching plans must be developed. However, the results will surely be worth the effort.

Before constructing a plan for improving the present system, familiarity with the theoretical background of language instruction is advisable. Much change has occurred in the fields of linguistics and language education during the last century, and a complete description is beyond the scope of this paper. The following review of literature will emphasize the development of opposition to the grammar-translation school of language teaching, the contributions of modern linguistics to current methodology, and the rationale for using audiovisual aids in the English-teaching classroom.

This survey will help begin with a description of methods of teaching English. J. O. Gauntlett (1957, pp. 17-31) discussed nine methods which have the following features.

Grammar-Translation Method

This is the method traditionally used for teaching "dead" languages, such as ancient Greek or Latin. A language is treated as though old documents were the sole subject matter which needed to be dealt with, analyzed, and deciphered, and the literary traditions were the only aspects of language which were valuable--in brief, as though the spoken language was quite secondary. With this static, classical approach, such aspects of language as phonetics, pronunciation and acoustic image are disregarded and the language is placed on "a foundation of alphabets" spellings, and writing systems (p. 17). The primary, if not

sole, means of increasing vocabulary is thought to be translating passages of writing. An important assumption is that committing "rules of grammar" to memory is the way to master the word and sentence structure. When a modern language such as English is approached in this fashion, students will mechanically transpose their native language, producing a stilted literary type of language, not English as a living tongue, rich in idiomatic expression. According to Chastain (1971):

Grammar translation teaching has satisfied . . . the traditional humanistic orientation which placed primary emphasis on the belles-lettres of the country, but it did not prove to be entirely suitable to the world which emerged from the after-math of World War II (p. 59).

Natural Method

The first attempt to break away from the grammar-translation method resulted in the "natural" method, a relatively short-lived approach which is currently quite uncommon. The problem with the natural school was that it attempted to base its methodology on the way a child first learns his native tongue. An inadequate distinction was drawn between such languages learning and that faced by an individual who is taking a foreign or second language. The individual in the latter position has already developed--physically, emotionally, and mentally--to a greater degree than when he first began speaking. Especially significant is the fact that he has acquired a "language consciousness" and speech habits that will affect his approach to acquiring the foreign tongue. A common phenomenon is a tendency to substitute features from one's first language into the second language, despite the fact that the two are not equivalent. The natural method was quite popular when lin-

guistic psychology was just beginning, yet was hindered by its failure to deal well with these critical issues.

The Psychological Method

This approach to language learning, termed the "direct method" by Darian (1972) is based on association of ideas and forming habits of "mental visualization." In other words, words and sentences would be associated with meanings by means of demonstrations, pictures, dramatization, etc. Learning occurred through direct contact with the new language in situations that were meaningful. Lessons were frequently based on a series of actions--a consecutive number of activities or means to the ends. Gauntlett (1957) does not explain it very clearly. He does give an example of a series exercise, as follows:

I stand up.
I walk (go) to the door.
I approach the door.
I take hold of the handle.
I open the door.
etc. (p. 20).

Other representative types of exercises were imperative drills, conventional conversation, free oral assimilation, and action chains. This method is most appropriate for beginning stages. It was hindered by a failure of many textbooks to use this method consistently.

Reform or Phonetic Method

The Phoneticians believed the first thing to master is the sound system. Gauntlett (1957, p. 21) feels that "some of them may have gone too far in their enthusiasm," but that introducing some phonetics into the classroom may be important. The validity of introducing reform.

in this area has become clear, although some teachers are still reluctant to make full use of phonetic science. Guantlett comments, "phonetics in the classroom today has become exceedingly practical" (p. 21).

Direct Method

A number of approach would fit into this category, which is distinguished by the belief that students' native language should not be used in classroom instruction. In other words, all instruction is done in the language being taught. Currently, some use of the mother tongue in explaining lessons to the pupils is not considered objectionable. In fact, "there are few that would advocate it, in its purity" (Gauntlett, 1957, p. 23). Students taught in the direct method may be much more familiar with idiomatic English, but may tend to have difficulty in some areas of grammar. All in all, it is difficult to make a final judgement as to whether the "pure" direct method is useful and worthwhile or not. Guantlett points to Harold E. Palmer (1921) and Charles C. Fries (1945) as at one time being notable direct method advocates. Palmer's general order of priorities is:

- (1) become proficient in the sounds and tones of speech,
- (2) memorize large numbers of chosen sentences, (3) learn to build up all types of chosen sentences, and (4) learn to convert dictionary words into working sentence units (pp. 159-160).

Fries through the initial step of language acquisition was mastering the sound system, not acquiring vocabulary; it is essential to comprehend a stream of speech, to distinguish the sound features and copy them as nearly as possible. Only then can one go on to structural features of language such as morphology and syntax.

Oral Method or Approach

The oral approach to teaching differs from the direct method in that it exclusively deals with the oral aspect of language training; hence it makes up only that part of the direct method. This approach requires very careful planning. The stimulus which helped this approach develop was the psychological finding that early exposure to the written word is prone to make pronunciation in the early stages of language development confused rather than clear. The student rehearses a tentative version of a written word's spoken form before ever hearing the correct pronunciation; the interference from the native language makes mispronunciation likely. Many U.S. Army specialized language classes used an oral approach. Gauntlett is enthusiastic about this methodology, but cautions that definite plans must be made and conscientiously followed.

Reading Method

Gauntlett does not describe a reading "methodology," but points out that reading is accepted as a goal by some teachers. He then comments that when one focuses on reading as a goal of language learning, one should consider how useful oral reading may be as a preparatory step. Although reading aloud may be given too much attention and may tend to become "an end in itself," as if better activities were not available, reading can nevertheless facilitate teaching a foreign language. Reading aloud allows students to transfer and associate knowledge from oral skills.

To start students inner-articulating, that is, to pronounce mentally and inaudibly, when coming in touch with

reading materials without an intervening step in the nature of oral reading, has many dangers . . . (they) might easily phrase wrongly or start to neglect word-linking (p. 29).

This becomes more likely because students are accustomed to the written style of their mother language.

Eclectic or Compromise Method

The eclectic is a compromise method in that it tries to utilize the best in a blend of methods or techniques. To some extent it seems to have derived from the "direct method" group, with changes being made in the weak aspects of the "direct" methodology. The eclectic method differs from the undiluted direct approach because it lets the student's mother tongue be used to some extent and it includes teaching of grammar. This compromise has been supported by many people who were dissatisfied with both direct and grammar-translation approaches.

A noteworthy aspect of the above theories is that several of them stress the spoken language. Although disagreement concerning the exact methodology for language instruction persists, the teacher who continues to center his lessons around reading and writing should certainly not be considered up-to-date.

Influences from Applied Linguistics

Linguistic science was first applied to language teaching in a major way when World War II created a need for quickly developing grammars of languages which had previously rarely, if ever, been taught in America. At approximately the same time a large number of foreigners--students as well as military personnel--came to the United States and

created a need for improving the teaching of English as a foreign language. Thus, the linguistic approach to instruction was introduced in U.S. colleges and secondary schools.

Linguistics is a tool that can help a teacher operate more effectively, but this pure science is not necessarily a means for deciding which teaching procedures are best. Linguistic knowledge may make some methods seem more reasonable, but the methods that actually prove themselves in practice are the best (Politzer and Politzer, 1972, p. 19).

Some of the ways linguistics has influenced language programs are discussed by Politzer and Politzer (1972, pp. 3-24) as follows.

Linguistics has provided evidence against the grammar-translation approach to teaching a foreign language. For one thing, the accuracy of the semantic definitions underlying this approach have been called into question. A grammatical analysis of one language was felt to be necessary for translation into another. In other words, a sentence is analyzed and broken down into a grammatical framework. Using this, the student could reconstruct the English sentence into another language, "provided he could identify the same grammatical frame" (Politzer and Politzer, 1972, p. 19). The difficulty is that some of the grammatical categories will not fit into all languages; one cannot assume that a universal structure of language always exists. Even though some universal categories may be found, an emphasis on these "may obscure the real difficulties of the learner--namely, the specific way in which these universals are expressed in specific languages" (Politzer and Politzer, 1972, p. 20). The process of translating may impose structural aspects and traits of the native tongue of the newly learned language, hence distorting it.

Also, the grammar-translation method is rather impractical and slow. Before speaking in a foreign language, the individual must refer to his own language and do grammatical analyses. Moreover, this process makes it more difficult to think of the foreign vocabulary words in proper context. This leads to "misapplying native language and foreign language equations" (Politzer and Politzer, 1972, p. 20).

Another recommendation from linguists is that the beginning of any foreign language exercise be a "construction" in that language. After such a construction is learned, it can be altered by means of transforming, expanding, and so forth to make other constructions. Whereas it was common in the past to "learn grammar in sentences extracted from context and vocabulary in lists of isolated words" (Chastain, 1971, p. 68), a better approach is to teach these in context, where language is part of a communicative situation.

Language teachers have made use of the "models" of languages, both descriptive and transformational, developed by linguists. For example, the "minimal pairs" exercises used to contrast, say, /p/ and /b/ (Pete, beat; pull, bull; pat, bat; pan, ban), stem from descriptive linguistic models. The generative transformational models entail more complex grammar shifts than do the standard transformation drills, in which shifts are made between such aspects of language as the number, the tenses, and 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person voices during class exercises. Less influence has been introduced into practical language teaching by these generative-transformational models than by descriptive models, but they do have areas of application. Politzer and Politzer (1972) list some main aspects of these applications:

- (a) Basic sentence types from which all others can be derived by either expansion or by transformation processes are used as the starting point of instruction.
- (b) Careful attention is paid to the sequence in which expansion and transformation processes are learned.
- (c) Sentence patterns are grouped in the exercises in such a way that patterns related to each other are learned in their correct relationship.
- (d) Sentences which have only a surface relationship to each other are not grouped together or produced in the same exercise.
- (e) Vocabulary is not learned indiscriminately, but preferably in terms of categories which fit specific types of sentences (pp. 21-22).

Linguist stress that the structural aspects of the first (native) language interfere with the learning of a new language, causing many difficulties. If a thorough study is made of the differences between the two languages in question, the areas where difficulties may arise are determined, along with the reasons for the interference. This can help the instructor to aid students in overcoming the differences, for the most helpful exercises can be utilized. Thus linguists frequently recommend a careful contrastive analysis or comparative study between the native language and the language to be learned as a prerequisite for developing good teaching materials. Darian (1972) writes:

Essentially, contrastive analysis involves the following operations: analysis of the student's native language (phonology, syntax, and so on); analysis of comparable elements in English, the target language; comparison of these elements in the two languages to determine problems and interferences caused by the native language in learning the target language. Until recently, contrastive analysis has been used chiefly at the phonological level. However, this technique can be extended to higher levels of language structure (p. 158).

The problem is that the foreign language learner may listen to another language, but he hears the language sound units of his own tongue, especially when two sounds in the languages have much in common and are only different in small phonetical details.

In accordance with their stress on language as primarily an audio-lingual activity, linguists have indicated that writing is only a secondary reflection of speech. They urge that more attention be paid to such aspects of language as intonation and frequency of word occurrences in speech as opposed to writing. Such things have often been overlooked in many of the traditional classroom approaches to grammar.

Descriptive linguistic analysis has ties with psychological behaviorism and interest in stimulus-response patterns. Descriptive linguists stress incorporating much practice into language learning; students who repeatedly give responses to stimuli will learn these responses. Theorists with this orientation would insist that learning about the language should be distinguished from actually learning the language. The latter means to develop the same types of responses that the native speakers automatically have at their disposal. Chastain (1971; p. 62) writes that linguists concluded, "language is overlearned to the point at which the speaker is able to focus his attention on what is being said rather than how." Analogously, a goal of language teaching should be to produce a similar "over-learning." One might point out that it is challenging to produce over-learning without boredom, in actual classroom practice.

J. Donald Bowen (1967), Co-Director of the Philippine Center for Language Study, makes the following seven points in his discussion of pedagogical applications of current linguistic knowledge:

(1) Spoken language provides the foundation for communication. Oral skill should be the first one taught, forming the core curriculum until reasonable mastery is attained. In a country where English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction begins early, a significant amount of classtime in elementary school should be filled with oral activities.

(2) Language learning consists of forming and performing habits of speech and response, and is not a problem-solving, analytical process. People produce the words and sentences of their native language at a level below conscious awareness. Speech habits are what is essential--whether they involve verb-subject agreement, pronunciation features, inflection, or word order--and the student of a second language has to master these habits. Constant imitation, repetition, practice of the basic linguistic structures, and drills on variations of these structures are essential.

All the practice exercises on these patterns should show :

a gradual progression from rigid control toward situations where pupils communicate within the context of the situations presented to them using fewer or no controls. The eventual aim of language teaching is to encourage independent thinking and free communication of ideas using the tools of expression acquired in the language class (Bowen, 1967, p. xiv).

(3) When language is used, the fluency and speed of responses and speech acts are remarkable. Keeping this in mind, the way a second language is presented, drilled, and practiced should aim at enabling student to speak appropriately but without conscious effort.

(4) Good quality of speech by the primary oral model--the teacher--is important. A natural type of expression should be aimed at, as well

as a context of realistic and meaningful communication situations.

Moreover, oral mastery includes replacing literary, formal, or archaic forms of speech with idiomatic and colloquial forms. Thus, the teacher should use an appropriate style of speech.

(5) The sequence in which words are introduced and the speed with which structure and vocabulary lessons advance are significant since language is cumulative. A careful plan should be laid out.

(6) The English class is responsible for developing general linguistic competence--familiarity with structure and vocabulary. It should not lose sight of this function and should not feel obligated to teach specialized or technical vocabularies more appropriately studied elsewhere.

(7) The language itself should form the substantive material of a course, not information about the language. Comments about the language should have the sole aim of helping students do a good job of imitating and practicing new forms. The teacher should take care that this "lecture" material does not become regarded as an end in itself. Students should use classtime for practice, guided by the teacher.

A correct balance between the teacher's time and the student's time for speaking in class should be worked out. Finocchiaro (1964, p. 114) indicates that one common point of agreement has been reached among linguists: "Grammatical explanations should be given, and these should be in the native tongue of the learner." However, teachers tend to lapse into explanations too frequently and must be on the guard. Similarly, perspective is easily lost with regard to how much the teacher's presentations outweigh the class's participation. As Finocchiaro (1964, p. 82) advises, the teacher should ask himself: "Could I elicit

much of the material that I am presenting?" and "Am I trying to elicit material that I am presenting?" The students cannot develop speaking habits unless they practice, and they cannot practice while the teacher is talking.

However, a precaution should be taken not to over-emphasize speaking either, according to Newmark and Diller (1969).

Ear training facilitates speaking. Articulation is dependent upon hearing sounds accurately, discriminating among sounds, establishing--i.e., memorization or internalization--of proper auditory sound images, and development of a feel for the new language.

When students are required to speak from the outset, the likelihood of errors is increased, apprehensiveness on the part of the student impedes learning, and confidence develops slowly (if at all). When listening comprehension precedes speaking, the student's initial experience includes more correct responses and more frequent positive reinforcement, less apprehension, and more rapid development of confidence in his language learning ability (p. 98).

Also,

Prematurely listening to his own unauthentic pronunciation, and to that of other students, may interfere with the student's discrimination and retention of correct sounds (p. 98).

Obviously, some skill at connecting theory with classroom practice would be beneficial.

Some of the practical considerations for the language teacher with an audiolingual orientation have been introduced by writers and are worth mentioning.

- (1) "The sound system of the language should be mastered first . . . The features of arrangement of language should be mastered next"

(Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 114). The teacher can consider vocabulary learning to be subsidiary to the learning of the sound system and the language's structural arrangement.

(2) "Concentration on one skill at a time facilitates learning by reducing the load on the student and by permitting the use of materials and techniques geared to the specific objectives and requirements of each skill" (Newmark and Diller, 1969, p. 98).

(3) When a method is being chosen, the teacher should think about whether it is suitable for his group's specific age and ability range. "For example, should more visual materials be used in the development" (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 82).

(4) Consider whether most of the students have reached a stage where they can profit from a given lesson. Perhaps the majority are not familiar with the materials on which the lesson is built (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 82).

(5) It is important to provide enough examples to clarify the form, pattern, or rule that is being taught (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 82). Be prepared with supplementary examples if the class has more difficulty mastering the lesson than anticipated.

(6) The teacher should carefully weigh all alternatives when deciding which method to use to teach linguistic items and engender appreciation of cultural patterns (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 82). An adequate approach may not be the best approach.

(7) For best learning the learner should have a thorough understanding of what is involved in a lesson and what is required (Huebener, 1959, p. 4). The teacher should always take the responsibility for defining his aims and expectations.

(8) "Rules should be subordinated to practice activities in order to bring about automatic control of basic structural patterns" (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 114). The student should learn to respond without continually reflecting on the appropriate rules.

Audiovisual Aids

A great deal has been said here about audiolingual theory and teaching. Audiovisual aids--such accessories as pictures, filmstrips, slides, tape recorders, and films--have an important place in helping a teacher carry out lesson plans with audiolingual content. They are widely used in language classrooms to facilitate auditory practice, dialogues, and drills, which obviously are necessary components of a contemporary English-teaching curriculum.

The place which audiovisual aids hold in the educational setting may be clarified by some of the "laws of learning" which Huebner (1959, p. 4) discusses. First, a "vivid impression" aids learning, and the teacher should present a definite impression of what he wants the students to remember. Second, "the more fully the learner concentrates his attention, the more readily he will learn." Such tools as language tapes, filmstrips, pictures, and overhead projections are novel enough in a barren classroom to both serve as a focus of student attention and to make a definite impression on the learners. Young minds want variety and will often start to wander unless some aspect of the lesson such as a new visual or auditory stimulus impinges on these students' imaginations.

A third principle of learning from Huebner (1959, p. 4) is that the student must be intensely motivated for the best results: "Effective

learning will take place only if the learner is eager to acquire the new knowledge." To the extent that the lesson content is interesting, the more students motivation will increase. An interesting story rewards the effort of learning the requisite vocabulary for understanding it, and class exercises, activities, and discussions that are interesting due to audiovisual aids will inherently make the student want to comprehend better. Also, as long as textbooks are boring, the teacher should utilize the excellent opportunities for arousing motivation by putting the most interesting materials possible on tapes. The student will want to achieve comprehension if doing so will bring his satisfaction. This idea also fits in with Huebener's (1959, p. 4) fourth principle of learning: "The learner will be more eager if he likes what he does and if he has pleasurable sensation in doing it."

Another principle of language teaching toward which many people seem to converge in agreement (Carroll, 1963) also lends support to the audiovisual aid advocates:

There is an insistence on the desirability or even the necessity of learning to make responses in situations as closely simulate 'real-life' communication situations as closely as possible (p. 9).

In other words, language practice in the classrooms should not consist of mere drills and question-and-answer sessions. Good pictures are hard to surpass in their ability to elicit conversation--providing a degree of freedom similar to that encountered in real-life situations but also establishing a useful common framework for the conversation to center in. Complex pictures or picture sequences have been used to stimulate story construction in the classroom, where various students make up a

little story to describe the people, actions, etc. in the picture. The ambiguous visual aid cues can perhaps simulate real-life speech situations more consistently and closely than a teacher's planned cues which receive routine responses. Good pictures help students actually perform in the second language, when they are simulating and "discussable," or when they can serve as the center of a student-generated dialogue.

The chapter on audiovisual aids will clarify the usefulness of these "tools" in the day-to-day classroom work, especially in the dialogue and drill activities which are essential in any classroom where auditory and speaking skills are considered important. The attempt to develop a methodology for teaching language skills has come a long way, and audiovisual aids have contributed to this progress, but more advances still are needed.

Advocates of the grammar-translation method are becoming very hard to find, but no one more current theory has met with unanimous agreement. Many methodologies are effective. As Darian (1972) says:

The tenets of foreign language teaching may never be as defined as the table in chemistry, but certain broad areas of agreement have emerged, and these areas must be refined further in order to produce as scientific as possible in a field which has tended to be an art (p. 167).

The next chapter will examine how audio aids may assist the teacher of English as a foreign language.

CHAPTER III

AUDIO AIDS

Audiovisual Materials

Audiovisual aids are materials which virtually all the authors on teaching foreign languages suggest using. There is a great need for the development of a program characterized by simplicity and flexibility in its administration and supervision, in the use of existing school personnel and in the functional integration of audiovisual personnel and in the functional integration of audiovisual materials into the field of language teaching in Iran.

Visual and aural aids are helpful in different ways, as Lee (1964) comments:

- (1) They can brighten up the classroom and bring more variety and interest into language lessons;
- (2) Visual aids in particular can help to provide the situations (contexts) which light up the meaning of the utterances used;
- (3) Aural aids in particular can help the teacher to improve his own grasp of the foreign language and to prepare more effective lessons;
- (4) Both aural and visual aids can stimulate children to speak the language as well as to read and write it;
- (5) They can help in giving information of one kind or another about the background of literature and about life in the foreign country concerned (p. 9).

Such aids are especially necessary to bring audiolingual content

into English lessons in Iranian schools with large numbers of unmotivated students and poorly-trained teachers. Audiovisual material has potential for being of great help in the immediate future if adopted in classroom use. This chapter will discuss various uses of audio aids, and visual aids will be covered in Chapter IV. This compilation of information on audiovisuals should clarify their place in the classroom.

An Introduction to Audio Aids

In the language learning process audio material play an important role. These aids enable the students to practice oral communication with the language and to exercise their comprehension ability. Edward M. Stack (1971) reports some conclusions that can be drawn from research in the field of language-learning that are relevant here:

- (1) The more one actively practices speaking and hearing the language the better one becomes at speaking and understanding it.
- (2) The more one actively practices reading and writing, the better one becomes at that.
- (3) If one spends more time with audiolingual work than with graphic work, one is better at speaking and understanding the spoken language.
- (4) If one spends more time with graphic skills than with the audiolingual skills, one becomes better at reading and writing.
- (5) Concentration on one type of skill leads to lopsided accomplishment. The traditional methods were (and are) effective in teaching the graphic skills of reading, writing, and translating (p. vi).

Adept spoken use of a language is the most direct means for effective communication. The above research results indicate that our language instruction programs should include a speaking and listening

component. Such practice is vital to alleviate students' tendency to become unbalanced in their language development; writing and reading skills alone are not sufficient.

Teachers can expand their range of instruction by utilizing such aids as tape recorders, record players, radio, and the language laboratory. These tools help the students and teachers both. Teachers with poor ability to speak can teach pronunciation by introducing the recorded voice into the classroom. Audio equipment can enable the students to learn on their own time and can help individualize the instruction as much as is necessary. Students can learn at home or after school by checking out equipment such as tapes from school or by going to the laboratory and working there.

The Tape Recorder

The tape recorder has become the foremost audio device for use in education in the past decade and is a boon for both student and teacher in learning a second language. Although largely preceded in instructional use by the tape player, now the tape recorder is the audio instrument most likely to be found in foreign language classrooms. The flexibility of this device makes it invaluable for teachers; techniques of tape recorder use can be adapted so that they fit both large-class instructional settings and small group settings, both elementary and advanced levels. Another prime area of application is with individualized or remedial use. Among the benefits of tape recorder use are the development of good listening habits, the easy practice of oral expression, and the checking of one's progress in mastering speech patterns.

Practical Considerations

Tape recorders may be considered inexpensive in view of the services they provide--especially in comparison with full-scale language laboratories--but the price tag is high enough to greatly limit their numbers in Iranian schools. The school system should take the responsibility for providing the foreign language teachers with tape recorders, but purchasing policy is not predictable. The teacher should do everything he can to provide them for students. A teacher may even want to buy a recorder personally in view of the time that may be saved by making use of it, but it is unrealistic to expect this to occur very often. Trying to stretch the school budget for funds is definitely preferable.

When buying a tape recorder one should keep in mind that a broken machine will not be of much use. It is important to make sure the brand one purchases is a durable and reliable one. Consideration needs to be given to the accessibility of repair services, as well as their speed and expense. The teacher must understand what is necessary for maintenance and not neglect his responsibilities in this area. And, above all, he should not allow the machine to be abused; instruction in correct use is imperative and adequate supervision wise.

When use in a large-class setting is planned, obtaining good quality recorders should be given priority because fidelity is vital for student comprehension. The basic recorder unit can be extended by providing attachments such as patchcords and speakers. Although a lightweight recorder would be convenient, this quality is not so necessary in the large class as with individual use since the machine can usually stay in the same spot and will not need to be carried around to any

appreciable extent. On the other hand, for use in a one-to-one setting, durability is especially important, and portability should be considered if students or teachers will be frequently taking the machine home for after-school use. Moreover, it is advisable to have a "pause" button that is easy to use by the student, although some of the less expensive recorders do not have this feature. The pause button allows the student to easily slow down the pace of the taped material without continually having to push the "stop," "reverse," and "play" buttons. This may very well lessen wear on the controls.

For most uses in second-language teaching, it is not essential to buy very high-quality tapes such as one would want for recording a symphony. As Allen (1965) points out, inexpensive brands usually work fine:

The same tape can be used indefinitely if the recording is not meant to be permanent, for any material can simply be erased by recording again on top of it. On the other hand, permanent recordings that vary from a few minutes to several hours can be made on tape and these can be reproduced an almost infinite number of times without wearing out (p. 349).

In order to ensure the most faithful recording of sound, Allen (1965, p. 349) advises that, "It is usually best to record loudly and play back under control." Also, it is a waste of time to record a lesson too softly and find out later that the voice becomes distorted when the volume is turned up. Volume settings should be checked by recording and playing back in order to ascertain the machine's best range for operating. Another warning that the teacher should keep in mind is that the tape recording picks up all noises, not just voices. Persons inexperienced with tape recording may be surprised to find out

how loud background noises can become. Such noises can distract students so if possible the room where individual or after-school work on the recorder is done should have good acoustics and be cut off from hallway or street noises. This may not be easy in some schools, needless to say.

For storing the tapes it is not necessary to buy expensive cassette containers. Simple boxes will serve the purpose of keeping dust out. It is also advisable to keep the boxes labeled clearly and to identify the contents of each tape on the cassette itself by means of adhesive paper (Allen, p. 349).

Techniques

L. A. Hill (1967) provides a good discussion of the basic purposes and methods for using a tape recorder. First he notes that tape recorder use can apply to either ear-training or speech-training work, and then he clarifies these categories. Ear-training is divided into two sub-categories:

Type (a), the purpose of which is to train students to hear phonemic distinctions. Type (b), the purpose of which is to drill words, sentences, poems or pieces of prose into the students' memory, so that he can later repeat them with a good pronunciation or so that they can later serve as models for other utterances (p. 134).

Tapes are valuable for this because they maintain the same intonation, repeat words or sentences over and over without tiring, and provide a uniform length of pause for student repetition (if desired). "Hearing the same thing over and over again at intervals always pronounced in exactly the same way makes a very powerful impression on the listener's

auditive memory" (Hill, 1967). Hill adds the following:

The fundamental technique with type (a) is to make a tape which first drills the desired contrasts, between sounds, stress patterns, and intonation patterns, and then provides tests of the student's ability to hear these contrasts (p. 134).

Obviously, the person who provides the speech which is to be modeled would have excellent pronunciation if possible. The best speaker of English available should be recruited. Native speakers would be ideal.

Ear-training work can be carried out in the classroom, either as a whole group or in small groups. Students that want extra practice or individuals who have need for remedial work should also take advantage of good tapes.

Two types of speech-training work (Hill, 1967) are also possible:

type (a), the purpose of which is to eradicate faulty sounds, stress patterns, and intonation patterns and to replace them by correct speech habits. Type (b), the purpose of which is to improve student's elocutions by getting them to imitate good models of speech (p. 136).

The imitation work of (b) is extremely important, but it is this technique which requires, for best advantage, one-on-one work with the tape recorder. Taping the responses of a group will not give feedback to individuals. Moreover, when a student does individual work with the tape recorder, the teacher has an opportunity to diagnose his weak spots; the recorder can be a valuable tool for comparing students' performances and understanding what type of classwork would be appropriate and beneficial.

A special type of tape recorder is useful for type (b), as described by Hill (1967):

The best type of tape recorder to use for this work is a double-channel model such as a ferrotutor. With this the teacher prepares a tape on one machine, recording his voice on one channel (the upper half of the tape) and the students play this back, listening to the teacher's voice and recording his own imitation of it on the other channel (the lower half of the tape). He can then play the tape back again, with both channels audible, so that he can hear the teacher's reading and his imitation of it, one immediately after the other. When he has finished he can use the lower half of the tape again for a further attempt without erasing the upper half at all. In this way one tape made by the teacher can be used again and again by one student or by many students one after the other (p. 137).

Unfortunately, the more complex the recorder, the more expensive it is bound to be. A cheaper method would be to provide a "permanent" tape with units to be repeated followed by a pause. The student can hear himself imitate, but does not record his voice. This is not so good for providing feedback.

Discussion

A major reason for using tape recorders for teaching English as a second language in Iran is that most teachers are non-native English speakers. As mentioned in the introduction, many of them have very poor pronunciation due to inadequate teacher-training colleges. It is very harmful for the students' pronunciation to be exposed to a poor model consistently. Use of tapes may remedy this to some extent; thus, use of tapes for pronunciation and repetition exercises helps students successfully comprehend the material that is being taught. "A recorded commentary made by a native speaker tends to raise the standard of spoken accuracy and is 'another voice'" (Lee, 1967, pp. 38-9).

As Lee (1968) notes, even if the teacher's pronunciation is not

bad, to hear voices other than the teacher's speaking the same type of speech is beneficial:

Variety is once more the chief justification for an aid of this type. From time to time it makes a change to have a recording to listen to rather than the teacher. It may be of the teacher's voice, or pupils' voices, or of various native speakers' voices (p. 38).

Lee further comments that an attempt should be made to have voices on tape that are as different as possible from the teacher's voice--male voices if the teacher is female, young voices if the teacher is old, etc. General comprehension ability should improve when one is not totally accustomed to hearing one person speak.

Tape recorders may have some limitations on use in a very large classroom. If the teacher turns it very loud so that the sound reaches everyone, the sound will probably lose its quality and fidelity, and on the other hand not everybody will be able to hear it clearly and students will become sleepy. A teacher may have poor pronunciation, but on the other hand is a moving figure with a face to focus on--a visual image to aid concentration. Tapes should be used as often as possible in combination with other aids that provide visual stimuli. According to Lee (1968):

Wall pictures (or even blackboard pictures) and filmstrips can, for instance, be combined with tape recordings. Spoken comment and questions on a scene or a story in pictures can be recorded. If a time gap is left after each statement or question the pupils have a chance of imitating or answering; an answer or repetition may then be supplied by the tape. Imaginary conversations between characters in a picture can also be tape-recorded. What they are heard to say will be the equivalent of the words in "balloons" coming from the mouths of characters in newspaper cartoon strips; indeed, tape recordings (and records) can very well be used with such pictures (p. 38).

Tapes are good aids to be used by small groups or even individuals in clubs and/or after school. It would be good if the teacher can provide taped materials for different lessons and then allow students to check them out voluntarily to listen to them. An expected situation, especially in urban areas, is that some students' families will have a tape recorder at home. In general, Iranian consumers tend to purchase tape recorders rather than record players (but not many can afford either). Teachers should allow the students to tape the lesson if they want so they may listen to it at their convenience. For those from low economic levels, clubs that meet after school should be allowed access to tape recorders and tapes if they want to listen to recordings after class on their own time, that is, if they are motivated enough.

If tape recorders are in short supply the teachers will inevitably be forced to consider the merits of direct student use versus the greater risk of machine difficulties when many individuals contribute wear and tear. If the decision is made to limit recorders to classroom use, it is unfortunate but understandable. Still, at a minimum the teacher should make this tool available for small group work in after-school hours (See discussion on clubs in Appendix C). Since letting individual students hear themselves speak and review lessons or do remedial work is so important, the utmost effort should be made to spread available machine time as widely as possible.

If the tapes are in short supply, a decision must be made as to how many should be allocated for "permanent" recordings and how many for reusable purposes. One writer (Esrighi, 1978, p. 42) comments that "The most important way to provide proper material is to be certain that the tape supplies mostly what is presented in the textbooks. Conver-

sation, reading, and exercise are all included in the taping." Such repetition of the textbook material is valuable for classroom instruction when the teacher's pronunciation is poor and hence should be stored permanently; classroom work is then available for students who have been sick or have fallen behind and need to review. But for being used as an "accessory" to classwork, the repetition of the same material may be boring and of less than optimal utility. What students would want to form a club just to listen to textbook readings? Priority should be given to interesting material. A balance must be found between these different uses in allocation of tape space.

It should be noted that students are not the only ones to benefit from tapes of the passages and dialogues in the lesson. Lee (1968) asserts the Iranian English teacher who has poor pronunciation will have access to the correct speech model as well:

It helps considerably if the language-material to be used in the early stages of a course and the passages contained in the textbook are available on records or tape. Such recordings can help the teacher to prepare his lessons well and to set a good model of speech (p. 40).

Thus, the teacher should be alert to ways his teaching materials can help him. When a teacher has good enough speech to record his own rendition of the lessons, a major convenience for him is that assignments can be recorded whenever he desires for later use in class.

In this context, Lee (1968) briefly mentions other aural aids:

Purely aural aids--gramophone, sound radio, tape recorder--are of considerable use in keeping up or improving standards of pronunciation. Many of the existing sets of records for English-language teaching are meant for use with books on English pronunciation, and are mainly suitable for self-taught adult learners (e.g., teachers

of English) although they can also be used to some extent with student classes (p. 40).

The teacher who has difficulty speaking English correctly would be wise to invest in some type of aural aid for his own benefit, even if such tools are not available for the classes.

All in all, where tape recordings are supplied the teacher should make every effort to use them extensively. Tapes of classroom lessons will be quite valuable in giving the additional practice needed to reinforce the material covered in daily instruction. Many kinds of supplementary materials can be placed on tape as well (Finocciaro and Bonomo, 1964, pp. 174-76): pronunciation drills that feature use of contrasting words and sounds; sentences that exemplify some of the basic intonation patterns of English; sentences of varying length that help teach rhythm; stories for listening exercises and discussions; dialogues; dictations; aural comprehension exercises; activities where students alter sentences to create new structures; and even tests. The recorder provides access to voices other than the teacher's and can even let the students listen to themselves. And, lastly, the tape recorder is easy to use. Iranian schools would greatly benefit if these aural aids became common.

Radio

Radio presents problems in teaching language simply because the language content is generally uncontrolled. Whether or not a teacher makes use of the radio will depend on the level of language learning the children have achieved and the nature of the program being broadcast. For example, radio may provide a good opportunity for listening

to or learning songs (Finocchiaro, 1964, p. 125).

Esrighi (1978) believes the radio is applicable to English learning in Iran:

The use of radio is a valuable tool in aiding a student's imagination and his ability to think and solve problems rather than becoming so strongly dependent on only visual materials. Although the United States has not used this media very much for educational purposes, the writer believes that it is a very important tool because it can potentially reach a vast number of listeners (p. 40).

At the time Esrighi made this comment, the Iranian Radio offered a one-hour English conversation program to help people learn English; now no such program is broadcast, so the problem of uncontrolled language content remains. In addition this program was probably not a useful asset for beginners because it was fast, hard to understand, and hence boring. Iranian radio stations broadcast in Pharsi, and only those people with expensive shortwave sets can receive broadcasts from, say, London.

So although the upper grade students who have access to foreign radio can use this as a source of hearing the language spoken by natives, radio in general should not be regarded as a very useful teaching aid. When a teacher prepares a tape he can carefully select the material and make sure it is appropriate for the age and vocabulary background of the student; no such control can be exerted over radio so it cannot be relied on. Also, it is frustrating for the beginner to be exposed to totally incomprehensible English such as he might very well find on the radio.

The Language Laboratory

The language laboratory is a relatively recent phenomenon, an area separate from the classroom where audiovisual aids are used. In actual practice the audio aids compose the heart of the laboratory, so it will be provisionally subsumed under the category of auditory equipment. A very complete description of the modern language laboratory and its potential is included in this section, but first a rationale will be briefly developed for including language laboratories in this paper at all. Ghaffoori (1975) commented that she considered language laboratories too expensive and out-of-reach for the Iranian educators and excluded this modern "aid" from her paper. A different decision has been made here, and the reason should be clarified.

Applying Language Laboratories in the Iranian Situation

In the Iranian education system, laboratories in general are not something new in sciences such as physics, chemistry, and biology. Universities have relatively good laboratories and some of the high schools have physics and biological laboratories as well. But language laboratories would be something new for high schools. Universities in different parts of Iran have language laboratories, especially for use by students majoring in a language; moreover, some of the privately owned English institutions have language laboratories. These latter courses are expensive to take and are not available or readily accessible for everyone. So most students have never seen a language laboratory.

Many Iranian people would probably feel that laboratories are more important and integral in areas such as the natural sciences than in language study. Audiolingual theorist would disagree, but they are not a major influence on educational policy at present. Even more important, schools operate on such a low budget that they do not even have proper simple equipment such as good textbooks and audiovisual material, so there would be many difficulties standing in the way of building many language laboratories in Iran now. Still, there is merit in showing how effective laboratories can be in language learning and how necessary it is for teachers to be concerned with providing some sort of language laboratory set-up in their schools.

The whole purpose of this section is to show the applications and practical ways to use laboratories. The primary component of language is speaking. The student should be able to understand native speakers and communicate with them if he has learned the language. It is impossible to be able to talk and understand a language with accuracy unless one's ears get used to distinguishing the sounds and one's tongue has enough practice in pronunciation. Practice in these areas is something that the language laboratory, even if simple, can provide. Perhaps language laboratories can solve the big problem of Iranian students coming to English-speaking countries such students continually complain about how hard it is to understand their teachers or communicate with people.

Even if minimal objectives are met in this area, it is extremely necessary to have language laboratories installed in the teaching training centers where English instructors prepare for their careers. The laboratory can help them to learn correct language pronunciation and

comprehension and this will carry over into classrooms performance. Having English speakers who cannot speak English adequately will continue to cripple the high-school students unless changes are made. Moreover, when the future teachers are exposed to laboratory techniques during the course of their own training, it becomes much easier for them to make full use out of whatever minimal labs become available.

Description of Language Laboratories

The language laboratory consists of some of the best technological applications of language instruction, involving use of the audio-lingual approach. Primary stress is placed upon developing the skills of aural comprehension, since an important aspect of learning a language is to understand and speak it. Oliva (1969, p. 184) defines a language laboratory as: ". . . a schoolroom especially equipped with electronic equipment for the specific purpose of instruction in foreign languages." Students utilize laboratory time listening to recordings on tapes or discs, imitating the speech, repeating, and doing various other oral activities. As Huebener (1959, p. 125) comments, "the language laboratory provides much opportunity for systematic listening and speaking. Practically all of the phases of language learning, however, can be taught in the laboratory." However, a laboratory is not meant to substitute for the class, but to serve as an elaborate tool for extending the teacher's work and thus improving foreign language instruction.

Huebener (1959) lists some of the ways laboratory equipment may be put to use:

- (1) pronunciation and phonetic drills,

- (2) corrective work in pronunciation
- (3) practice in the use of grammatical forms
- (4) aural comprehension
- (5) dictation
- (6) the teaching of songs
- (7) oral self expression, original conversation
- (8) aural-oral testing (p. 126).

Different types of laboratores can be constructed. In some, facilities are only available for listening--although these may be quite extended and complex. More advanced labs provide listening facilities and in addition allow oral responses to be made by the student, which gives him feedback through earphones. Still other labs enable actual recordings to be made of the student responses. The student or teacher can thus pinpoint both problems and areas of improvement. A more detailed breakdown of laboratory types is found in Appendix D (Oliva, 1969).

Using the Language Laboratory

No matter what facilities are available, the teacher is always going to be making important decisions about how the laboratory equipment is going to be used. After all, many methods for using the audio equipment are available, depending on one's approach. Oliva writes (1969, p. 190), "The extent to which the laboratory is used depends upon the resources available to the teacher and upon the teacher's ingenuity" (underlining added). Politzer and Politzer (1977, p. 46-47) make a distinction between two approaches to laboratory use.

The first approach may be described as inflexible. The laboratory may be "utilized instead of a block of time available for class instruction." This laboratory will have little flexibility, but will provide certain advantages anyway. How is a laboratory used to replace classroom instruction? The mechanical and extremely repetitive pattern practice drills may be easily recorded and handled efficiently in a laboratory setting. The repetition drills go over the same material until the student is very familiar with certain sentences and patterns. He may repeat the phrases or sentences many times. Another drill that could be handled in a laboratory is the substitution drill, in which the student make simple cued substitutions in a basic sentence framework. These drills may be very tiring to go over in class, especially when a teacher has many sections to teach. Moreover, as Oliva (1969) points out:

The language lab, with its individual booths, also gives each student the opportunity to recite continuously. In a classroom situation only one student may speak at a time. One learner is active, the others are passive. Students are able to recite only a very few lines in an average-size classroom. The laboratory, in effect, permits all students to respond continuously and simultaneously. The recitation is an individualized matter. If the student makes a mistake, the other students are spared the necessity of hearing his mistake. Further, the student is spared the embarrassment of making public mistakes. The language laboratory increases the students' opportunity for speaking by permitting continuous recitation (p. 196).

The quality of isolating the student and his mistakes by use of headphones and booths can give him a sense of privacy and confidence and this may facilitate concentration on the lesson (Cornfield, 1966, p. 18).

Some examples of drills that can be put on tapes for laboratory use may be helpful for the reader and hence are included in Appendix E.

Another passage from Oliva (1969) is also relevant:

Teachers frequently use a basic textbook while in the laboratory. They may use an entirely different set of tapes, which has no relationship to the textbook. Tapes of this kind are used for supplementary practice. Whether the tapes are part of an integrated series or purchased supplementary tapes or home-made tapes, they are certain to consist of a variety of pattern drills (pp. 190-91).

Ideally, the classroom teaching and language laboratory drillwork should complement each other. Since the language laboratory is going to free classtime that formerly was allotted to endless pattern practice and repetition, the teacher should make use of the new time for flexible applications of the language, such as dialogue construction and discussions.

Politzer and Politzer's second approach (1972) is flexible. A laboratory which provides flexibility and is responsive to individual students' needs and aptitudes may be developed. Such an approach seems most beneficial to Politzer and Politzer (1972). They perceive two major types of flexibility:

One consists of giving the student flexible access to the laboratory. The good student (and the less motivated student) may use it for only a short time. The less capable student (as well as the more highly motivated student) has the opportunity to increase his contact with the language to whatever level he desires. This type of flexibility exists in many of the library type laboratories, especially at the college level (p. 47).

Another type of flexibility (Oliva, 1969) occurs when the laboratory is responsive to students' aptitude and progress:

The language lab can be a most effective way of providing for individual differences. There is a tendency to put all members of a class through the same laboratory lesson as a group. The laboratory is used more efficiently if bright students are able to proceed faster while slower students move at a reduced pace (p. 190).

It is unreasonable to imagine that all students will progress at the same rate of speed. However, there are some major implications of making an educational program adapt to such individual differences. Politzer and Politzer (1972, p. 4) believe this would require "a complete reorganization of the language course and the use of programmed materials and teaching materials which can be used for the purpose of self-instruction." Certainly, a system of grading which expects fairly consistent progress among the students is incompatible with this approach.

Other factors enter the picture. If the laboratory work is to substitute for classroom work, it is quite important that each student actually use the tapes. A quite imaginable situation is one in which an apathetic student does not bother to respond to the pattern practice exercises--and may not pay attention at all. At least in the classroom the teacher has some control over the students; it is possible to tell when someone is letting his mind wander and is not participating in the repetition. Varying degrees of motivation in doing laboratory work should be anticipated and planned for (Politzer and Politzer, 1972):

The good language teacher must learn to keep the pupil's attention on the lab work by providing intrinsic or at least extrinsic motivation for the lab performance. By intrinsic motivation we mean providing material that is of sufficient interest to the pupil to capture his attention. By extrinsic motivation we understand that the pupil's attention is somehow forced on the laboratory task; the tape provides material not otherwise available; the pupil

knows that his performance is being monitored; the lab session ends with a very short quiz dealing with the material covered during the session (p. 48).

Oliva (1969) gives more suggestions for language laboratory work. Various aspects of culture and civilization in countries which speak target language, English, may be stressed in the language lab:

Tapes of news broadcasts, songs, lectures, etc. add to the student's appreciation of the country and knowledge of the people. Cultural tapes offer a change of pace from pattern drills. Many excellent materials, particularly musical selections, are available on records. Judicious selection of materials stimulates interest (p. 191).

If the teacher can find some interesting short stories or selections from literature that are at the appropriate level of difficulty, he can have these materials recorded on tape, preferably again by an English speaker. Then the students can make use of these recorded selections as an adjunct to a written copy of the stories, and this will be a useful comprehension tool as well as a vocabulary-stretching device with cultural content.

The laboratory may be used to practice dictation. According to Oliva (1969):

The teacher puts a selection on tape allowing sufficient time between breath groups for students to take the dictation at their seats. Dictation exercises sharpen the ear and give additional practice in comprehension (p. 191).

Also, the teacher may use taped materials to aid development of the students' aural comprehension abilities. He may record a series of simple questions which require some kind of written response and can thus motivate the learner to listen attentively. The teacher can

also check how well each student is doing, both in comprehension and in composition. Oliva (1969, p. 191) gives the following examples of appropriate questions for such an exercise: "How are you?" "How much are four and five?" "What colors are in the American flag?" The teacher can either require responses to be in complete sentences or not, depending on whether composition is to be emphasized in the task. Of course, if composition is not important, questions can be made which can extend this type of task so that the students must comprehend a whole story or passage. This should be limited to more advanced students.

Another suggestion by Oliva (1969) is that the audio side be used as a tool for testing:

Many of the above types of exercises--pattern drills, aural comprehension, dictation, and cultural materials-- can be put into the context of a test. Students of the modern languages should become accustomed to taking aural-oral examinations. Since listening and speaking are primary objectives of modern language instruction, ways to test a student's accomplishment of these objectives are necessary (p. 191).

If the tests involve an evaluation of the student's actual speaking capacity, access to an extended laboratory set-up in which many students can simultaneously record their responses would be advisable. Also, such tests may be difficult for the teacher to grade.

One can see that the language laboratory can be useful, but a precaution should be mentioned. Long laboratory sessions at widely-spaced intervals are not the most useful approach. If at all possible the students should use the lab frequently and for relatively short sessions lasts too long, students become bored and restless (Oliva,

1969, p. 192): "The student will allow his mind to wander if he is tied to headphones too long. Laboratory sessions of 20 to 30 minutes each, three, four or five times per week, would appear sound practice."

The teacher has the responsibility to use the laboratories in ways that will most benefit students. For optimum use of laboratory facilities Huebener (1959) suggests:

- (1) The tapes and discs should be of good quality.
- (2) The student should participate constantly.
- (3) Multivoiced records with different speakers are preferable.
- (4) The tone of the voices should be warm and enthusiastic.
- (5) Material should be played at normal speed.
- (6) Material should be varied in order to hold the attention of the listener.
- (7) The purpose of each exercise should be clear to the learner (p. 126).

How to Schedule Language Laboratories in Iran

Even if rudimentary language labs are installed in schools, they will be unlikely to have a large capacity; both in terms of space and equipment, the costs would be prohibitive. Teachers thus will need to be very organized in order to get the best results. Unlike most schools in the United States, the Iranian educational system is not set up so that study halls are available. This eliminates the option of going for lab practice during such "unscheduled" periods.

With the current practice of scheduling daily English classes for 30 minutes each, difficulties can be foreseen in getting students to utilize laboratory facilities without missing the material being taught in class. Assuming that classes have 40 students each and the labs have a capacity of ten students at a time, what arrangements can solve this predicament? If two of the week's classes are used to cover in-essential material, such as practicing writing, telling stories, playing games, etc., then a group of ten students can be sent to use the lab during this time. Two groups would get to use the lab each week and each student would have one such experience once every two weeks. This is hardly optimal. Also, the teacher would not be available to supervise the lab. And to make matters worse, large schools will surely have more than one language class scheduled in each hour, and the laboratory could not handle such a load. The problems abound.

The problem of providing supervision for after-school lab use is solvable: teachers not infrequently stay after school for various purposes, and various language teachers could rotate lab supervisory duty. Also, students from upper classes in the school might be used as lab assistants. However, the problem of low capacity remains. Surely not all students will be motivated enough to give after-school time for lab practice, but crowding is quite possible. Also, schools usually end at 4:00 and this may produce some time difficulties. One possibility is to open the laboratory during lunch time, since $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours are provided to the students (no cafeteria service means that students must eat lunch outside the school). Clubs are sometimes developed, and if interesting language laboratory activities could be offered, some motivated students might want to have club meetings in the lab. But once more, this

would be after school.

All in all, so many complications exist in the Iranian schools with regard to installation of language labs that such plans are currently impossible. A good substitution would be to develop language-study centers in locations such as city libraries, focal-point high schools, or university centers that would have language laboratories for community use, with a staff separate from the school staff. Then the students from the general area would have access to the centers and be able to use them. At least the highly motivated students could be benefitted. For example, for each five high schools there could be a language center and the area schools could help supply them with materials appropriate for their students, so some sort of program could be worked out.

There are several advantages in this situation. First, it can be a large, well-equipped laboratory. Second, the teacher in this way can work with the students in school and instruct their body of work in the laboratory too, without spending hours after school to be in the laboratory. Since teachers are underpaid, this would be considerate. Third, language clubs from different schools can meet there and use the facilities so motivated students in learning languages will benefit from it. Teachers could offer extra credit for using the language lab facilities, and students who are concerned about their grades could benefit from this. If an investment is made in electronic equipment, the fullest possible use is desirable, and this option may be the answer. Perhaps some tape recorders could be provided for use in the schools, and for more extensive equipment the students and teachers would go to the area language centers.

Although expensive to construct, language laboratories can answer many of the language learner's needs. Hopefully the Iranians will have access to language laboratories in the future, at least in teacher training schools and in language-centers in cities. The government will find that allowing language students access to tape recorders at least will be worthwhile in terms of improvements in comprehension.

Since it is unlikely that electronic equipment provided to schools is going to be optimal, it is vitally important that teachers be resourceful and capable of making full use of whatever audio materials they have. As Stack (1960, p. 189) points out, "No amount of gleaming equipment, clicking relays, flashing lights, or automatic tape decks can, by themselves, perform any linguistic function." What is important is the use to which the equipment is put. Not only should the teacher be thoroughly familiar with the physical requirements of the laboratory, such as how to operate it and how to orient the students to use it, but he must also provide tapes, records, etc. that have worthwhile content.

Auditory Aids: Some Final Comments

The greatest virtues of audio equipment speak for themselves: "They provide each student with guided practice to reinforce work in the classroom" (Cornfield, 1966, p. 59). By use of the lab or tape recorder a student can greatly extend the amount of time he is exposed to the foreign tongue. "They provide authentic native voices as consistent, untiring models" (Cornfield, p. 60). This is the best answer for the problem of teachers with poor pronunciation. "They provide tutorial or remedial services for the student who needs them" (Cornfield, p. 60). Repeating lessons and helping students who have missed

class or fallen behind to catch up can be a great waste of the teacher's time. If recordings are available, the student can use them easily to hear what the other students have done in class.

So let us hope that as Iran advances more funds will be channeled into schools for facilities such as libraries and language laboratories. The students deserve the best education possible, and audio aids definitely serve to make language classes less of a waste of time.

CHAPTER IV

VISUAL AIDS

Introduction

Such a variety of visual aids exists that it is hard to categorize them. One major division has been made which separates the unprojected materials such as blackboards, pictures, charts, etc., from the projected materials such as slides, filmstrips, overhead projections, and films. The difficulty is that the method of using a picture is very similar to the method for using the same picture in projected form. On the whole, most emphasis was paid to general uses in the unprojected materials section. Each subsection on projected materials stresses the unique aspects of the particular medium.

Advantages in using visual aids are numerous, but a few will be mentioned here. Visual aids help to create a situation which is outside the classroom. They can give reality to what verbally might be misunderstood. Unfamiliar cultural aspects can be presented easily through visual aids. Moreover, pictures offer excellent possibilities for use as cues in oral drills, enabling the teacher to change situations rapidly. An examination will now be made of the primary materials which have visual content.

Unprojected Materials

One of the major areas of teacher complaints is that they are not satisfied in teaching language when there is no equipment available to them and no money being allotted for purchase of such equipment. They are forced to rely on the textbook alone. The main purpose of this section is to show a use of in-hand material. Unprojected materials are easy to make and usually available. Teachers need to be aware of them for their worth and have a little creativity in making immediate use of them for teaching culture, vocabulary, and grammar. The major asset in the use of pictures and sketches is that a great deal of control can be maintained over what is presented, how it is learned, and how well it is learned. Another way in which simple pictures aid a student learning a foreign language is that he has a greater opportunity to use his imagination. These materials are simplest and most economical aids for the Iranian system of education.

Blackboard

The blackboard is probably the most commonly used classroom tool, not just in language classes, but in nearly all academic subjects. Although blackboards are widely available, the actual amount of blackboard provided for Iranian teachers varies greatly. In some rural areas and schools with little money, a single poor quality blackboard, measuring approximately $2\frac{1}{2}$ x $1\frac{1}{2}$ meters, is set on the wall at the front of the classroom. However, more and more frequent is a single long blackboard extending completely across the front wall, thus providing a fairly large amount of space--varying, of course, with the size of the

room. No matter what the length, one can expect the blackboards to be attached on the wall. To have blackboard space provided on more than one wall is still quite rare in most schools.

These limitations should be kept in mind when judging the applicability of the following suggestions. Doubling or tripling the present blackboard space in classrooms would be a greatly welcome change. Perhaps blackboards that stand as separate, detached units mounted in portable wooden frames could serve as lower-cost accessories. One pleasing asset of this visual aid is that the blackboards are rarely subject to mechanical breakdown. Teachers can count on them to be there when needed.

As one writer comments, "There is no specific blackboard method of teaching English," (Esroghi, 1978, p. 54) but one can familiarize oneself with various techniques that make blackboard use more effective. The blackboard is versatile enough to have excellent use in teaching grammatical structure, drills, pronunciation, reading, and, of course, writing. One useful point is made by Lee (1968):

As far as language teaching is concerned, the blackboard suggests itself as a suitable place for isolated and very simple drawings rather than whole scenes or picture-sequences. This does not imply that a teacher willing to take the trouble or a teacher with artistic talent should never use the blackboard for more elaborate drawings; but if a lot of trouble is to be taken in may be preferable to make the pictures in a more permanent form, perhaps for the flannelboard, or as well as pictures, or even as a filmstrip (p. 16).

A useful approach to visual stimuli such as blackboard drawings is (a) since things can be drawn or written on the blackboard quickly, let the sketches serve the needs of the lesson moment by moment; (b)

let these sketches give what clarification of cues are desired in the lesson and thus serve to prevent the teacher from falling back on translation.

A tendency exists to crowd pictures and writing into available blackboard space. After all, if one has gone to the trouble of making a sketch, why not keep it up until class is over in case one finds need to refer to it again? Lee (1968) does not find this advisable. He believes that one should develop a habit of neatly spacing one's drawings:

What the teacher puts there should be placed either centrally or in such a position that whatever is to follow has elbow room. Nothing looks worse or is more discouraging than sketches which overlap other sketches or are crammed in awkwardly where something else has been partly rubbed out (p. 9).

Ture, if a teacher has ample room, it would be foolish to crowd drawings. But in the Iranian context, Lee's position may seem picky, since the teacher may not have any choice other than to crowd. Lee (1968, p. 8) goes so far as to consider a cluttered blackboard a hindrance rather than an aid, and he emphasizes that at a minimum the teacher should thoroughly clean off the blackboard writing at the beginning and end of class: "if anything irrelevant remains on (the blackboard) from the lesson before it will certainly distract attention from the matter in hand."

A convenient way of organizing blackboard work--if room is available--is to use one area as a "reference area," where drawings which are intended to stay up for a relatively long time can be put. Other items which might be put in such an area could be allotted for words

needed only temporarily, quick sketches which may soon be erased, etc. --in effect, a working area. And a third area could be used for students' work. However, this arrangement should obviously be flexible according to what the greatest needs are for any particular lesson (Lee, 1968, p. 9).

The following suggestions for blackboard utilization are based on the work of Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973, p. 157):

(1) One way of using blackboard space for facilitating the practice of a dialogue is to draw stick figures to represent each of the characters who has a side in the dialogue. The teacher can point to whoever is speaking as the dialogue is introduced, thus clarifying the roles of these characters. The dialogue can then be rehearsed orally until some familiarity is attained by the class, and then it can be written on the blackboard and referred to when needed. As various pairs of individuals are called on to practice the conversation, this will hopefully prevent them from getting "stuck" at some point in their dramatization.

(2) Sketch stick figures as a picture story is told. Then erase various figures and ask the class such questions as "Who was here?" "How many were here?" "Is the man still there?" This will aid to teaching responses.

(3) Represent weather by drawings of an umbrella or sun, or represent simple emotions by smiling and frowning faces.

(4) Represent times of the day by drawing the hands of a clock on various hours; then point to various of these examples and request an appropriate responses; e.g., "Good morning (afternoon, evening)." "Did you have a good breakfast (lunch, dinner)?"

(5) Put up arithmetic examples and "read" them.

(6) Diagram maps or settings in order to teach directions. For example, some streets can be drawn and labeled, and then the sketches can be referred to as illustration for "He walked toward 4th Street;" "I am going to the store on Main Street;" "4th Street is two blockes from 6th Street," etc. Or a square can represent a park, and marks can demonstrate the meaning of "near," "across," "through," etc.

(7) Line drawing can easily clarify such contrasts as "larger than," "shorter than," "heavier than," or "younger than." Of course, students may be used to compare size, weight, and so on, but this practice might lead to some unwanted embarrassment.

The blackboard is an effective tool for helping students memorize sentences or phrases (Esraghi, 1978):

The material is written on the board and covered before class time. For memorization it is uncovered and read through by the teacher with the class following silently or in a low voice. The material is read again by the teacher with the class attempting full simultaneous reading. This choral reading may be repeated until the students read smoothly together. The teacher then erases some of the nouns and leads the class in reading everything including the erased words. Verbs are erased, and another reading is conducted, with the teacher abstaining while the class reads and supplies the missing words. Additional reading follows with more material erased until when the function words are erased, the class repeats the text, looking at the blackboard where the text appeared previously (p. 65).

If a movable blackboard is available, it can be used in dictation exercises as follows: A student who does fairly well at dictation is called to the front of the room to write a dictated passage on the blackboard which is turned so the class cannot see it. The rest of his classmates write their dictation at the same time, as the teacher reads

it. Then to check for accuracy, this student will turn his work so the others can read it. Through group participation his sentences are corrected, and the other pupils can compare their work with the final corrected version.

James S. Kinder (1950, p. 64) suggests some other problems which blackboard serve. They may be summarized as follows: (1) Original material or material which is not provided in the textbooks can be put up on the board for discussion or consideration. (2) The board can be used to copy down material that otherwise would have to be dictated to students at length; thus there is much less chance that students will make errors in writing the sentences down. This may be especially necessary where facilities for mimeocopying are limited. (3) Presentation of new words, dates, terms, facts, principles, outlines, and other such material. (4) As suggested previously, illustrations may be made to clarify explanations or stories. Diagrams, sketches, maps, graphs, etc. may be quickly exhibited. (5) The blackboard may provide a space for students, even several at a time, can write exercises. Then the entire class can go over these with the teacher. More advanced students may want to use the blackboard in making class reports or presentations so that their talks are more clear and graphic. (6) Assignments to pupils may be written down, and examination or text questions may be displayed to the class. Also, such things as announcements, programs, new regulations, or prizes may be displayed. (7) To enable varied presentations and innovative work. Kinder also mentions the use of a blackboard as a makeshift screen for projection of still pictures. Such a use should be only a last resort, since the blackboard is a rather poor quality screen, but if one wants to trace maps or diagrams

onto the board from the projected image, this may be beneficial.

Lee (1968) advocates that teachers should not hesitate to make blackboard sketches.

Many are the teachers who say or think that they cannot draw on the blackboard. Up to a point this skill can be cultivated. We are not concerned here with detailed and finished drawings, but with matchstick figures and outlines (p. 9).

Lee goes on to suggest that teachers who think they cannot make good sketches need regular practice, done both on paper and at the blackboard. He provides a large number of examples of simple sketches which can be learned easily. Some of these will be shown in Appendix E.

Pictures

Iranian teachers of English should be sensitive to contexts in which pictures can be brought into play. These aids will be found to serve many varied purposes. As Huebener (1959) comments,

. . . Pictures of all types are easy to procure, the supply is inexhaustible, they may be used in many different ways, and they make a strong appeal to everyone (p. 118).

The simplest type of pictorial is a photograph, advertisement, or picture from a magazine. These are easily accessible for most teachers of English; Iran certainly does not have as many magazines as the United States, but a functional selection may be found.

Huebener (1959) perceives a three-way division of pictures in accordance with the way they are used. Some are for permanent exhibition, some are on temporary display, and some are just used as illustrations or for exercises and are never actually displayed. The first

type makes decorations for the room and will attempt to establish a "foreign language atmosphere."

They ought to be fairly good modern representations of foreign scenes, of eminent men, or reproductions of famous paintings. They ought to show good taste and give the pupils who gaze at them every day a favorable impression of the foreign country. If possible, they ought to be framed (p. 118).

Unfortunately, the Iranian situation would not enable use of such room decorations. By far the most common system is for the students to stay in the same classroom all day for all subjects, and let the teachers come to them. In other words, the teachers rotate instead of the students rotating. The consequence is obvious: no one teacher has claim to the room and the English teacher can assume that he will have minimal access to walls and bulletin boards.

A possibility exists that the new government in Iran will institute curriculum changes that will entail changing the system of teacher rotation some time in the foreseeable future. Since Huebener's suggestions for pictures on temporary display are interesting, they will be mentioned in case the language teacher obtain access to regular bulletin board space.

Much creativity can be used in making temporary displays of illustrations and photographs on the bulletin board. Both teacher and pupils' may contribute. Selections may range from clippings and pictures found in current newspapers and magazines that pertain to happenings in the English-speaking countries, all the way to art reproductions (Huebener, 1959):

If the class is studying a special topic, the bulletin

board may be used for a systematic display of pictures concerned with the topic, for a week or two (p. 118).

When the teacher plans to introduce some subject, he could put up pictures pertaining to it several days in advance. Another good idea is for a share of the bulletin board to be devoted to cartoons in the foreign tongue. These provide a great deal of motivation for learning the vocabulary words in the captions. The bulletin board should help to arouse student interest. However, the most important group consists of the pictures intended to illustrate words or concepts and to present exercises. Many of them should be able to serve as a basis for conversation of some sort. Huebener (1959, p. 119) suggests that collections of foreign postcards be included, as well as snapshots, clippings from foreign magazines, and advertisements. A relatively systematic clarification of some direct classroom instruction applications will follow shortly. Some pictures may be found appropriate for serving several of the functions; these may be considered useful enough to preserve in a picture collection.

Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973, p. 102) recommends that every teacher who collects pictures should organize them in a "picture file," which can be viewed as a versatile and organized supply of pictorial material. The file should be kept as up-to-date as is necessary. These authors suggest that three main types of pictures be collected: (1) pictures of individual persons and of individual objects; (2) pictures of people "doing something" with objects and in which the relationships of objects and/or people can be seen; (3) a series of pictures (six to ten) on one chart. Finocchiaro and Bonomo find such charts very useful; they are easy to display and enable use of many pictures at once.

They especially recommend one that give examples of many nouns (food, water, sky), one that pictures count nouns (various objects, pieces of furniture, etc.), and a third that includes samples from both of these categories. Other charts might be made to illustrate various sports, work activities, occupations, animals, etc.

It is necessary to clarify different use-categories of pictorial aids. Three general area of application are in teaching culture, teaching vocabulary, and teaching other grammatical constructs.

Culture

For teaching cultural aspects of English-speaking countries, pictures may prove invaluable. Anyone who questions this should take a look at advertisements and pictures from his own culture 75 years ago; a distinct impression of the past society can be obtained. Including a cultural unit in a language class is an excellent means for stimulating the students and increasing motivation. Pictures do better than anything ~~else~~ for conveying the appearance of home scenes, street scenes, buildings, famous people, famous artwork, etc. (Huebener, 1969):

. . . Frequently some cultural item is mentioned in the reading. Nothing enlivens such a mention better than the display of a good picture (p. 119).

Students may find postcards interesting, and if the teachers can get access to British, American, Canadian, or Australian magazines, some culturally relevant material may be found which can be passed around the class. An excellent source would be a friend living abroad in an English-speaking country who is willing to mail the teacher such materials; cultivating international friendships can be useful in this

way. All in all, the teacher should search continually for the most intriguing visuals possible. Moreover, care should be taken to ensure that the pictures reflect authentic aspects of the culture in question (Finocchiar, 1969, p. 112), enough stereotypes already exist without adding to them in formal educational settings.

Vocabulary

According to B. J. Frey (1970),

. . .with students learning vocabulary, whether as a second language or as a native speaker enlarging and improving his vocabulary, pictures are of vast importance as tools of teaching (p. 31).

Pictures functioning to introduce vocabulary items frequently bring in an element of interest as they do so. Many modern American dictionaries abound with little pictures that instantly clarify and entertain. In the English-teaching context, another benefit results from using visual aids of this sort: the picture can often remove the need to translate. The teacher can avoid returning continuously to Pharsi for definitions, and this will, hopefully, benefit the students' auditory grasp of the new language.

In the most simple form, the teacher holds up a picture of an object, say, a tree, to the class, points to it and speaks the word. The class may be asked such questions as "What is it?" and repeating elementary practice of the word, along and in a sentence, may follow (Politzer and Politzer, 1978, p. 43).

A suggested activity is to develop a group of questions concerning a "target" picture. Frey (1970, p. 31) indicates that the picture

is best if it "shows action, several people, varied facial expressions, and a multiplicity of articles. . ." The picture can present a framework and control that brings structure to vocabulary exercises. For example, one picture may show a group of four children, both boys and girls, playing with a dog. Another boy is watching but not participating in the play. Ask questions such as "What is the boy with the striped shirt looking at?" "What is he thinking?" "Why isn't he playing with the others?" "What is the girl with the long hair doing?" "Where is the dog?" All of the questions refer to the picture on which the students are concentrating. A coherent story may be constructed, providing a valuable learning and talking experience. Ideally, pairs of students or small sub-groups should work with the teacher on such dialogues, but a larger class could become involved as well-provided that the picture can be seen clearly by each and that the teacher involves as many students as possible.

The same picture can be reused later in order to check the development of vocabulary and patterns. It also can be springboard for writing exercises which let the students create their own story centered around the scene. The better the quality of the picture, the more likely that extensive use can be made of it.

More Complex Language Constructions

Pictures have numerous uses in teaching more extended construction. The teacher is limited only by his creativity. Politzer and Politzer (1972) list some of their ideas:

- (1) Description of a scene or action. After presenting a picture, the words for elements of the picture--peo-

ple, objects, actions taking place--are introduced. Questions are asked about relationships and actions in the picture. This enables contextual presentation of the vocabulary words.

- (2) The type in which every sentence can be learned by the student is accompanied by one picture. Two types:
 - (a) The picture is used to convey the exact semantic content of the sentence. The student hears the sentence "A man is entering the room," and he sees the picture of a man entering a room.
 - (b) An approach combining "an individual structure with a single picture, conveys the exact meaning of the structure." Can give effective visual reinforcement (p. 44).
- (3) A more linguistic use of the pictorial aid is made when it serves to teach a difference in meaning or a construction which is difficult for the student to grasp or which is at least unusual from the point of view of his native language.
- (4) To help the student distinguish between expressions which may seem to lack clear differentiation in construction, to sound alike; to show the different meanings of words with multiple meanings. For example, two-part words such as "get up, get off, get on, get in," etc., often cause confusion (p. 45).
- (5) Structural diagramming of sentence patterns is a linguistically-oriented approach. Such a project would need careful planning but could bring a large pay-off (p. 46).
- (6) A picture chart may be used to illustrate a grammatical category.

For example, we may compose a series of pictures of a picture chart illustrating verbs which can be followed by adjectives (the coffee smells good; the apple tastes sweet; the boy looks healthy) or perhaps the verbs which do not normally occur in the be plus 'ing' form for the present progressive tense: I speak, I am speaking--but this same operation cannot be performed with I understand, I need, I know, and so on. Such a chart may contain pictures associated with sentences such as: He understands English; he needs money; he knows my brother, etc. (p. 46).

It is clear that many uses can be made of pictures. Most of these same uses can be applied to pictures in projections, film strips, etc., but with simple unprojected pictures the teacher has a wider selection to choose from, a lower price tag, and a great deal of control in constructing the aids.

Making Picture Aids

Huebener (1959) recommends that pictures used as a basis for conversation practice and oral exercises should be large and clear; it is important that every student be able to see the details that form the foci of the discussion. Coloration is also desirable. Potential sources of such pictures are magazine covers or full-page illustrations and advertisement. Any pictures found useful should be mounted and given clips or hooks; then they can be hung easily at the front of the room, thus freeing the teacher's hands. They can be utilized in other forms as well, e.g., on a flannelboard, on a poster, and on flashcards.

Several series of manufactured pictures for teaching English as a second language are available, but they may be beyond the budget of many schools and may not meet all needs. Pictures made by teachers locally or by their pupils may be well-made and functional even if they have less finish than purchased pictures (Huebener, 1959). In particular, they may be specially planned to fit the needs of the class.

Huebener cautions that

. . . good "home-made" wall pictures cannot be produced overnight; their making calls for sustained and cooperative rather than brief and individual effort (p. 117).

However, they need not be overly elaborate. (Note: some suggestions

for making them may be found on pp. 69-67 of Huebener.)

Finocchiaro (1964) suggests some basic criteria for preparation of pictures.

- (1) Pictures should have no captions--when reading is begun, related flash cards can be prepared to permit matching drills.
- (2) Pictures should be large enough to be seen by the entire class.
- (3) They should be uncluttered.
- (4) They should be in color whenever possible so that language related to colors can be practiced when colors are presented, e.g., 'What color is the . . .?' 'How many red _____ are there?' 'Who is wearing the blue _____?' (p. 112).

The teacher with a good and judicious selection of pictures and a knack for making new pictures to fit his needs has truly extended his language-teaching ability. The only shortcoming of pictures is that many of them are too small, in the forms in which they are available, to be seen from all seats in the classroom. Ironically, one of the most severe flaws in the schoolroom construction--the small size that forces such crowding and restlessness--can work to the teacher's benefit here. At least all of the seats are relatively close to the front so the students can see more details of the pictorial aids. Hopefully, this situation will change. After all, projected pictures can reach wide audiences; teachers do not have to be dependent on cutouts from magazines.

The reason so much attention has been given to the use of pictures is that they are the simplest and most available visual aid for teachers in Iran. More information about complex and expensive visual

aids such as film strips, slides, audio devices, and features of a well-equipped language lab or electronic language classroom could have been included in this paper. However, this was not done because it is doubtful that those sorts of materials will enter widespread use in Iran. Unfortunately, educational administrative authorities do not believe in spending even enough money for English instructors; they think there are better ways and more vital aspects of education on which they should spend educational funds. What has been done in this section is to introduce the simplest and the least expensive audiovisual devices for English teachers in Iran. The teachers can provide these devices with the help of their students without depending on authorities or waiting for money for purchases. The more complex visual and mechanical aids are vitally important, but as a realist, these simple aids should be stressed most.

Flashcards

Having a good set of flashcards will be helpful for the teacher of English. A flashcard is most commonly made by writing (in print or script) individual words on cards, which are then quickly presented to the class. The word "flash" comes for the practice of showing the card for only a moment or two, demanding quick recognition and response. An alternative use of flashcards is for presenting phrases or short sentences; however, long sentences are not intended for flashcard drill. "The idea is that the sentence shall be read (i.e., seen and understood) very quickly, in a single glance if possible and not by painful letter by letter or syllable by syllable 'sounding' out'" (Lee, 1968, p. 46).

The appropriate size for a flashcard may vary with the size of the

classroom, but probably about twelve inches long and four inches wide is best (Ghaffoori, 1976, p. 84) Commonly suggested materials for making flashcards are thin "oaktag" and thin cardboard. For organizing these cards, a file can be made with categories as used in storing the pictures. The print on a flashcard should be very clear and capable of serving as a good model in English writing.

The teacher can use the cards by simply presenting the card, pronouncing the word, and asking the class to repeat it. Beginners can be asked to match the cards with pictures at a very early stage of the language learning. An alternative is to put pictures or simple sketches on flashcards and asking students to match the cards with words written on the blackboard or elsewhere. Flashcards, either with pictures or printed words, can be used as word cues in oral substitution drills. Another use is giving the native word for the foreign word, and vice-versa. Note that many of these uses are most appropriate for students at a beginning level (Huebener, 1959, p. 116).

Flashcards can be especially helpful in teaching symbols of a phonetic alphabet. As Lado (1964) states:

To practice pronunciation and the symbols of a phonetic alphabet, the cards may have individual phonetic or phonemic symbols or words in phonetic or phonemic transcription. The cards are shown to the student, who attempts to pronounce what he sees. The back of the card gives the words in ordinary spelling as a means to check. When the problem is single sound, it can be identified by underlining the appropriate letters in the words. Properly designed and used, flashcards can be very helpful in teaching and studying language (p. 197).

Huebener (1959) suggested the following types of flashcards use:

- (1) using the foreign word in a sentence

- (2) using the foreign word in a question
- (3) giving a synonym for the foreign word
- (4) giving an antonym for the foreign word
- (5) pronouncing the foreign word, using it in a sentence, and pointing out the object, if possible
- (6) giving two other words belonging to the same word family
- (7) giving a definition of the word (p. 116-17).

Since modern psychology has shown that memory can be facilitated by grouping together similar words and memorizing them in a cluster, flashcard use should take this into consideration. Perhaps two or more words could be printed on the same flashcard.

It is easy to see how flashcards could fit into the classroom day-to-day work. For example, why not utilize them for reviewing words, asking the students to "make your own sentences using this word." Students can be encouraged to make their own smaller versions of the flashcards, which can be very efficient for conducting drills by oneself. Perhaps extra credit could be arranged for the student who makes and uses the flashcards.

Flashcards are not new in Iran, although their use seems to still be spreading. They have the excellent quality of being easy to prepare and relatively inexpensive. Professionally-made flashcards can be purchased, but these are really unnecessary. An advantage of flashcards is that the teacher can control the pace of student response, gradually speeding it up.

Charts

Simple charts can be constructed and used in many contexts. If possible, they can be displayed permanently in the classroom, but also can be stored easily in a closet until needed, and carried from room to room without difficulty. The best base to use for a chart is light but stiff cardboard, with lettering in black ink. Care should be taken that the charts are kept clean, and one must strive for clear, neat, and uniform lettering. Wall charts could be made in various colors as well.

Huebener (1959) clarifies the nature of charts as follows:

These may include tabular arrangements of words for pronunciation, verb paradigms, classroom expressions, and the vowel triangle. The latter and the pronunciation charts are useful in beginner's classes. The difference between a chart and flashcard is that charts present material in tabular or systematic arrangement, that they are permanently on display in the classroom, and they are usually referred to with a pointer (p. 117).

The best size for a chart depends on whether easy probability is a factor or not.

The teacher can put material on a chart which he often finds cause to refer to. He can also make a chart with pictures that are cohesive and can be used effectively in drills. When pictures are mounted on a chart, they may be used in many of the ways suggested in the section on pictures.

Commercial charts can be purchased and mounted on a chart stand which may vaguely resemble a painter's easel. If handled frequently, such charts may have a tendency to become torn and soiled, so the teacher should be cautious.

Posters

Posters are large scale, simplified pictorial illustrations designed to attract attention to key ideas, facts, or events. They are innately simple and dynamic. They function primarily to motivate or arouse interest, and to remind students of what they have learned in another language.

This visual aid is often obtainable from foreign countries and used to illustrate the language clearly and simply. These posters, whether large or small, can be placed in the classroom. They should be simple in nature, and printing may be included but it should be readable from a long distance.

English language teachers can use them for oral dialogues, information about the country, or even for written compositions. There is much opportunity for a teacher who is studying language in a foreign country to obtain as many of these posters as possible; this is beneficial for they can then be used in the classroom as soon as he begins his teaching career as an instructor of English as a second language in Iran.

Flannelboard or Flannelograph

The flannelboard is constructed easily and with relatively little cost. An inexpensive square of white or green flannel cloth should be tacked or fastened in some way to a 24 square inch square of backing material such as wook, cardboard, etc. For larger groups, this size sould probably be increased. Figures and letters can then be cut out of flannel. When they are pressed, they stick to the backing. An ex-

cellent alternative is to use pictures or cutouts, making them stick to the flannel by glueing them to a small piece of flannel or sandpaper (with rough side out). They will then adhere to the backing board with little or no pressure, but can be removed instantly. The advantage of this setup is that the pictures or flannel items can be easily moved to any position on the board; they can be taken off and replaced without effort.

This quality of being easily modifiable is what lends the flannelboard its usefulness. As pointed out by Lee (1968, p. 31) "A blackboard picture cannot be modified unless a part of it is rubbed out and something different substituted. Wall pictures are still less modifiable." One can collect a stockpile of pictures, figures, and objects that can be at one's disposal in classroom use. If the teacher is careful, the flannelboard pieces may last a very long time. These pictures can have the detail which one desires, since they do not have to be drawn and redrawn on the blackboard again and again. The pictures enable a story, conversation, or dialogue to be built up visually step by step, as each picture or cutout is put up on the backing. Also ". . . the scenes and incidents of the story can be made to succeed one another rapidly. Here we have a medium which is halfway to film and yet completely under the teacher's control" (Lee, 1969, p. 32).

Lee (1969) points out that the flannelboard should be considered truly effective only if it is used to stimulate natural and enjoyable oral prouction. Simple figures can be used to indicate role changes in dialogues; a creative teacher can place an interesting combination of pictures up on the flannelboard and ask pupils to construct explanations of the resulting scene or situation.

Story telling is not, of course, the only type of oral work to which the flannelboard and similar apparatus are suited. Flannelboard pictures are usable in the same way as other pictures for vocabulary building, to create language-teaching situations not discoverable in the classroom itself, to bring an extra variety and fun, and so forth (p. 32).

The flannelboard could have some uses when the pupils are beginning to read, but flashcards may be found preferable.

Unfortunately, the examples for flannelboard use which were offered in the references gave a distinct impression of being geared toward elementary school children. For example, uses cited (Lee, 1969, p. 33) included telling the story of Goldilocks and The Three Bears, playing games such as "Add on Poor Jim." At the secondary school level such activities would be ridiculous. The question to be asked is "Does the flannelboard have a use with mature students?" As long as the teacher is creative and avoids silliness, the answer should be "yes." The chief merit of the flannelboard--easy modifiability--remains. The flannelboard should be used when a display of quickly changing cues and pictures is desired. Sentence substitution drills and the like are appropriate activities for this medium. The flannelboard is not common in Iran at present, and teachers should be made aware of its potentialities.

Projected Materials

Color Slides

If a teacher or school system can afford to purchase a slide projector and make slides, they have access to some extremely vivid and detailed visual aids. To prepare slides, one needs to have a good

camera or be able to borrow one. The pictures are taken with color film, sent to a film-processing laboratory, and the laboratory mounts the finished product. Slides are ready for projection when sent back by the processors, so "relatively little time goes into the mechanics of processing and mounting" (Kemp, 1979, p. 42). Although for copy work and for closeup pictures, special attachments are required for cameras, for most purposes an 35 mm camera will be quite satisfactory.

Slides generally measure approximately 6 cm x 6 cm; thus they are compact enough to file in relatively small storage cases and are easy to handle. Hill (1967, p. 139) points out some of the advantages of slides. One can choose whatever order one likes in which to show the slides. One can take further photographs at any time for supplementing the slide collection. It is easy to remove any slides that turn out to be dull or confusing. And, very importantly, slides have vivid colors (Hill, 1967):

I find that color is a great help in seizing and holding the interest of a class. It is also much better than black and white for linguistic purposes: colors provide more to talk and ask questions about ('Look at that boy in a yellow shirt. What's he doing? He's throwing a ball to the boy in a pale blue shirt,' etc.) (p. 139).

Kemp (1975, p. 42) has noticed some disadvantages with slides however; they can get out of order easily; they can be misplaced (notably common is the tendency to leave the last slide in a projector and forgetting about it); they can be put into the projector upside down or backwards and cause irritating delays. Any person who has watched a teacher become more and more irritated at a jammed slide or a projector that won't behave can understand that slides are not always a modern

miracle. Most of these problems can apparently be solved by placing the slides into slide trays or magazines which can be bought at the store, but that means even more expense.

Slides can be used for any of the classroom activities covered in the picture section. Kemp (1975) suggests making use of modern machinery to facilitate slide use:

. . . automatic and remotely controlled projectors permit an instructor, while making his presentation, to make slide changes himself. Tape recordings can be prepared to accompany slides and, with special recording equipment, slides can be shown automatically as the taped narration is played. The development of small, compact viewers also opens many possibilities for using slides with or without taped narration for self-instructional purposes (p. 42).

Janssens (1977) makes some insightful observations on the combined use of slides and audio equipment:

- (1) Pictures and sounds cause surprise, awaken curiosity, and increase or sustain interest. Pictures are powerful eye-catchers.
- (2) Pictures and sounds appeal to the eye and the ear, the two foremost senses called upon in language teaching.
- (3) They incite the pupil to critical observation and give support to his visual memory. They help to fill or to correct vague or false concepts the pupil may have formed about the things shown so they are genuine pupil-centered teaching aids.
- (4) Therefore they constitute a valuable addition, and often an alternative, to the coursebook and the printed word.
- (5) The English commentator's rendering of the text is different from and very probably better than the teacher's; for the class it provides extra listening practice.
- (6) This sort of material can be used with almost any course at any time, but at early advanced level

courses less as a reward before breaking up than as a course-integrated means to practice language skills within a framework of cultural understanding.

- (7) It proves an excellent offshoot to a sensible range of follow-up tasks and exercises (pp. 47-48).

Obviously, slide equipment can become quite sophisticated. It is doubtful that Iranians will have much access to such equipment in the immediate future.

Sets of transparencies can tell a story. For example, five to ten pictures can be arranged along a story line. Details can be flushed out in classroom participatory activities (Hill, 1967):

If one chooses one's scenes carefully, it is possible to produce a series of transparencies which can be used with classes of different levels by varying the difficulty of the vocabulary and structures one uses. For instance, with a lower class one can say, "The girl's tooth is hurting very much," while in a higher class it might be, "The girl has a violent toothache." And "They are leaving their house. They will go to the dentist's house" can become "They are leaving their house for the dentist's" (p. 140).

Hill (1967) also gives the following examples of how color transparencies arranged in series can be used for aural comprehension work, oral composition work and written composition work, as follows:

(i) The teacher shows the pictures one after the other, telling the story, with close reference to the pictures, as he goes along, and using vocabulary and structures which are either known to the students or clear from the context supplied by the pictures. In the case of new words and structures, he ensures that they recur often enough in what he says to give the students a chance to absorb them. If he wishes, he can write the new words and structures up on the blackboard at this stage. If he does not want to interrupt the story to do this, he should write them up after finishing.

(ii) The teacher shows the pictures again, asking questions which stimulate the class to build up the story orally. He

can ask either for general responses from all pupils in the class who have something to say, or for individual responses from named pupils. I prefer the former technique, as it keeps the whole class keen. There is nothing more frustrating for children who are deeply interested and eager to talk than to have to keep silent while one of their number monopolizes the class time.

(iii) The teacher shows the pictures again, while the pupils tell the story without questions from the teacher. If necessary, they can be helped by having keywords and structures written on the blackboard. The aim at this stage is rapid, fluent talking, not slow, laborious searching for words and structures which have been imperfectly mastered.

(iv) The pupils are asked to write the story told by the pictures as homework or in class. If the teacher thinks it advisable, he can prepare the pupils for this work by getting them to go through the story orally once more in class, while one of the pupils writes it on the blackboard. During this activity, the pupils should not be allowed to write anything down themselves. The advantage of this work is that it diminishes the mistakes that the pupils make in their own writing of the story: it is perfectly obvious that everytime a student writes a mistake, he is fixing it more firmly in his subconscious, so the more we can do to give our pupils practice in writing correct English instead of wrong English, the more they will benefit (p. 140).

Slides can be used to teach culture, and also can be purchased commercially to accompany various reading texts.

It is obvious that slides have many constructive uses. Unfortunately, according to Rivers (1968, p. 1) "When slides are mentioned, most people think of the teacher illustrating a prepared talk with them. This results in passive learning with no active pupil participation."

The amount of active participation all depends on the way the teacher learns to handle the class. Slides are excellent for eliciting oral practice and should not be used without taking advantage of this quality.

Filmstrip

A filmstrip resembles a series of slide connected in a close sequence and projected by a special filmstrip projector. The sequence is fixed, but the teacher has the freedom to move at his own pace when progressing through this sequence. A screen is needed for projection purposes, and the room must be darkened. Lee, (1968, pp. 36-37) notes, "Each frame, be it a photograph or a drawing or a matchstick sketch, colored or black and white, may be used for oral work . . ."

Filmstrips are often more suitable for instruction in the early levels of language learning than are radio, sound movies, and television. The teacher can compose captions which use language items within the students' capacity. To tape record such captions would be relatively easy. If it is useful for the teacher to stop a long time at one picture, he has that option, or he can move through the strip regularly and quickly. There is no problem of projecting pictures upside down or sideways or out of order, as with slides. The teacher can also easily turn back or move forward to skip frames if some of them are not found useful. Finocchiaro (1964, p. 129) notes, "The same filmstrip can be used again and again during the course to provide practice on captions, utterances, or sentences at a progressively higher level."

To make a filmstrip is possible but can be quite expensive. Although the teacher may not be totally satisfied, purchasing a few strips for permanent use in the school is probably the best policy. Another alternative is to have the school system purchase a small library of filmstrips and rotate them around the individual schools. The best course would be to allocate at least one projector permanently to each

school, since such equipment is delicate and will have a reduced life-span if moved around from school to school.

One aspect of the filmstrip for teaching English is that the sequenced strips may present a sequence of events. This gives the opportunity to use different tenses, and hence is a very natural situation for intense oral practice on this subject (Lee, 1968):

'Jeremy Day' is an example of such a strip. After Jeremy has been seen getting up, having breakfast, going to school, etc., the teacher can turn back to the first frame and ask, "What is Jeremy going to do next?" "He is going to have breakfast." Later she can ask what Jeremy did before breakfast. "He got up," etc. (p. 37).

The filmstrip described above is a commercial product made to be used in British schools. Lee points out that only a few filmstrips have been made specifically to teach English as a second language in foreign countries. Some are available, however. The teacher should decide whether this medium is better with or without captions. Students can be encouraged to make their own explanations of what is happening, another valuable activity.

The teacher has more control over the filmstrip that he does over films, but less control that with slides or the overhead projector. The quality of the filmstrip picture compared with slides should be a vital factor in deciding which of these two options is preferable, but this quality would vary from slide to slide and strip to strip. A school would not be making the best use of its money, however, if it invested in both due to the overlapping types of uses. Just as with slides, filmstrips are quite compact and can be stored easily, but they probably are less expensive to reproduce if one wants additional copies

of the strips one already has. The advantages and disadvantages of one as opposed to the other balance out.

The Overhead Projector

Overhead transparencies, projected on a wall or screen, are a first-rate form of audiovisual aid; they have the great virtue of being easy to prepare locally. Moreover, the overhead projectors are often light-weight and efficient, easy for the teacher to control, and relatively available even in Iranian schools.

The instructor stands near the front of the room, with his back to the projection screen and the projector next to him. The room light does not have to be turned off, but should be at a moderate level. The projector has a "stage" on which transparencies (prepared beforehand) are laid, and they are reflected clearly on the screen, greatly enlarged and hence visible by large groups (Kemp, 1975, p.43). The instructor can talk to the students without having to turn his back, which should be greatly appreciated. He can change transparencies whenever he likes; the instructor controls the speed.

Blank transparent sheets can be laid on the stage and the teacher can write on them. His work then can be enlarged clearly on the screen without delay; he can scratch things out or point to them at will. Writing can be rubbed out, but this may be a bit messy--no more so, however, than with a blackboard. An innovation in recent years is to fasten a whole roll of transparent plastic film to the side of the projector and roll a fresh section of film onto the stage whenever the old section is filled up with writing and sketches and no longer needed. This is one of the special features that makes the overhead projector

so flexible (Kemp, 1979, p. 43).

Obviously, for impromptu use no special skills at making transparencies are necessary. However, some types of transparencies are more complex, even if more rewarding to use, and they require experience in photography and the graphic arts, or at least a great deal of training and practice, in order to be well-made. Detailed transparencies can be kept in a permanent file, so once the effort is made to make these, one does not have to worry about short transparency lifespan.

Rhodri and Jones (1978) make an excellent discussion of the overhead projector, some main points of which are:

- (1) They are very easy to operate. Switch on, and you can show your transparencies in any order you wish. Switch off, and nothing is competing with you for the class's attention. The trick is to put your transparency on the glass plate before switching on, which avoids a lot of disconcerting waving about on the screen.
- (2) The overhead projector can be placed very near the projection screen, so the teacher can also be at the front of the class facing his students, ready to spot their reactions or to ask them questions about what they see.
- (3) There is no need for blackout curtains, as overhead projectors can be used in any conditions except strong direct sunlight. However, it is worth having a test run in an unfamiliar classroom to see if there are any sight-line problems. A lesson phase can be got out of asking the individual students what they can or cannot see.
- (4) The horizontal working surface is easy to write on, or put things on without the problem of their falling off, as they are prone to do even on the best-behaved flannel- and magnet-boards.
- (5) You can prepare material in advance and store it after use. For instance, you can keep a transparency of a dictation passage and just switch it on when it is needed, saving an awful lot of blackboard work. There is also the opportunity to get perfect pictures in the privacy of one's own home instead of having to get them right first time on the blackboard.

- (6) You can move things about, add to them, make them disappear, refer to them ten minutes later, change the visual situation in a thousand and one ways. More of this later, because it is perhaps the overhead projector's greatest virtue (pp. 194-95).

On the whole, the overhead projector makes it possible to view one's own pictures, diagrams, and other illustrative materials for as extended a period as is wished; whatever English language teaching exercises one chooses can be elucidated with the projected images. An inherent attention-focusing element is present on the screen, alleviating the problems of teaching a large class which is full of minor distractions. Together, these benefits constitute an effective and flexible tool for teaching; especially if the teacher becomes adept with transparency use. For best use, the familiar principles of good English instruction should be remembered: the teacher should make sure that materials have been previewed and selected with the appropriate lesson in mind; the class must be prepared, given directions on what to look for and made as motivated as possible; the teacher should use good projection techniques and ensure as much class participation as possible, and followup is planned and carried out effectively (Esrighi, 1978, p. 61).

Of all the projected materials, the overhead mechanism is the one most heartily recommended for Iran. Expense is not as great as for most other projectors in view of the great applicability; as mentioned before, overhead projectors can even now be found in some Iranian classrooms, although not necessarily for English teaching. Finally, the students sitting at the back of the classroom are not going to be shortchanged; the visibility is quite impressive in modern models of

the overhead projector. Hopefully, the Iranian school administration will continue to provide this useful machinery.

Television

Like the motion picture, television engages both the observer's eyes and ears, and thus brings him into contact with the presented material in an exciting manner. Televised shows in another language provide a challenge to the viewer's comprehension skills that, along with films, is beyond compare. The television screen is smaller than the motion picture screen, and hence is more appropriate for small groups.

In order to make the best use of this medium, students should always be prepared beforehand with clear information about what they will see and what they are expected to learn, and afterwards followup activities should be done (Finocchiaro, 1958):

Research projects and television teaching experiences have demonstrated that the classroom teacher or language teacher must listen with the children and reinforce the language content with related language activities as soon as possible after the televised program (p. 125).

If video equipment is available and videotapes are recorded locally, careful planning is in order. Huebener (1969, p. 125) states that "the limitations of time and space compel succinctness and clarity of explanation." Making language-teaching shows can have the great advantage of allowing one to select the best audiovisual media to serve program needs; allowing one to shift from one medium to another while the program is being made; and allowing resources to be presented which are normally unavailable (Kemp, 1976, p. 45).

A shortcoming of television is that, like radio, the communication

is one-way (Huebener, 1959):

The teacher on T.V. has no rapport with the students; he cannot tell what effect his words and actions are having on them. The student can ask no question; the teacher can give no answers (p. 125).

The use of followup discussions can alleviate this problem to some extent.

The use of television is not limited to the classroom. In those Iranian families with television sets, the children may have access to English-language programs broadcast with Pharsi subtitles. This can be considered invaluable. However, the current political changes in Iran should not be considered a medium applicable for instruction of English, and this is regrettable. Since televisions are certainly beyond the budget of public schools as well, the English teacher should not have high expectations of being able to utilize them. It is unfortunate that the best equipment is so expensive, but this cannot be changed.

Films

An audiovisual medium with great appeal is the motion picture. More than for any other aid discussed here, the motion picture combines the visual and the auditory aspects of communication in a realistic manner. The effect of films on students can be highly intense and the learning may be more impressive than with many other instructional approaches. The film dialogue exposes students to spoken English and enables them to develop sensitivity to conversational skills.

The use of films to manipulate student motivation is commented on by McKnow and Roberts (1949):

Sometimes we hear a child say, "I am going to Europe with my parents next summer so I must learn to speak well," and we find that his interest needs no further artificial prodding and remains high for an entire ten months. But for the child or even the older student who is not going to Europe in the immediate future, every help must be employed toward obtaining a permanent and satisfying motivation for learning a foreign language. This is where a talking film can do more than any other medium, considering the time and expense involved. The student is confronted with a change of environment sufficiently forceful to challenge his reactions as if he were suddenly dropped into a foreign backyard and abruptly asked the password for admittance to the club (p. 493).

Few students will find their minds wandering if an interesting film of the appropriate language level is projected.

Kemp (1979, p. 43) indicates that films are appropriate whenever motion is inherent in a subject or you wish to show relationships of one idea to another, to build a continuity of thought, or to create a dramatic impact. Another possibility is to use films to present aspects of a country's culture and literature.

Unfortunately, motion pictures--whether 8 mm or 16 mm--can be quite costly. The motion picture projector has high purchase and maintenance costs, and few teachers will have equipment for making films themselves. If films were to be implemented, the school system should develop a library of educational films which would then be available to individual schools. The teacher is restricted to using films as a packaged product; in other words, he does not have a great deal of control over content and useful material may be mixed in with the extraneous; appropriate vocabulary may be mixed in with quite difficult words. There are many practical difficulties surrounding the use of films, but they are worth the effort if available.

Specific applications in the language class will not be discussed

here, in view of the unlikelihood of their being included in school budgets. The applications would vary depending on what films were available. If films are used, the habit of preparing students beforehand and having followup activities should be developed.

In this chapter, audiovisual materials and their use were discussed. Most of these audiovisual materials are relatively new to Iranian school or else completely unknown there. Decisions are going to have to be made about which of these aids will be utilized, and about what equipment to be purchased. The Ministry of Education and the school boards need to plan their budget carefully. Perhaps the following chart can help the reader to compare the advantages and limitations of each aid-category, as well as the relative cost. Having a clear idea about each of these is a big help in using them also (Kemp, 1975).

This chart has three positive points:

- (1) By looking through the advantages, one will be motivated to find ways to make use of them in the particular areas where each is most applicable.
- (2) The limitations are made plain in the description of the disadvantages of use of each type of aid, and the reasons why they cannot be used for all purposes are brought into perspective.
- (3) Some aids seem quite useful and there are relatively few limitations, and each language teacher will wish to have them in his class. But the cost is a big element to select them. Some schools are able to pay the high price, but most are not (p. 47).

This summary of characteristics of audiovisual materials helps one to decide on what he needs in regard to their ability to spend money.

CHAPTER V

A VISUAL AIDS PACKET FOR THE
TEACHING OF ENGLISH
IN IRAN

Rationale for the Chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a packet that illustrates how visual techniques may be used to teach English in Iran. It is not enough to say audiovisual aids are useful; steps must be taken to make teachers aware of this and to facilitate their use in present-day classrooms. Attention should be paid to the way these materials can best be used by teachers accustomed to a grammar-translation approach and to how teachers will view the change.

A first possibility is to make changes in the teacher-training college programs and instruct the teachers in training in effective utilization of audiovisuals. In this way younger employees moving into teaching positions will be more likely to make use of the new skills. However, English language teachers who are presently spread throughout the school system have all the problems (lack of equipment and inability to use proper methods) mentioned in Chapter I. How is it possible to influence them to change, to convince them to make full use of available material and to create new materials?

One of the ways which is not completely unknown in the Iranian system is teaching seminars. Seminars are sometimes conducted in sum-

mer months for various academic areas such as English and mathematics. Teachers can attend the seminars or take the summer courses from their town university in order to refresh their knowledge or keep up with new developments. Generally these classes are offered in each main town, in other words in about 15 cities in Iran. Also, teachers could be encouraged to attend such seminars by being given bonuses or other benefits. If a seminar could be developed which emphasized audiolingual theory and use of audiovisuals, a start would be made toward spreading this knowledge into the schools.

Since teachers' inability to speak English themselves interferes with their function of passing on speech habits to students, whatever changes that would foster improvements in these educators' linguistic ability in English should be aimed for. While informing teachers about the audiolingual approach, seminars should also help them improve their pronunciation, idiomatic knowledge, grammar, etc. Teachers simply cannot teach students how to speak English unless they know how to do so themselves.

A second route of access to English teachers is by means of observers from the Ministry of Education. Observers are qualified in current standards for different educational areas such as mathematics, social science, English, etc. They visit classes at regular (but not frequent) intervals and observe the teachers at work, making notes while watching and sometimes asking the students questions. After inspections they have a private meeting with each individual teacher and make comments on his work, encouraging him to improve his teaching quality. If observers bring an audiovisual aid packet or at least understand the principles of this methodology, they can become good

sources for helping the teachers to modernize their methods. The Ministry of Education therefore needs to provide a simple, practical manual for audiovisual aids, including a discussion of how to make them and how to best use them.

Other sources of information are clearly inadequate. Some professional journals exist. Articles concerning audiovisual methods and materials can reach some teachers, but since English instructors are not being personally encouraged, this is less likely to influence them to change their methods than the prior two alternatives. Circulations are also limited; most teachers cannot afford to subscribe to many magazines and may not be interested. This leads us to a very important point: lack of motivation among teachers. The primary responsibility for all changes, the primary effort, must come from the teacher himself. What reward is he going to get that will make the effort worthwhile? Clearly the salary and job status of the teachers must be improved. But if immediate changes are not forthcoming, will the teachers in Iran care enough to incorporate audiovisials into their classroom work?

The clear implication of the audiovisual descriptions in the previous chapters is that these aids can help both student and teacher in Iran. The teacher can do a more effective job, can enhance his own skills, and can make his work go easier. Moreover, when the students are more interested and attentive, the discipline jobs that fall to the teacher will not take so much time and effort. And the teacher should be pleased that he has increased student motivation:

Enjoyment of one's work and pride in one's accomplishment are important motivations in almost every occupation, and more so in teaching than in most . . . An individual, having joined a given occupation, concentrates his reward-seeking

energies at those points where effort makes the largest difference in his total rewards (Silberman, 1970, p. 269).

Silberman makes another comment that is relevant here. He says that research has shown that in teaching, one's efforts generally bear little relation to extrinsic rewards (e.g., salary and status) for these are as a rule determined by length of service and degrees acquired. More-over, "ancillary rewards" (e.g., job security, long vacations) may have a large role in attracting people into the teaching profession in the first place, but they make little difference once a person is already a teacher; they are identical for almost everyone with a teaching job. "Intrinsic reward, such as satisfaction and pride of accomplishment, on the other hand, are related to effort. It is not surprising therefore that teachers show more concern for intrinsic than for extrinsic or ancillary rewards" (p. 70). Silberman refers to a study by Dan C. Lartie of the University of Chicago in which teachers cited as the most important reward the fact that they "reached" students and that the students really learned.

With this in mind, an attitude of optimism toward the possibility of change in Iran will be taken. The following teaching packet will try to make learning the use of audiovisual aids as simple as possible. It is to be used as a tool in easing the job of the teacher, although it is just a starting point for the truly creative person.

Visual aids cannot be separated from the audio aspect of language: speech is what the visual aids are intended to facilitate. Pictures are intended to provide cues in drills or stimuli for conversation, etc. Visual aids cannot be of any help unless the teacher develops a lesson plan that integrates oral work with the pictures. This packet is de-

signed to help students do this, so the focus will be on visual aids.

Audio-aid programming plans require less explanation in that they have the same basic character as any audio classwork. The various spoken materials that the teacher incorporates in his classroom lessons include textbook passages, dialogues, drills, and supplementary materials. These are also the substance of work with tape recorders. To transfer textbook material to tape the only need is for a good reader. To transfer drills, a source of drills is needed, but this is not problematic. The patterns of major drill types is given in Appendix E. The teacher can write his own drills, according to his needs, from these patterns. Also, English books are available that provide numerous drills; these could be supplied in libraries or supplied to teachers by the Iran Ministry of Education along with the teachers' textbook manuals. If funds were available for supplying tape recorders, it would be a minor step further to provide drill guides.

Of course, writing dialogues is not as easy as writing drills, but they, too, are available in books if any effort is made to find them. Interesting supplementary materials may be hard to come by, but short stories, magazine or newspaper articles, news broadcasts, etc. are always within reach. All in all, considering the lack of audiovisual materials of the Iranian school system, it was adjudged a much lesser priority to spell out audio lesson plans in detail in this packet than to teach use of visuals. The materials that follow can be put into immediate use by the Iranian teacher of English.

Overview of the Visual Aids Packet

This packet is not intended to be elaborate. The pictures which

are contained in it can be very useful for communicating lessons to English students, and the teacher who has conducted classes without such pictures should appreciate how they can be integrated with lessons. An attempt will be made to spell out details of a presentation using these words.

At the top of each page is an indication of what category the picture falls into. The packet materials are divided into various categories according to different needs of the Iranian teachers. The first half of the packet is devoted to presentation of vocabulary words that the Iranian students must learn. Some examples are then given of presentation of grammatical principles which should be included in English lessons in Iran, followed by some suggestions which focus on some specific problems of the Iranian students. In view of the applied nature of this material and with consideration of the scope of this paper, analysis will not be made of the subtle linguistic contrasts which emerge as language-learning problems. This is not an analytical linguistics paper.

Moreover, the reader should not assume aids are only useful to clarify the difficult aspects of learning a language. Much language learning is routine, and pictures have much use in day-to-day classroom work, as has been indicated in Chapter Four. They serve to focus attention, and also may function as cues for routine oral work, whether it be drills or dialogues. Thus, this packet will include many suggestions for integrating pictures into ordinary classroom lessons.

Visual Aids Packet

The following visual aids packet should be useful for teachers:

Specific Iranian Application No. 1:Vocabulary Presentation

Iranian students in the past often first encountered vocabulary words from vocabulary lists in textbooks, in written form and out of context. The teacher should make an effort to change this, to present as many words as possible in visual form accompanied by oral repetition of the words. The pictures will give a good visual image and communicate the meaning of the new words instantly to the Iranian students, thus reducing the need for lengthy and time-consuming definitions in Pharsi.

The Iranian teacher should learn to feel comfortable in communicating with the visuals. Also, he should develop skill in presenting the pictures so that all the class can see them. This may be difficult in the Iranian classroom, as mentioned before, since many students are packed into one room. Thus, the overhead projector (or, if possible, some other type of projector) is useful for presenting the visual aids. If the projector is simply not available, the aids should be designed so they are clear from a distance.

A point should be made here with regard to vocabulary lessons. Iranian teachers too often present the words in only one context. They should be aware that it is useful to present a word in a range of its major semantic environments. Only in this way will the students be prevented from developing a fixed association between one word and one meaning. This is a concept that should be kept in mind when presenting the words with visual aids. If the Iranian student is familiar with only one use of a word, due to the fact that it is often not possible

to grasp other meanings by context or analogy, this student may find situations where he is quite confused by a word he thought he was familiar with.

An example of a word that can be confusing to Iranians is the word "over," which cannot be given a narrow definition. This word has at least the following range of meanings, and no word in Pharsi is equivalent to it in more than one of these situations:

The following suggestions for visual aids and sample pictures are selected to illustrate the variety that is so important in conveying a meaning. When several examples are given for each vocabulary word, the teacher can repeat the word, use it in different short sentences, and have students repeat after him to familiarize themselves with oral use of the new word.

Picture suggestions

Picture suggestions for illustrating the use of the word "over" would involve:

(1) A picture or diagram of an unmade bed, perhaps with an unhappy mother (with her hands on her hips and an unhappy face) looking at it. The teacher explains: "the bed is not made. The child did not make his bed. The mother is unhappy because this happens over and over. In other words, it happens many times."

(2) A picture or diagram of the last page of a book, with the words "the end" clearly printed. "The book is over. She was reading the book but now it is finished."

(3) A picture or diagram of a person pointing away at some object. It would also be possible for the teacher to illustrate this

meaning without a picture, by simply pointing at something in the classroom and saying, for example, "that desk is over there in the corner; it is not here by my desk."

(4) A sketch of some skyscrapers and an airplane flying above them. "The plane is over Chicago." The teacher could also use objects in the classroom: "the light is over Ali's head."

(5) The meaning of the phrase to "come over" is difficult to illustrate clearly and simply in a sketch and should be clarified by an oral explanation: "John is my friend and lives next door. He visited me today. He came over to my house today for a visit."

(6) A sketch of a radio with some musical notes shown as coming out of the radio: "The music came over the radio." "The news came over the radio."

- (1) it happens over and over (again and again)
- (2) it's over (finished)
- (3) it's over there (direction)
- (4) the plane is over Chicago (above)
- (5) it came over the radio (was broadcast through the radio medium)
- (6) he came over yesterday (went to a place)

The Iranian student who is taught the word "over" in the context of No. 2 ("finished") would be confused if he encountered it in context No. 1, since to happen "over and over" is not to be "finished and finished." The Pharsi words most close in meaning to "over" in each of these contexts are: (1) dobareh; (2) tamam; (3) anja; (4) bala; (5) to; (6) inga. Thus the Iranian teacher should make use of the pictures

to present all the varied contexts of each word's use, if possible.

A difficulty for the Iranian students when encountering multiple meanings is the fact that it is common for an English word to have both a concrete meaning and an abstract meaning. Unfortunately, although many Iranian vocabulary words also have concrete and abstract meanings, these extensions of meaning are not always made for the same words as English. The very word "concrete" provides an example. It means both a cement-like material for making sidewalks and a real or tangible meaning for a word (as opposed to an abstract meaning). In Pharsi, sidewalks are made out of "gher" and "shen" (which together form cement) and a word has a "pahyā-or asleh" (concrete) meaning. This difference would be difficult to illustrate without visual aids.

Figures illustrating concrete vs.
abstract meaning

Iranian students can expand usage of their new vocabulary words greatly if they can be made aware of concrete and abstract uses. Also, as mentioned at the beginning of the vocabulary section, they can become confused when they encounter these different usages unless they learn them first. The following discussion of "chain" illustrates this point (all figures relating to Chapter V are found in Appendix F).

- (1) a chain. Figure 2 may be used to illustrate the meanings of each of the following sentences.

The teacher repeats

examples: "The dog is chained to the tree."

"She wore a gold chain around her neck."

"My keys are on a chain."

"The door was chained shut."

All of these are concrete uses and could be easily illustrated.

"The people held hands and made a chain."
(Figure 3)

"I must stay chained to my desk until I finish my homework."

As the examples become more and more abstract, they need more explanation.

A very abstract use is "a chain of events."

Teacher's example:

I bought a plant.

I gave the plant to a friend.

She forgot to water the plant.

The plant died.

I became angry at my friend.

Teacher's example:

John was 5 minutes late to work.

Nobody noticed.

The next day John was 10 minutes late to work.

He got in trouble.

The next day John was 15 minutes late to work.

He received a final warning.

The next day John was 5 minutes late to work.

John lost his job.

Another abstract use is "a chain reaction."

One event causes another, which causes another, which causes another, which causes another, etc.

Figure 4 illustrates a "chain reaction."

Teacher's example:

50 cards, each standing up, are lined up in a row.

The first card is pushed over.

All the cards fall over, one after the other.

Signs vs. Symbols

Iranian students tend to confuse the meaning of "symbol" and "signs." A symbol is a visible sign of something which cannot be shown directly. For example, in many countries, including Iran, black is the symbol for death. Figures 5-11 should prove useful in distinguishing between the meaning of these two words.

A sign is a written message. It can be an advertisement or may show the name of a street. When someone wants to sell his car, he may put a "For Sale" sign (Figure 10) in the car's window.

A sign may also be a gesture or means of communicating a thought or wish. A person who waves hello is showing a sign of friendliness (Figure 11). Tears are a sign of sadness.

The Concept of "Combination"

Iranian teachers may find it easier to explain the concept of "combination" to some students when pictures are used. This could not be done as quickly if a mere oral explanation was given. After the primary (pictured) example is given to introduce the word, the teacher can elaborate by given other oral examples. Four such examples are suggested here.

Figures 12, 13, and 14 show a boat, an airplane, and a car. Each of these vehicles is separate. Figure 15 shows a combination of the other three pictures.

The following exercise may be used in conjunction with pictures to help teach the concept of combination:

- (1) The car, boat, and airplane are combined.
- (2) To make bread we combine flour, water, yeast, salt, and sugar.
- (3) I have 50¢ and you have 25¢. If we combine our money we will have 75¢.
- (4) To make chocolate milk we combine chocolate and milk.

Distinguishing the Meanings of "Watch"

At least three meanings of "watch" may be found in English which do not have parallels in Pharsi. The first is the verb meaning to observe or look at something. This can be illustrated by people watching T.V. The teacher can give additional oral examples, such as "A watched pot never boils," or "watch the cookies to make sure they do not burn." After this meaning is introduced, a watchdog can be pictured. The teacher can say: "to keep watch is to guard something, to protect it. The dog is watching over his family's house. The policeman keeps watch for robbers."

The third and final meaning is the noun "watch," meaning a time-piece worn on one's wrist, this is easily sketched, and the teacher can give these examples: "I look at my watch to see what time it is." "My watch is ten minutes slow." "Do you wear a watch?" Each sentence makes the usage clearer.

Distinguishing the Meanings of "Pair"

Iranian students have great difficulty understanding when the word "pair" means two objects and when it means one object. Figures 16 through 20 illustrate this well. Figure 21 shows three feet. This figure may be used with the following exercise to help Iranian students learn the concept "pair."

Here are three feet. I see one pair of feet and an extra foot. I see $1\frac{1}{2}$ pairs of feet. Each pair of feet needs a pair of socks and a pair of shoes.

Idioms

Idioms are always a great obstacle for the Iranian English student since idioms vary so extensively from language to language. The teacher can make a prime use of visual aids for illustrating idioms, also being aided by their attention-getting qualities. They can serve as a focus while he elaborates on idioms related to the pictures. Figures 22 and 23 depict a rose and a clown, respectively. As the following exercises indicate, each picture may be used to illustrate several idioms (colored pictures would certainly be much preferable to black and white ones for the following exercises):

Exercise A - to be used with Figure 22:

- (1) "A thorn in my side" means I am hurt or irritated by something. For example, "My uncle Rasoul is a thorn in my side" means that Uncle Rasoul causes trouble for me. He irritates me. I don't have a good relationship with him.
- (2) "They are painting the roses red" means that they cannot be content with the natural color. They are hiding the natural color. It means that they prefer the artificial to the natural beauty.

- (4) "Red as a rose"--the meaning of this is obvious.

Exercise B - to be used with Figure 23:

- (1) "He's always clowning around" means that he is never serious, he always tries to be funny. "Stop clowning around" means stop acting silly and be more serious.
- (2) "He has a painted smile" means that he is really unhappy but he pretends to be happy. His smile is on the surface and is "painted" and not real.

Other possibilities for illustrating idioms are as follows:

- (1) "It's raining cats and dogs" - It is raining very heavily. Use pictures of cats and dogs.
- (2) "You're really corny" - You act very silly and unsophisticated. A corny song is so silly that one wants to laugh at it. Illustrate with pictures of corn and an example of corny song lyrics.
- (3) "You're the apple of my eye" - You are very special to me. Illustrate with pictures of an apple and an eye. Remember that the pictures should help the idiom stick in the student's mind.
- (4) "My back is to the wall" - I am stuck, I can't go anywhere. Illustrate with picture of a person standing by wall.
- (5) "He's a chicken" - He is a coward. A picture of a frightened chicken will symbolize this.

Specific Iranian Application No. 2:

Parts of Speech

Any language teacher may want to convey the different parts of speech when teaching grammar. Graphic illustrations of people engaging in activities can easily illustrate verbs, for instance. When different verbs are pictured the teacher can use them in drills or use them to facilitate explanations of verb tense changes. Figures 24, 25, 26, and 27 can be used as follows:

(1) Substitution drills:

Teacher (pointing at Figure 24) gives the pattern:

"The woman is crying because she's slicing onions."

Class: "The woman is crying because she's slicing onions."

Teacher: (pointing at Figure 25) "Yelling"

Class: "The man is yelling because he's angry."

Teacher: (pointing at Figure 26) "Yawning"

Class: "The man is yawning because he's tired."

Teacher: (pointing at Figure 27) "Coughing"

Class: "The man is coughing because he's sick."

Question and answer drill:

Teacher: (pointing at Figure 24) "What is the woman doing?"

Class: "The woman is crying."

Teacher: "Why is she crying?"

Class: "Because she is slicing onions."

Teacher: (pointing at Figure 25) "What is the man doing?"

Class: "He is yelling."

etc.

(2) Verb Tenses:

The following exercise may be used with Figure 25.

Teacher: "Present tense."

Class: "The man yells."

Teacher: "Present perfect."

Class: "The man is yelling."

Teacher: "Past tense."

Class: "The man yelled."

Teacher: "Future."

Class: "The man will yell."

etc.

These exercises are invaluable in teaching verb usage. Many elaborations can be made from this basic beginning. As mentioned earlier, oral practice is essential and pictures can serve as cues as well as serving as memory aids.

(3) Adjectives:

In a similar way, pictures can be used to drill students in the use of adjectives (Figures 28, 29, and 30).

a. The baby is young.

--grandfather

The grandfather is old.

--lamb

The lamb is soft.

--turtle

The turtle is hard.

etc.

b. The young baby is smooth.

--grandfather

The old grandfather is wrinkled.

(or)

The wrinkled grandfather is old.

etc.

The contrasts should be easy to see since the pictures offer no cultural interference.

Pictures are also ideal for drill and practice of comparative adjective forms, a source of great difficulty for Iranian students (Figures 29 and 30):

The lamb is softer than the turtle.

The turtle is harder than the lamb.

Who is harder, the turtle or the lamb?

--The turtle is the harder.

--The turtle is the hardest.

etc.

(4) prepositions:

Finally, the use of pictures to illustrate various prepositions may be found quite valuable. Visual materials are especially appropriate for this function because prepositions indicate relationships and these are easier and quicker to clarify with sketches than with extended oral explanations. For example, the word "beside" is simple enough to understand when an illustration is available to show it, but how much time would be needed to "explain" this word? And how could this word be explained without resorting to other prepositions such as "next to" or to the Pharsi equivalent?

As with verbs and adjectives, oral practice is important to insure that the students are mastering these words.

The following prepositions may be easily illustrated in pictures:

- (a) beside (the man is running beside the boy)
on (the boy is on the bicycle)
- (b) behind (the man is behind the tree)
around (the girl is looking around the tree)
on (the man is on the other side of the tree)
- (c) in (the man is in the truck)
inside (the man is inside the truck)
- (d) down (the man is walking down the street)
on (the man is walking on the street)
- (e) down (the squirrel is climbing down the tree)
- (f) in front of (the lion is in front of the bus)
- (g) in front of (the man is standing in front of the truck)
- (h) behind (the elephant is behind the man)
- (i) into (the cat is looking into the fishbowl)
beside (the cat is standing beside the fishbowl)
inside (the fish are inside the fishbowl)
in (the fish are in the water)
in (the water is in the fishbowl)
- (j) on (the girl is sitting on her father's shoulders)
above (the girl's head is above her father's head)
- (k) away from (the girl is looking away from the photographer)

(5) Active Voice vs. Passive Voice

The relationship between active and passive voice involves a rotation in the location of the subject. The same picture can be used to illustrate both sentences patterns are as a cue for practice. Since the change in the verb with passive voice is a stumbling block for many Iranian students, much attention should be paid to their difficulties in mastering correct form. A large amount of practice would be wise. After the lesson is initiated with help of the pictures, the teacher can continue with many unpictured examples.

Constructions:

Figure 31 may be used to teach the following sentence:

The grandmother is pouring tea (teacher points to grandmother).
Tea is being poured by the grandmother (teacher points to tea).

She is holding the cup (teacher points to grandmother).
The cup is being held by her (teacher points to cup).

Figure 32 may be used with the following exercise:

The woman is riding the horse (teacher points to woman).
The horse is being ridden by the woman (teacher points to horse).

The man is watching the horse (teacher points to man).
The horse is being watched by the man (teacher points to horse).

(6) Count Nouns:

As any language teacher knows, some nouns are considered "count nouns" and form plurals differently than non-count nouns. An example of a count noun is a "book". It is possible to picture two books, three books, etc. Books occur in discrete units. However, "water" is a non-count noun. It is not possible to have one water, two waters, three waters, etc. The teacher should have at hand a chart illustrating count nouns to help distinguish them from non-count nouns, which are more difficult to illustrate. Such charts can be used for familiarizing students with the concept involved and for drilling plural formation with count nouns.

Examples of count nouns can be seen in Figures 33-36.

Specific Iranian Application No. 3:

Organization of Clauses and Phrases

One great problem of Iranian students emerges when they try to

generate effective sentences by correctly organizing clauses and phrases. Both in speaking and writing English, a common tendency is to both jumble up relative clauses and to connect far too many ideas together in one string of words, producing extremely confused and run-on sentences. Ghadessy (1975) cites an excellent example of this error:

English language today is as important as which without it we can't be successful in our life, of course for one, another language except his language is a foreign, so english for Iranian is a foreign one, if a university student learn a foreign language like english, he can learn his lessons well by using another books that there are in english language, then he will be successful more easily than if he doesn't know english or other foreign language, and if he become a graduate after university course, he can continue his knowledge by reading english or other foreign books so he is going to be success in his life (p. 74).

Ghadessy (1975) attributes this error to the fact that the students:

have not as yet developed the skill of reducing sentences by either conjunction or embedding. The result is the monotonous repetition of words, phrases, and sentences so characteristic of foreign students' writings (p. 74).

The TESL teacher can use audiovisuals to attack one root of this problem: difficulty in using prepositional phrases and clauses to present several pieces of information in one sentence.

An effective approach would be as follows: select a picture of moderate complexity and write down all the single-clause sentences possible concerning the picture. Figure 37 illustrates a family eating.

In the following exercise, the teacher should point to the appropriate portion of the picture to illustrate the meaning of each sentence:

- (1) Three people are sitting at the table.
- (2) One man is sitting at the table.
- (3) The man is bald.
- (4) Two girls are sitting at the table.
- (5) The girls are young.
- (6) The girls have long, brown hair.
- (7) The girl on the left is wearing an orange and yellow shawl.
- (8) The girl on the right is wearing a blue shirt.

The next step is to combine various pairs of sentences in the most effective compound sentence possible.

- (1) Three people, of which one is a man, are sitting at the table.
- (2) The man who is sitting at the table is bald.
- (3) The bald man is sitting at the table.
- (4) The two girls who are sitting at the table are young.
- (5) The young girl who is sitting on the left is wearing orange and yellow.

And so forth . . .

After working on embedding sentences and forming clauses, the members of the class can be asked to write a complete description of the picture. This will allow the teacher to check their judgement in forming complex sentences.

Specific Iranian Application No. 4:

Sequence

The picture series is useful for practicing sentences which show

relationships in time or of cause-and-effect. Also, students can be asked to construct stories around the pictures. With a picture series, the teacher can ask more complex questions than with simple pictures due to the complex relations between each frame in the sequence.

An example of sequence is shown in Figures 38, 39, and 40.

Specific Iranian Application No. 5:

Verb Endings

Sometimes Iranian students confuse the endings -ed and -ing. No exact parallel for these forms may be found in Pharsi. The result can be humorous. For example, the student may say, "I am interesting in swimming" when he intends to say, "I am interested in swimming." Similarly, he may say, "I am boring in that class" instead of "I am bored in that class." A teacher could develop drills that help the student avoid such mistakes. For example, a teacher could use a picture of a lion (Figure 41) along with the following drill:

- (1) The lion is bored.
- (2) The lion does not have any fun.
- (3) The lion's life is boring.
- (4) The lion is not boring.
- (5) The lion is interesting.

In a similar exercise, Figure 42 may be used to illustrate the distinction between "interested" and "interesting":

- (1) The monkey is interested in the television.
- (2) The monkey is interested by the

actress.

- (3) The actress is not interested in the monkey.
- (4) The actress is interesting to the monkey.

Specific Iranian Application No. 6:

"too" and "very"

Iranian students have a great difficulty distinguishing between context where "too" is appropriate and where "very" is appropriate. Someone might say "I earned too much money this week" when he means to say "I earned very much money this week." Another example would be saying "that professor is too nice" instead of the intended "that professor is very nice." Visual aids can be aimed at clarifying the difference between very and too. For example, the following explanations may be used with Figures 43 and 44, respectively:

Explanation #1:

This man is balancing on a tightrope. If one more person got on the rope with him, two people would be on the rope. That is not very many. However, it is too many: the two people would probably fall off and hurt themselves.

Explanation #2:

Both very and too are appropriate for describing this situation. There are very many people in the swimming pool. There are too many people in the swimming pool.

Specific Iranian Application No. 7:

Eliciting Student Response in

English

Part of the picture file should illustrate interesting (but not

too complex) situations appropriate for stimulating student participation and "story-making," as indicated in Chapter 4. Two examples will be given here. The cue questions may be used by the teacher to keep up the tempo of the class's conversation. However, the teacher's time talking should be minimized. He should moderate, not dominate.

Figure 45 may be used with the following questions:

Cue questions

- (1) What do you see in this picture?
- (2) What is the little girl doing?
- (3) What is the father doing?
- (4) What is the little girl feeling?
- (5) Why doesn't the father pay attention?

The present packet is an effort to show how visual aids can find practical use as cues for oral drills and to help the teacher to teach the language through simple illustration or pictures; without such aids, the teacher's job will be more difficult. Ideally, more sophisticated audiovisual aids would be supplied than is realistically possible in current Iran. This packet, however, is a good beginning, and if approached with a creative attitude should be valuable in the immediate future.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Summary

Chapter One discussed the circumstance surrounding English teaching in Iran. Although English study is required for many years, students do not learn enough to become adept in using this language. The school system fails to truly serve the youth of Iran in the English classroom and they consequently tend to perceive the English lessons as a waste of time. The teachers are as a rule poorly prepared to serve as English-speaking models since they are not well-versed in this tongue. They must also cope with unmotivated and disruptive students, an unwieldy teacher-student ratio, crowded and stuffy classrooms, and a striking lack of instructional materials. The National English Textbook is of poor quality and is boring; blackboard space is often limited, provision of mimeographed handout sheets is uncommon, and modern audiovisual equipment is virtually non-existent.

The poor quality of teachers is understandable when one considers their job situation. They are grossly underpaid and must face long hours of strenuous work. They must waste energy disciplining unmotivated students and trying to deal with oversized classes. The education provided for them at teacher training colleges is insufficient

and does not leave them confident of their ability to speak the language they are supposed to teach. Moreover, they are not provided with assistants or language laboratories to lessen their burden and are too worn out to improve their situation very much. On the whole one can see that the job of teaching English in Iran is miserable.

A constructive change in Iranian schools would be to incorporate audiovisual aids into the English-teaching curriculum. These tools can be shown to make the teacher's work easier and more effective.

To overcome a problem we should first sketch in clearly and then find out different ways to solve it. The whole purpose of Chapter Two's survey of linguistic theory and literature and the description of methods for teaching English is to look for solutions to the teaching problems in Iran. Most of these methods on their own should not be considered good or bad. Each can work well in some situations. The important thing is correct selection of methods. A Mary Finocchiaro (1958, p. vii) states, there are no good or bad methods, there are only good or bad teachers.

Audiolingual theorists believe a grammar-translation approach, which stresses the development of reading skills, neglects the most important skills" speaking and listening. These aural and oral skills are essential for using the language, for actually communicating with native speakers. Speech habits can be instilled in the students by use of pattern drills and extensive oral practice. Attention should be paid to ways in which being accustomed to the native language will be likely to interfere with acquisition of the second language; familiarity with contrastive analysis will benefit the teacher in dealing with such interference. An invaluable set of tools for teaching with

an audiolingual emphasis consists of pictures, blackboard sketches, slides, filmstrips, tape recorders, and other such audiovisual aids.

The uses of audiovisual aids are elaborated in Chapters Three and Four. The audio tools are the tape recorder, radio, and language laboratory. The radio is not considered very applicable for beginners since its content is uncontrolled; hence the discussion of radios is brief. Tape recorders offer the great benefit of supplying a variety of good language models. Since the Iranian teachers frequently are not fluent English speakers, exposure to such recorded models is necessary for developing good speaking as well as comprehension abilities. Another prime application of tape recorder equipment is that pattern drills and other exercises involving a large degree of repetition can be relegated to the tapes. Thus valuable class time will not be wasted on boring activities.

The language laboratory is an extended version of the tape recorder in the sense that it provides primarily audio equipment such as tape recorders or record players, but is a setting enabling use by many students at the same time. Language laboratories vary from simple to very complex, but are rarely present in Iran in any form. The expense of installing language laboratories in each Iranian school is prohibitive, but regional language laboratories could possibly be developed. Teachers and students would benefit greatly from such laboratories, and they should pressure the Ministry of Education to recognize the need for such installations.

Visual aids have a place in class exercises that require cues for student responses. They also help keep student attention. Chapter Four discusses the primary visual aids, dividing them into two

categories: unprojected materials and projected materials. The former include the blackboard pictures, flashcards, posters, charts and the flannelboard. Blackboards are already common in Iran; some suggestions are given for effective use of this medium. Pictures, flashcards, etc. are probably the most suitable aids for immediate application in the Iranian classroom. They are not very expensive to obtain or make, do not rely on equipment which may break and hence are easy to maintain, and are flat and easy to store. The teacher has a great deal of control over these materials in that he can prepare them to exactly fit the class's needs. The teacher will be able to provide most unprojected materials himself without great cost, so he does not have to rely on government funding.

More stimulating but more expensive are projected materials. For using these an investment must be made in projection equipment. Projected materials include slides, overhead transparencies, filmstrips, motion pictures, and television. The uses of projected materials, although sequencing of pictures and motion add a new dimension. Motion pictures and television enable combination of both the audio and visual elements and can be very powerful attention grabbers and motivators.

Teachers should familiarize themselves with ways in which visual aids can be most beneficially used, and they should develop their skills in using such aids for stimulating student dialogue and conversation. It is noted that the English teachers should be given regular, fixed classrooms so that access to stored aids is not a problem and so that walls and bulletin boards may be utilized as visual display areas.

Suggestions for connecting theory with concrete lesson plans would be helpful for the teacher who has never used audiovisual aids before. Chapter Five introduces some practical applications of pictorial material and provides a brief introduction to drills. If such instructional packets were available in Iran, they could be distributed to teachers via observers from the Ministry of Education. Other ways for disseminating the new techniques are summer sessions and conferences.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Further Research

The applicability of audiovisual aids for teaching English as a second language in Iran has now been illustrated. Each is useful and each has a specific function to fulfill in a well-rounded educational program. Although a teacher may not have access to every tool mentioned in this paper, he should cultivate whatever options are open to him. As Esraghi (1978, p. 49) comments, no debate exists over whether audiovisual aids should be utilized or not; the question is how to make use of as many as is reasonably possible for more effective English language teaching. The teacher should of course bring his own teaching style and tastes into consideration when choosing his aids.

Audiovisuals could greatly improve the situation in Iran, but they are not a panacea. They will not eliminate the problems of understaffing, overcrowding, inadequate wages, etc. The teacher must become a lobbyist to pressure the government for increased school budgets and improved textbooks. Moreover, the teacher should develop an awareness of the great responsibility he has toward the students of his society. He should practice and develop his skills so that he may be adequately

prepared when facing the class. It is unfortunate that so many burdens fall onto these members of the teaching profession, but from where else is the pressure for reform going to come?

Some ideas that may benefit English teachers in their efforts have developed as a result of the research in this paper. The following comments present advice and recommendations with regard to teaching English by use of audiovisual aids.

(1) The teacher may find that developing less of a dependence on the National English textbook will help him approach the teaching tasks in a more well-rounded fashion. A teacher may be very accustomed to conducting all activities in accordance with the exercises and text provided in the book but it will be hard to escape from a grammar-translation approach unless a new orientation is achieved, since the present national text book conforms so strongly to the outdated approach. This new orientation should involve the greater use of audiovisual materials, especially visual materials or resources and to implement them in classrooms. For example, to what extent is it possible to provide the Iranian teacher of English with visual aids depicting life in English speaking countries? How can such visual aids reflect the cultural differences between Iran and countries like the United States without confusion?

(2) A consequence of introducing audiovisuals into a classroom is that the teacher may tend to organize his lesson plan around the pictures available to him. This is not necessarily bad, but a preferable approach would be to develop a comprehensive lesson plan and integrate the audiovisuals into this plan wherever they are appropriate. Lesson plans may loosely center around the textbook material, or they may be

based on new findings of applied linguistics. But, as pointed out in the introduction, they should involve organized introduction of vocabulary words--preferably in terms of categories which fit specific types of sentences (Politzer and Politzer, 1972, p. 22). Also, "careful attention is paid to the sequence in which expansion and transformation processes are learned" (p. 21). The linguistic investigators have evidence that students learn the language better when each of the various elements and structures of the language is presented as a unit, rather than haphazardly. All in all, the teacher should be wise if he organized his picture file in categories that helped him use appropriate pictures for specific units. Those complex pictures which are good for dialogue work or conversation and story-making should be used primarily in those segments of classtime allotted to such activities. Further research is needed to develop a detailed instructional model for the teaching of English in Iranian schools. The model should incorporate the use of available audiovisual materials.

One question this paper does not even attempt to answer is the order in which words and structures are introduced and the rate at which lessons should proceed. These are important and a comprehensive plan should be made, but not by the teacher alone. Research in linguistics may provide answers, but few elementary teachers are really competent in this complex field. The Ministry of Education should have experts at hand who keep up with advances in language instruction, ensure that the textbook reflects these, and disseminate the practical sides of new knowledge to the teachers at the local level. The instructional model mentioned above should provide guidance regarding the sequence and rate in which aspects of English are learned.

(3) Several considerations in planning visual aids are worth stressing. First, educators should try to ascertain whether each picture communicates as clearly as possible. The teacher should check for ambiguity in the visual materials. What the teacher perceives as an angry face may be perceived as a worried face by the students. Also, if too many details are included in the picture, the students may not focus on the part of the picture the teacher wants them to see.

Second, cultural differences may exist in the way pictures are perceived. A picture of a typical American kitchen may be seen as a rich person's kitchen by the Iranian child. The western approach to clothing and other aspects of personal appearance (such as length of hair and use of cosmetics) is quite different than that of rural and small-town Iranians. The teacher should keep attuned to such cultural differences and any confusion that may arise from using pictures containing such culturally "loaded" material. He should strive to use aids that are as culturally recognizable as possible. Further research is necessary to determine in more detail the problems of interpreting cues by the cultural differences mentioned above at present, there are no guidelines, however simple ones, for the Iranian teacher of English to follow. The development of such guidelines should foster greater understanding of English speaking people, as well as to improve the instruction of English in Iran.

(4) Many of the books on this subject have emphasized the use of audiovisual aids in teaching young children. The suggested materials have often appeared juvenile and hence inappropriate for use at high school level. Since English instruction in Iran usually does not even start until junior high school, this is an important issue. None

of the writers included in this paper's review of literature directly treated the question of age-appropriateness of pictures, slides, etc. The way a group of six-year-olds should be handled is quite different from the way appropriate for 12-year-olds or 16-year-olds. It may be more important to provide "catchy" materials to keep young students' attention. However, the teacher with good judgement should find many of the suggestions contained in this paper valid for any English language student--even adults. The problem of introducing a "childish" element is the fault of the teacher who uses poor judgement, who does not conscientiously strive for a mature approach commensurate with the maturity of his students. Dialogue practice and the eliciting of student response does not have to become a game. In brief, the teacher should continually be aware that audiovisual techniques, especially those using visual materials, are highly susceptible to misuse by way of being "juvenilized." Further study should be conducted on age-appropriateness of various materials. Such research should precede the development of extensive visual instructional materials for the Iranian teachers.

(5) Few of the sources used in this paper considered the Iranian situation directly. Since the Iranian language is written in a totally different script than English, in an alphabet with letters similar to those of Arabic, a new element is introduced into the English classroom. The teacher cannot assume that the beginner is overly familiar with the English letters. A parallel situation would be the American student learning Pharsi or Greek as opposed to Spanish or German. Much practice is needed to surmount this additional barrier. Visual aids necessarily have a role to play in teaching beginners these characters

in which English is written. Flashcards may be particularly useful, as well as word labels on the other visual aids.

In a classroom without this problem, in America for instance, awareness of audiolingual theory should make the teacher hesitant about presenting the written words at the same time as the picture. That is why unlabelled pictures are so desirable. The writer believes that the Iranian teachers should have the prerogative to present written words more frequently than a teacher would if this problem did not exist. Once more, a balance must be determined. It is worth noting that since Iranian teachers desire to speed up their students' mastery of English spelling and reading due to the difficulties imposed by this alphabet boundary, they may have increased reluctance to incorporating purely pictorial visual aids.

More study is needed in determining the relative effectiveness of labeled vs. unlabeled visual aids, specifically, clinical teaching situation should be constructed to help determine which method is the best for Iranian teachers of English. This is important because the total number of visual aids (labeled or unlabeled) available to Iranian teachers will be limited. Further research should investigate the possibility of teaching Iranian English instruction efficient ways to develop their own audiovisual aids.

(6) Audiolingual proponents emphasize that language is a habit-- that is, that formulation of sentences and phrases becomes automatic for the fluent speaker. Teaching also can become a habit: the experienced teacher develops routines that are effective enough for him and are deemed acceptable for use year after year. However, this practice can exert a negative influence on the classroom atmosphere. The teach-

er who "falls into a rut" is going to find his performance repetitive and boring, and his attitude may carry over to the students, lessening the stimulation they find in the classroom. The incorporation of audiovisuals into one's approach may provide a welcome change. However, the teacher who does not continue to seek out new and better pictures is falling into another kind of rut. A concentrated effort would be made to regularly update one's picture file with better and better materials. A varied enough picture file should be accessible to eliminate the over-use of stock pictures, and the teacher should not be satisfied with any less than optimal materials. Also, variety in presentation may help keep the students from getting tired of doing the same activities day after day.

Further research should deal with the development of audiovisual workshops which stress the elucidation rather than presentation of material in the English classroom.

(7) A final but quite useful point is that the teacher should keep track of how much of the class time is devoted to his lectures and presentations; what percentage of the time is he talking instead of the students? People easily misperceive their own behavior and imagine that they talk less than they actually do. This record keeping should serve as a reminder of one's actual degree of dominance in the classroom; if a teacher decides that he is talking too much, he can try harder to avoid this in the future. A very important corollary of this idea is that the teacher should always strive to use visual aids to their best advantage by eliciting, not presenting. The visual content communicates for the teacher, and he should form the habit of letting the conversational pictures evoke responses from the students

with as few prompts as possible. The students must be encouraged to develop the speech habit. It would be worthwhile here to repeat Finocchiaro's (1958, p. 82) guiding questions: "Could I elicit much of the material that I am presenting?" and "Am I trying to elicit material that I am presenting?" The teacher who always keeps these thoughts in mind has truly achieved an audiolingual orientation.

Further research should deal with the development of audiovisual workshops which stress the elicitation rather than presentation of material in the English classroom.

A Final Remark

As this paper reached its conclusion, Iran was experiencing a drastic upheaval that promised to change most of the country's basic institutions. The educational system as discussed in my first chapter is undergoing drastic alterations because the government has changed. As of this point a description of the changes is hard to put together, especially since communication from Iran has been extremely limited for those Iranians living abroad.

The new government has made many assurances to the people of Iran--notably that it will not spend the country's wealth to buy arms or build up a large military complex. The budget for education and agriculture is predicted to increase, but time is needed for this to be felt in individual schools. Also, the priority in hiring teachers will now be given to the knowledge and ability they possess. Such changes would benefit the students. Especially important is the probability that the teachers' salaries will be increased to a scale more commensurate with the education and dedication required. This will

alleviate one of the great inequities of the old Iranian system.

Many hopes are rising, but no one can really say what will happen after a year or two. The most immediate need is for educational authorities to develop a curriculum suitable for the people and society. In that curriculum is doubtful that English will still be a required subject, the government is attempting to reduce dependence on western (and all other) foreign nations. However, English will with great certainty still be offered as a foreign language in junior and senior high schools; it remains one of the primary science and international communication languages in the present world. In the English classes which will still remain in Iranian schools, a great change will be felt due to the elimination of the requirement. A large number of disinterested students will be able to avoid these classes if they wish to do so, and will hence cease plaguing the teachers and motivated students. An atmosphere much more conducive to English instruction should result, with students participating who have a real interest in the subject. Also, the number of students in English classroom (the teacher-student ratio) will probably decline.

It is reasonable to assume that at least some of the government's wealth and attention formerly devoted to Iran's role as a center of western influence in the Persian Gulf will now find its way into improving schools. It is also reasonable to assume that the new government will wish to restructure the educational system and will wish to utilize the best of current educational thought. The use of audio-visual aids in teaching foreign languages is surely an option the new government will wish to consider.

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APPENDIX A

A PAGE FROM THE SIXTH YEAR BOOK, FROM
NATIONAL ENGLISH TEXT

A PAGE FROM THE SIXTH YEAR BOOK, FROM
NATIONAL ENGLISH TEXT

I. VOCABULARY PRACTICE

■ 1. Choose the correct word for each of the following sentences:

a. knit	particular	suitcases
walking up	daffodils	vinegar
had intended	opportunity	light

1. Many people like to put on their salad.
2. They to take a two-week vacation before their son got sick.
3. Mrs. Brown promised to a blouse for her daughter.
4. The baby is asleep now, but he should be soon.
5. are my favorite flowers.
6. I'll the candles while you ask the guests to come in.
7. How many do you usually take on a trip.
8. Do you have a writer in mind?
9. Your trip to England will be a very good for you to improve your English.

b. wedding	author	attention
over	pushing	summary
sunset	government	passage

1. We watched a very beautiful yesterday afternoon.
2. They say that he will raise salaries next month.
3. May I have your, please?
4. Here is a of what we learned today.
5. We tried to open the door by it.
6. I think this has too many new words.
7. The lady received a very nice gift from her cousin.
8. Do you know the name of the of this book?
9. She said that her plane ticket cost one thousand dollars.

c. respect	masterpiece	relatives
realized	voted	excellent
remind	recognize	judge

1. How many people in the election?
2. There's an program on T.V. tonight.
3. This novel is the writer's
4. Who will whether I am right or wrong.

APPENDIX B

**BASIC VOCABULARY LIST FEATURED IN
THE IRANIAN NATIONAL ENGLISH TEXT
FOR FIRST GRADE**

BASIC VOCABULARY LIST FEATURED IN
THE IRANIAN NATIONAL ENGLISH TEXT
FOR FIRST GRADE

"A. My tooth was fixed yesterday. B. I had my tooth fixed yesterday." A two-sentence explanation is given, and they 8-10 practice sentences are given. Students are supposed to change them according to the example. A grammar review of some worth is usually included next, and then a passage in which a number of blanks have been inserted. Students should fill these in with, say, the correct form of verb, the correct article adjective, etc. A brief writing exercise concludes the section. This exercise give a sentence pattern and requests that students follow this pattern and requests that students follow this pattern in constructing some sentences.

Notably absent are extended oral exercises, oral dialogues, and pattern practice exercises.

The first book contains 20 brief units. Although not as advanced as the book described above, the same basic format is followed. The basic vocabulary list featured in this book will give the reader an impression of the scope of the contents:

a	always	another	aren't
after	am	answer	at
afternoon	an	apple	
all	and	are	bad

bag	father	lunch	seventy
ball	fifteen		seventeen
bedroom	fifty	man	she
before	finger	many	shoes
bench	five	men	sister
black	flower	Miss	sit
blackboard	forty	morning	sitting room
blue	four	mother	six
body	fourteen	mouth	sixteen
book		Mr..	sixty
boy	garden	Mrs.	sky
box	get up	my	sleep
breakfast	girl		some
bring	go	name	speak
brother	goes	near	stand
brown	good	neck	student
	good afternoon	never	
can	good-bye	nine	table
chair	good morning	nineteen	tea
classroom	green	ninety	teacher
clean		no	ten
clock	hair	nose	thank you
close	half past	not	that
clothes	hand	now	that's
coat	happy		the
color	has	o'clock	their
come	hasn't	often	there is
come back	have	on	there are
count	haven't	one	these
	he	open	they
desk	head	orange	thirteen
dining room	hello	other	thirsty
do	her	our	thirty
don't	his		this
does	home	pen	those
doesn't	homework	pencil	three
door	house	picture	to
draw	how	play	too
dress	How are you?	please	today
drink	hundred	point	twelve
	hungry	put on	twenty
			two
ear		quarter to	
eat	I	quarter past	under
egg	in	question	usually
eight	is		
eighteen	is't		
eighty	it	read	very
eleven		red	
evening	left	repeat	walk
everyday	leg	right	wall
eye	lesson		wash
	lips	school	watch
face	listen	seven	water

we	with
well	woman
what	women
What time is it?	write
when	
where	yellow
white	yes
who	you
window	your

Actual Teaching Situation

As mentioned before, most of the teachers follow the National English Textbook very closely. They must always be aware of how limited class time is: 30 minutes a day does not allow for much activity. As a result, not much progress is made in the book each day, and many teachers find it easier to divide the week into regularly scheduled activities.

There are five class periods in each week for English; this time is divided into different segments for reading, speaking, and translation (from English to Pharsi and from Pharsi to English), grammar, composition, and dictation. The way in which these are divided may vary according to which level one is dealing with. In the reading time the teacher usually reads the new lesson. Then he translates the new words and reads the lesson again; after that he asks students to come in front of the class and read through the previous lessons; and this type of activity will continue until the class time is over. In translation time, the teacher will give an English sentence and ask students to translate it to Pharsi; then he will give a Pharsi sentence for translating to English.

APPENDIX C

LANGUAGE CLUBS

LANGUAGE CLUBS

Different student clubs in the Iranian schools often become successful activities. Club hours are usually held during lunchtime, because as mentioned before, a long break is allotted for students at that time, often two hours or more. A club's schedule usually calls for 1-1½ hours two days a week to be reserved for meeting time. Participation is optional, and the varied subjects range from music to religion to language to cooking. So here is a place where students can express themselves and learn the hobby or subject that they like. Foreign language clubs are one of the best places to gather the motivated students together and help them learn and practice what they already learned through suitable activities. One of the best things that teachers can do in such clubs is to invite native speakers of the target language to the meeting and let the students talk to him or her and listen to native speech. As was mentioned in Chapter Three, these clubs are a good place to use the tape recorder and they let the students work more individually.

Theodore Huebener says, "The foreign language club serves a number of useful purposes, especially if it is a more or less spontaneous organization on the part of the pupils and if the faculty adviser is an enthusiastic and resourceful teacher." (1959, p. 133).

Through the club those cultural activities for which there is

little or no time in the classroom may be carried on. These include such activities as:

- (1) playing different games (depending on student's age level);
- (2) talks in the foreign language by distinguished guests;
- (3) the collecting and displaying of postcards or other culturally interesting pictures, coins, or stamps;
- (4) discussions on interesting aspects of the countries that speak English.

An example of a topic that would be appropriate for discussing, as in (4) above, would be cities of England, Canada, Australia and the United States. More specifically the teacher or students could prepare information for the topic, "New York: Biography of a City," "San Francisco: Biography of a City," or "London: Biography of a City." Another good topic would be the park system of England, the United States, etc. Yellowstone Park is very interesting for most people, for example.

- (5) additional singing of folk- or popular-songs in English; listening to records of English songs;
- (6) the presentation of films and slides.

APPENDIX D

DIFFERENT TYPES OF LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

DIFFERENT TYPES OF LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

1. The Listening Room

To set up a language lab of this nature the teacher equips a room with a tape recorder and some tapes. Individuals or groups of students can come in at scheduled hours, or on their own when the room is not in use. They may play the tapes themselves or there may be an attendant to play the tapes.

A particular tape will be played for a group of students. The students listen and respond as a group. There are no books and no earphones. All members of a group listen to the same program at the same time.

This kind of laboratory lacks flexibility. It has, in effect, only one channel, which means only one program can be played at a time. Since students respond into the open air, their response cannot be monitored by an instructor. In fact the presence of an instructor is not required for the listening room. Operation of the equipment may be left to a technician or to an attendant, or even to the students themselves.

It is usually essential to soundproof the listening room, since it can be difficult to a group to distinguish the sounds emanating from a tape recorder or over a loudspeaker. If there is any shuffling or coughing by members of the group, other members may not be able to hear some of the program.

For all its inadequacies, however, the listening room can provide a facility for additional drill and practice in hearing the foreign language.

2. The Listening Laboratory

This type of installation consists of individual student booths. At each booth is a set of headphones. There may not be a volume control at the students' booths, though it is preferable for each booth to have its own volume control. With this type of installation there is no microphone, no amplifier and no recorder at the student's position.

From a master control unit the tapes are played. Students can listen to the tape and respond orally into the air. The teacher cannot monitor the student's responses, nor can students hear their own responses. When the laboratory is equipped with multiple channels, a channel selection knob is installed at each booth. Multiple channels lend a degree of flexibility, since the teacher is able to play more than one program simultaneously.

3. The Audio-Active Laboratory

It is sometimes called the listen-respond laboratory. It is divided into individual booths. At each booth there is a set of headphones, a microphone, and an amplifier, plus the volume control and the channel selector.

The significant feature of the audio-active lab as compared with the listening laboratory is the presence of a microphone and amplifier in each position. Through the microphones the teacher may correct their responses. The teacher may speak to each student individually or to all students at the same time.

The audio-active lab provides a further dimension in that the student may hear his own responses as he speaks. He receives an immediate "playback," so to speak. If he is discerning, he can hear his own errors. If the tape to which he is listening repeats the correct response after the student has spoken, the student may make an immediate comparison between his own response and the correct response on the tape.

4. The Listen-Respond-Record Laboratory

The listen-respond-record (audio-active-record) laboratory adds another dimension to the audio-active laboratory. Individual recorders are installed at each student booth. This permits students to make recordings of their responses. The teacher may collect the recordings of the students and listen to them after class. Students may keep their recordings and play them back as frequently as necessary. Some of the listen-respond-record laboratories use disc recorders at the student's positions. Others use tape recorders. The addition of the tape recorder at each position provides for greater flexibility than the audio-active laboratory without recorders. The installation of the recorders at each position does, of course, run up the cost of the laboratory. Further, the additional equipment at the student's position serves as an added item to maintain.

It is helpful though not imperative to have the recorders at each position. It is not likely that students will be required to make recordings as frequently as they will be listening. The teacher could get along with a few tape recorders available at the time students need them. Some of the listen-respond-record laboratories

install recorders in a few student positions, for example, in the last row or at a separated set of booths. Students take turns in making recordings as this type of activity is required.

If a school has funds to install a complete respond-record type of laboratory, all well and good. If not, it should consider investment in a partial listen-respond-record laboratory or a simple audio-active type.

5. The Deluxe Laboratory

A deluxe laboratory has all the features of the listen-respond-record laboratory plus facilities for visual aids as well as the audio. Projection equipment permits the teacher to show films, filmstrips, and slides. The sound track of the films comes through the headphones. The laboratory is equipped with instructional television. An overhead projector may be used with charts, illustrations, and other visual aids on its transparencies. The deluxe laboratory permits the teacher to use the widest range of instructional techniques. Few high schools are able to afford the deluxe type of installation. It is doubtful also if they will need a deluxe laboratory.

APPENDIX E

AUDIOLINGUAL DRILLS

AUDIOLINGUAL DRILLS

In order to provide practice exercises for the students that will improve their speaking and hearing or listening capacity, the teacher should use audiolingual drills. Pattern drills of various sorts are the most common type, enabling the teacher to systematically present various aspects of the language lessons, and to present these with enough repetition that the students gain familiarity. The basic material in the drill sentences should be relatively familiar, since attention should be focused on the one aspect of the sentence that is being taught. As Stack (1971) comments:

They consist of a series of examples of a single grammatical or pronunciation feature that is new, but include material already learned as part of the phrases presented. Since a pattern is established the student will soon be making his own statements following the established form.(p. 142).

The pattern drills should be thoroughly learned by the students. The responses should become automatic and natural. After all, ". . . it is evident that the native speaker has an unconscious and automatic control of the various elements of his own language, and the objective of these drills is to develop a similar control of the basic structures in the second language" (Chastain, 1976, p. 35). The grammar of the second language is therefore learned inductively, from repeated exposure.

The following examples of various types of drills will be useful in understanding their function.

(A) Repetition Drill: At a course's early stages the teacher may find it useful to conduct repetition drills. The teacher (or a tape recorder) pronounces some phrase or sentence and the class repeats the material in unison. This is obviously a very simple exercise, primarily being useful for presenting new vocabulary words or verb endings. Finocchiar (1964, p. 72) recommends (a) using whole sentences and (b) drilling the first and third persons before the third person is presented.

This drill is improved if the teacher touches the object or picture being mentioned or dramatizes the drill:

Teacher: This is an apple

Student: This is an apple.

Teacher: This is a newspaper.

Student: This is a newspaper.

Teacher: This is a telephone.

Student: This is a telephone.

etc.

Another repetition drill:

Teacher: I'm singing.

Student: I'm singing.

Teacher: I'm leaving.

Student: I'm leaving.

Teacher: I will be singing.

Student: I will be singing.

Teacher: I will be leaving.

Student: I will be leaving.

etc.

(B) Simple Question and Answer Drill: The teacher gives a cue or touches an appropriate picture and asks a question. The answers should be in grammatically correct sentences: movement is from simple to more complex constructions.

Teacher: Is this an apple?

Student: Yes, it is an apple.

Teacher: Is this a classroom?

Student: Yes, this is a classroom.

Teacher: Is this your book?

Student: Yes, it is my book.

Teacher: What is this?

Student: That is an apple.

Teacher: What is this?

Student: That is my book.

Teacher: Is this an apple or an orange?

Student: It is an orange?

Teacher: Is this book red or is it brown?

Student: This book is brown.

Teacher: Answer with "yes": Did you eat an apple?

Student: Yes, I ate an apple.

Teacher: Answer with "yes": Did you read that book.

Student: Yes, I read that book.

Teacher: Answer with "no" and add a sentence:
Did you eat an apple?

Student: No, I ate an orange. I don't have an apple.

etc.

(C) Expansion Drill: Here is an example of an expansion drill, where a short sentence gradually has phrases or clauses attached to it. Care is taken to keep the final sentence length within limits.

Teacher: My friend left.

Students: My friend left.

Teacher: to go home

Students: My friend left to go home.

Teacher: at 5:30

Students: My friend left to go home at 5:30.

Teacher: because his dinner was ready

Students: My friend left to go home at 5:30
because his dinner was ready.

Teacher: I visited her.

Students: I visited her.

Teacher: recently

Students: I visited her recently.

Teacher: but I would like to see hre again soon

Students: I visited her recently but I would
like to see her again soon.

(D) Contraction drills are the opposite of (c), and involve substituting shorter forms of words and phrases, such as pronouns for nouns or noun phrases.

Teacher: Give the money to your sister.

Students: Give the money to your sister.

Teacher: to her

Students: Give the money to her.

Teacher: it

Students: Give it to her.

Teacher: The water hit the man in the face.

Students: The water hit the man in the face

Teacher: him

Students: The water hit him in the face.

Teacher: it

Students: It hit him in the face.

(E) A substitution drill involves replacing a word or phrase with another word or phrase of the same class but retaining the same basic sentence. For example:

I have two books.

--three

I have three books.

--five

I have five books.

I am reading a book.

--newspaper

I am reading a newspaper.

--magazine

I am reading a magazine.

--story

I am reading a story.

My father went to the store.

--Mary

Mary went to the store.

--my sister

My sister went to the store.

--mom

Mom went to the store.

(F) Replacement Drills: Some sentence elements, such as a word or expression, are replaced by another word or expression belonging to a different class. For an example, a pronoun may replace a noun. This replacement type of drill should be graded in difficulty, especially when reading and writing is begun. In the examples below, the first sentence has a pronoun replaced by a noun on the same position. The pronoun occupies a different place in the second sentence; and in the third and fourth sentences the pronoun is located in a different place in the sentence and also produces a change in the required verb form.

Teacher: Jane has the book.

Student: She has the book.

Teacher: He ate his lunch.

Student: He ate it.

Teacher: He carried the family groceries.

Student: He carried them.

Teacher: Give Jane the newspaper.

Student: Give it to her.

(G) Transformation Drills: In a transformation drill, the students follow a pattern to change the target sentences from singular to plural, from past to present, from negative to affirmative, etc.

Teacher: I have stamps - I have no stamps.

Student: I have stamps - I have no stamps.

Teacher: I have food.

Student: I have no food.

Teacher: I have pets.

Student: I have no pets.

Teacher: He has pets.

Student: He has no pets.

Teacher: They have food.

Student: They have no food.

Teacher: I have a sandwich.

Student: I have sandwiches.

Teacher: I have a brother.

Student: I have brothers.

Teacher: I ate lunch. I ate lunch yesterday.

Student: I ate lunch. I ate lunch yesterday.

Teacher: I drove to school.

Student: I drove to school yesterday.

(H) Progressive Replacement or Substitution Drills: This drill entails successive changes in words occupying different positions in the sentences. The example is repeated until the students are familiar with it, and then a cue is given. The appropriate changes should be evidenced in the class's response:

Teacher: John walked to school last week.

Student: John walked to school last week.

repeat again, then:

Teacher: Mary

Student: Mary walked to school last week.

Teacher: the store

Student: Mary walked to the store last week.

Teacher: drove

Student: Mary drove to the store last week.

Teacher: today

Student: Mary drove to the store today.

(I) Reduction Drills: A sentence is reduced by changing an expression to a word.

Teacher: I have some pencils.

Student: I have some.

Teacher: Give me a few crayons.

Student: Give me a few.

Teacher: Go to the library.

Student: Go there.

Teacher: Walk to the door.

Student: Walk there.

(J) Integration Drills: Two short sentences are combined to make a longer, more normal sentence.

Teacher: I have a pencil. It's yellow.

Student: I have a yellow pencil.

Teacher: My father is tall. He's handsome.

Student: My father is tall and handsome.

Teacher: That dog is mine. It's under the table.

Student: That dog under the table is mine.

Teacher: That boy is my brother. He is playing with the dog.

Student: That boy who is playing with dog is my brother.

(K) Directed Practice: This is done in three stages. In Stage 1, you or a group leader directs a child to ask a question of another child. You prompt his direct question. You direct the child to whom the question is addressed to answer the question. You prompt his answer, e.g.,

Teacher: X, ask Y "How old are you?"

Student: How old are you?

Teacher: Y, tell X, "I'm eleven years old."
Say "I'm eleven years old."

Student: I'm eleven years old.

In Stage 2, you or a group leader directs a child to ask a question of another child, using an indirect question. You prompt the child who is to answer by whispering the direct question. He, of course, asks the direct question in a loud voice. You follow the same procedure in prompting the response, e.g.,

Teacher: X, ask Y how old he is. Say (whispering) "How old are you?"

Student: How old are you?

Teacher: Y, tell X you're eleven years old. Say (whispering) "I'm eleven years old."

Student: I'm eleven years old.

(L) Translation Drills: If you wish to make absolutely certain that the children know the equivalent expression the the foreign language, particularly if it contrasts sharply with English, or if you want a change of pace, you may wish--only very occasionally--to engage in translation, i.e., to give the equivalent of a limited structural item. You and you alone use English. The children then give the foreign language equivalent.

Teacher: I'm hungry.

Student: _____

Teacher: She's hungry.

Student: _____

Teacher: Mary is hungry.

Student: _____

Teacher: The dog is hungry.

Student: _____

APPENDIX F

VISUAL AIDS



Figure 2. Chain



Figure 3. Chain of Events

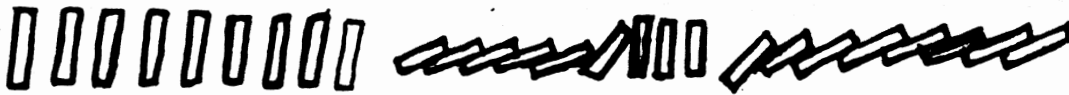


Figure 4. Chain of Events



Figure 5. A Flag is a Symbol of a Country



Figure 6. Empty Pockets are a Symbol of Having no Money, of Being Poor



Figure 7. The Statue of Liberty in New York is a Symbol for Liberty

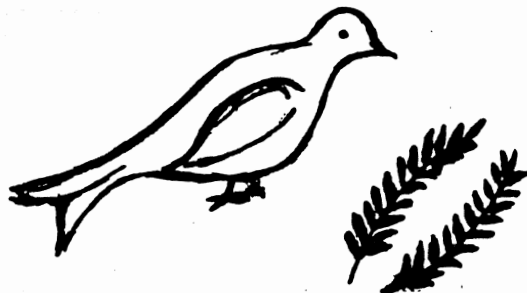


Figure 8. The Dove and the Olive Branch are a Symbol of Peace

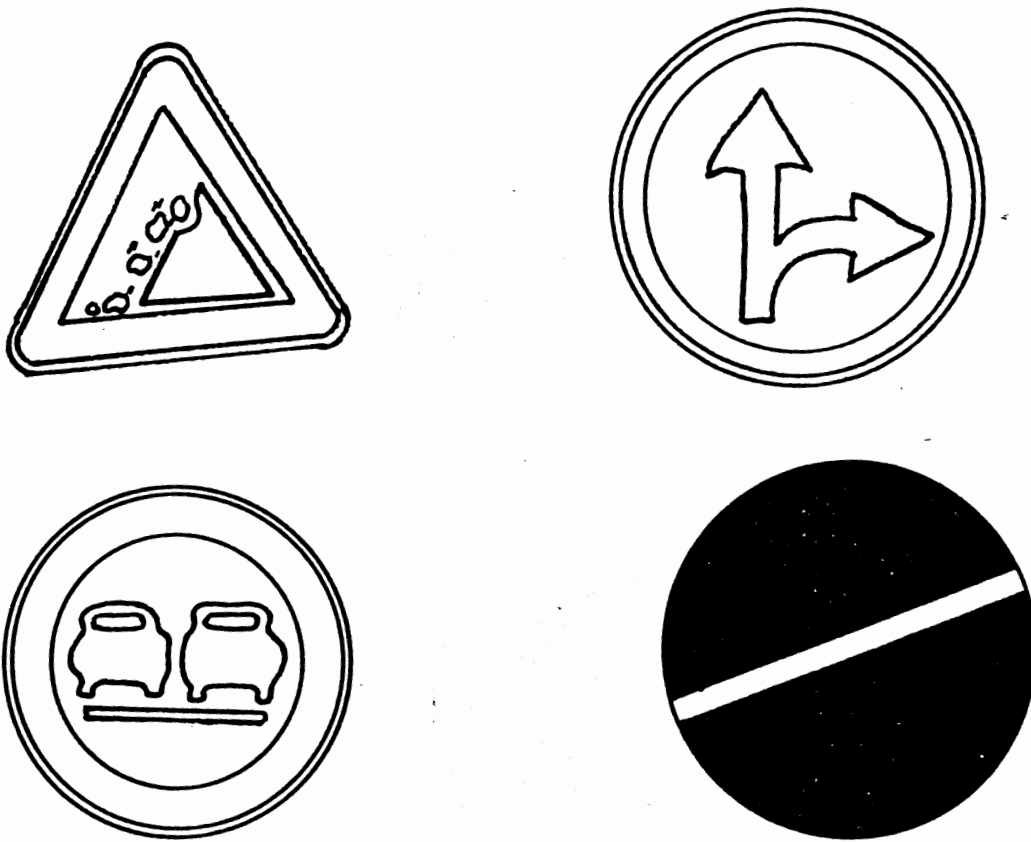


Figure 9. Street Signs



Figure 10. Sign



Figure 11. Sign of Friendliness

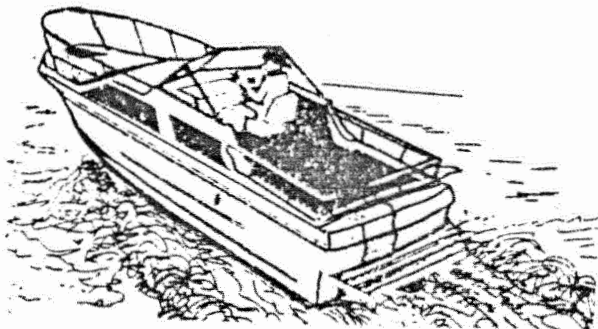


Figure 12. Boat



Figure 13. Airplane

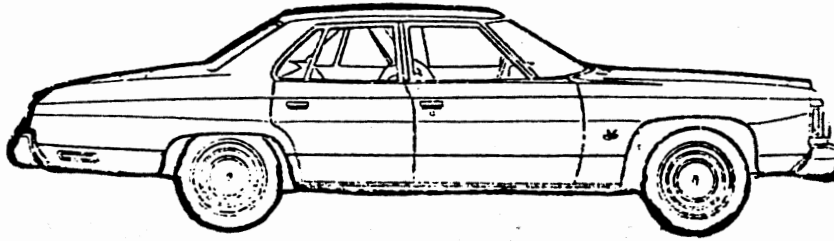


Figure 14. Car

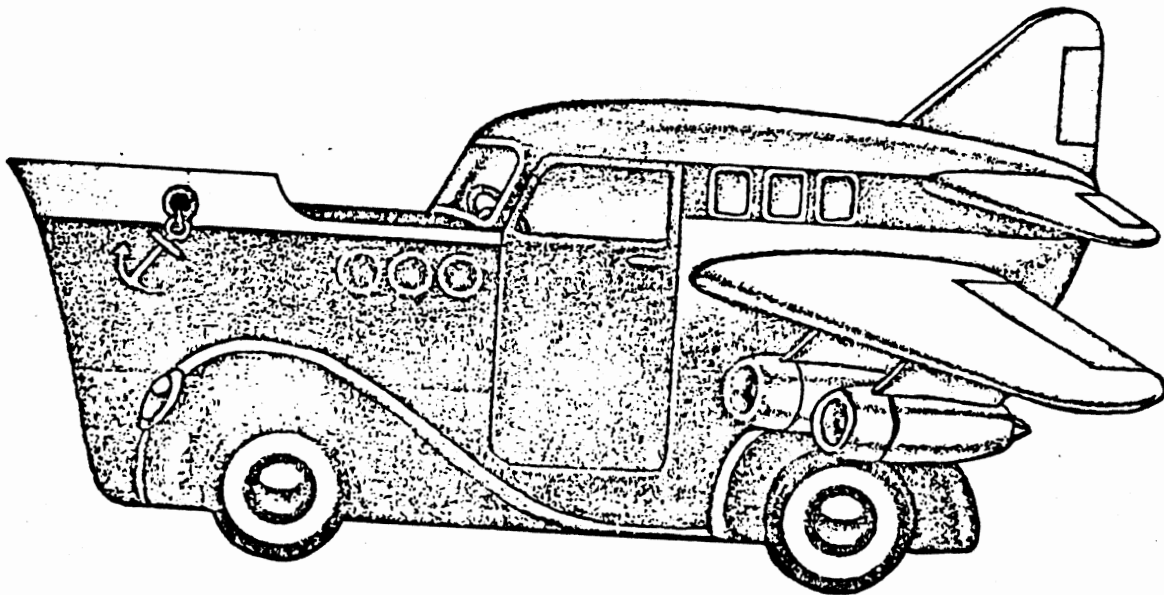


Figure 15. Combination of Boat, Car, and Airplane



Figure 16. A Pair of Fish



Figure 17. A Pair of Shoes



Figure 18. A Pair of Dancers

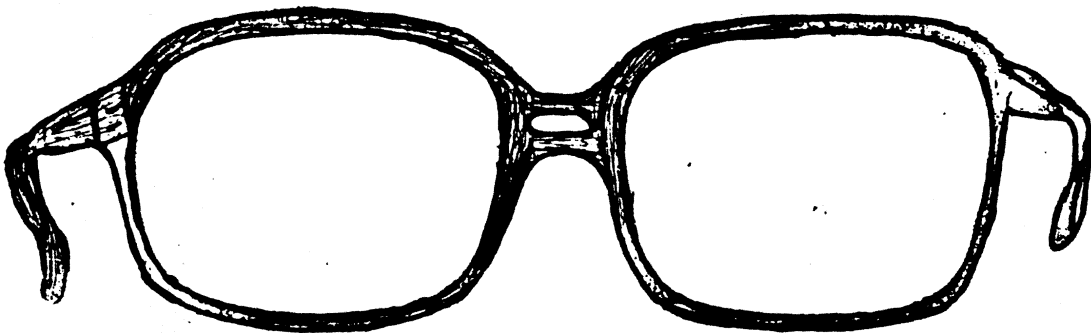


Figure 19. A Pair of Glasses

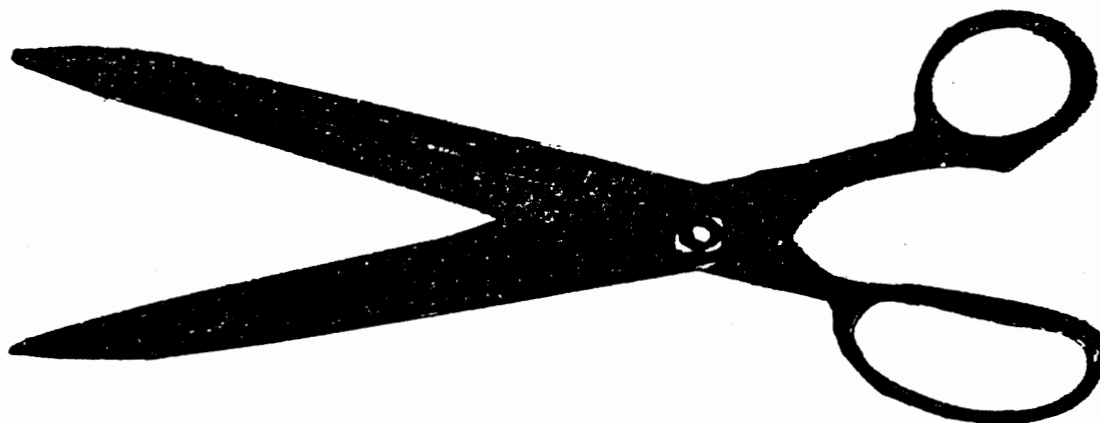


Figure 20. A Pair of Scissors



Figure 21. Three Feet



Figure 22. Rose



Figure 23. Clown



Figure 24. "To Cry"



Figure 25. "To Yell"



Figure 26. "To Yawn"



Figure 27. "To cough"



Figure 28. Comparison of Smooth, Young to Wrinkled, Old



Figure 29. Comparison of Soft to Hard

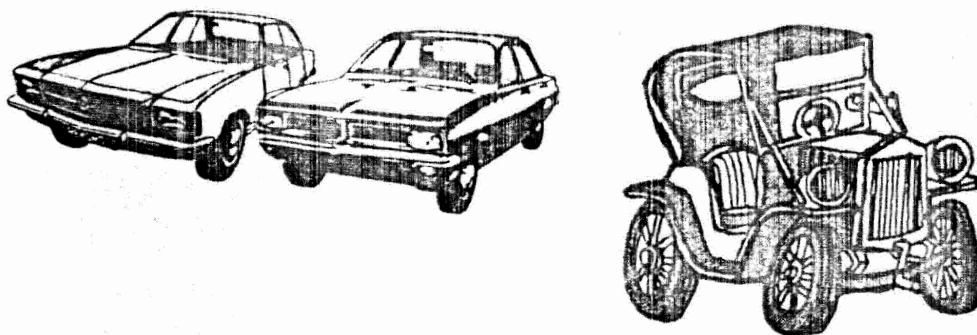


Figure 30. Comparison of New and Old



Figure 31. Active vs. Passive
Grandmother Pouring
Tea

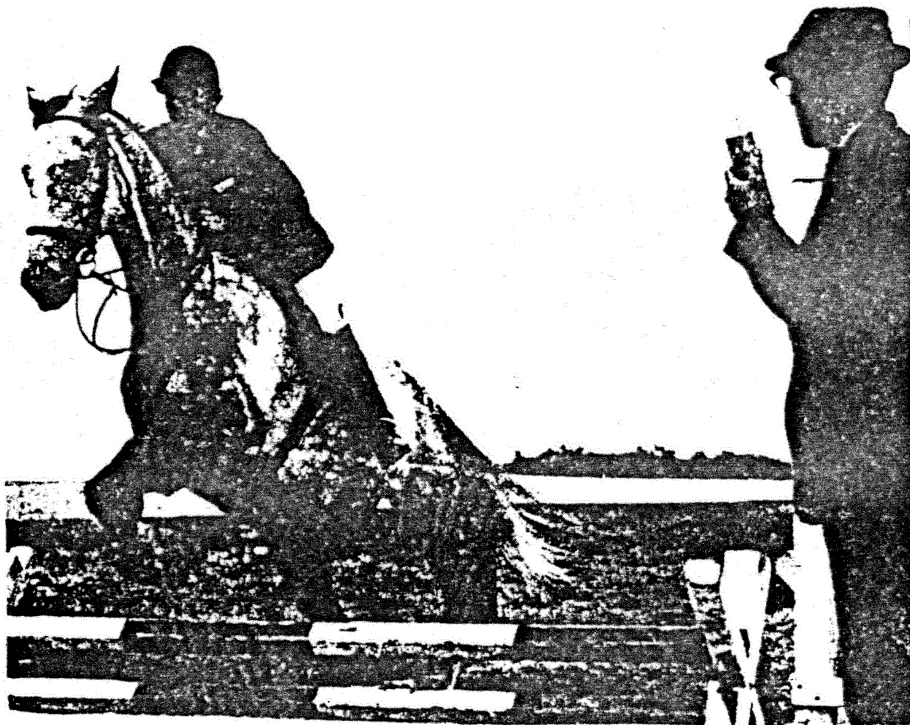


Figure 32. Active vs. Passive
Horse Jumping
Fence

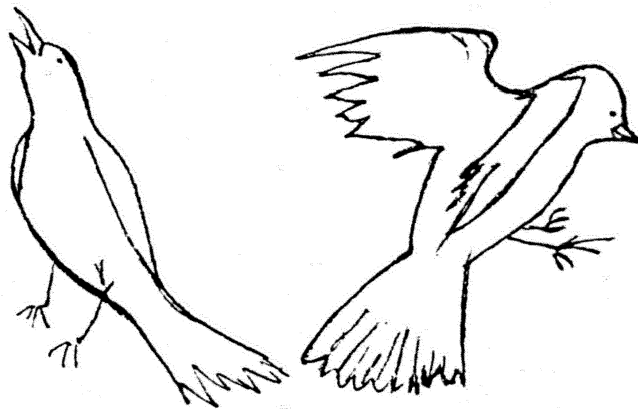


Figure 33. Two Birds



Figure 34. Six Garden Tools

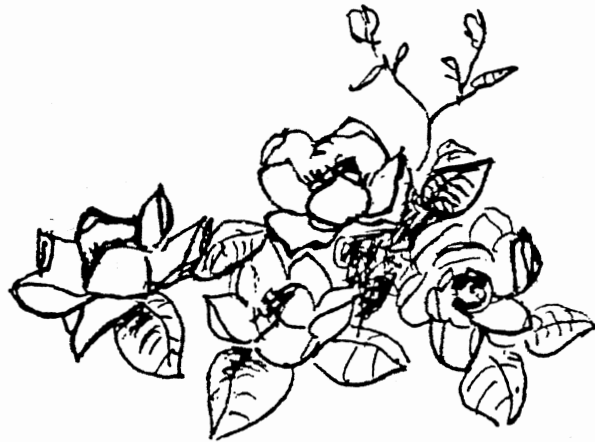


Figure 35. Four Roses

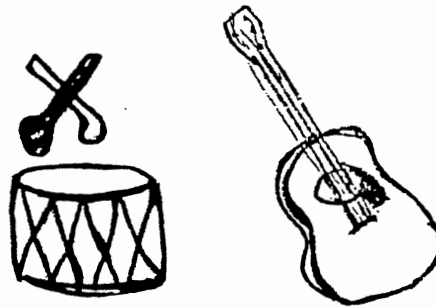


Figure 36. Three Musical Instruments

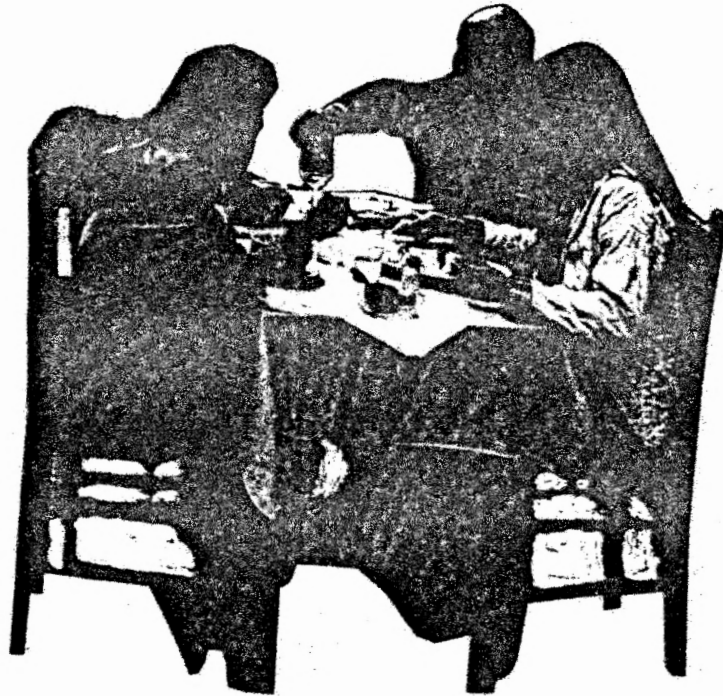


Figure 37. Family Eating

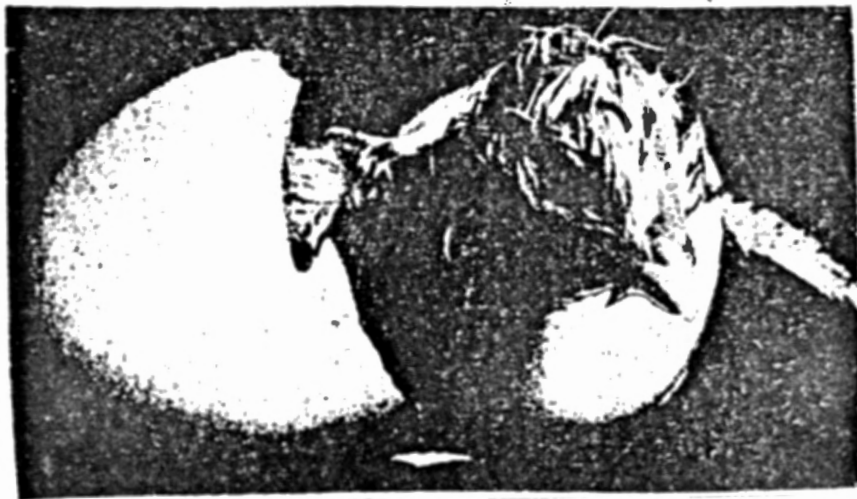


Figure 38. Sequence, Egg Hatching

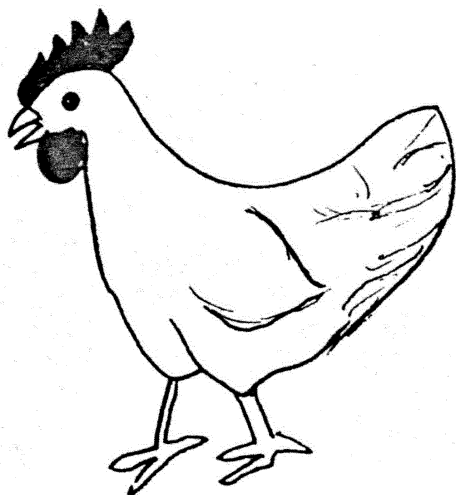


Figure 39. Sequence, Rooster

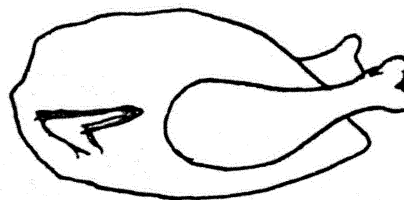


Figure 40. Sequence,
Baked
Chicken



Figure 41. Bored vs. Boring Lion



Figure 42. Who is Interested? Who is Interesting?

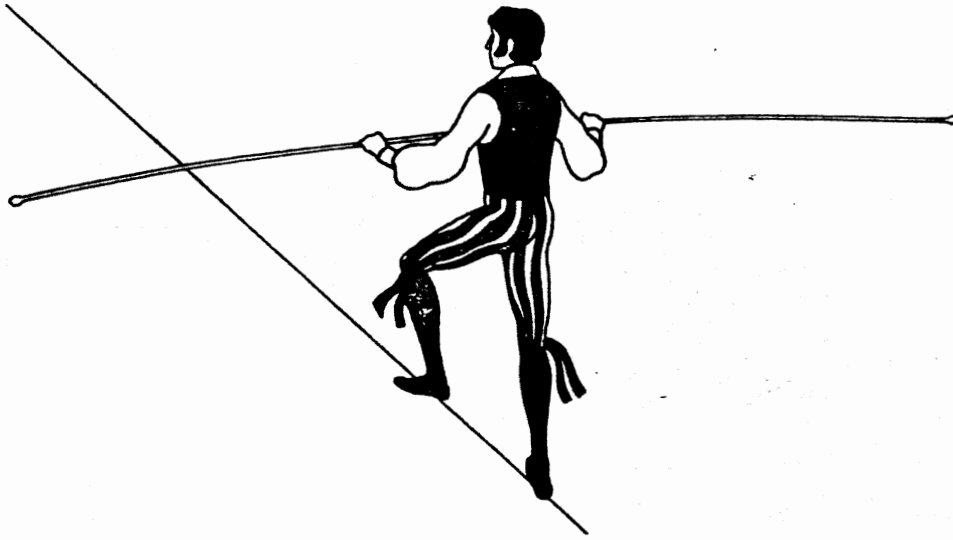


Figure 43. Man Balancing on Tightrope

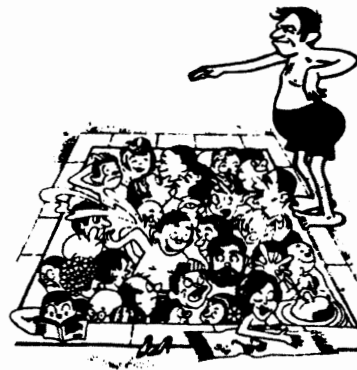


Figure 44. Crowded Pool

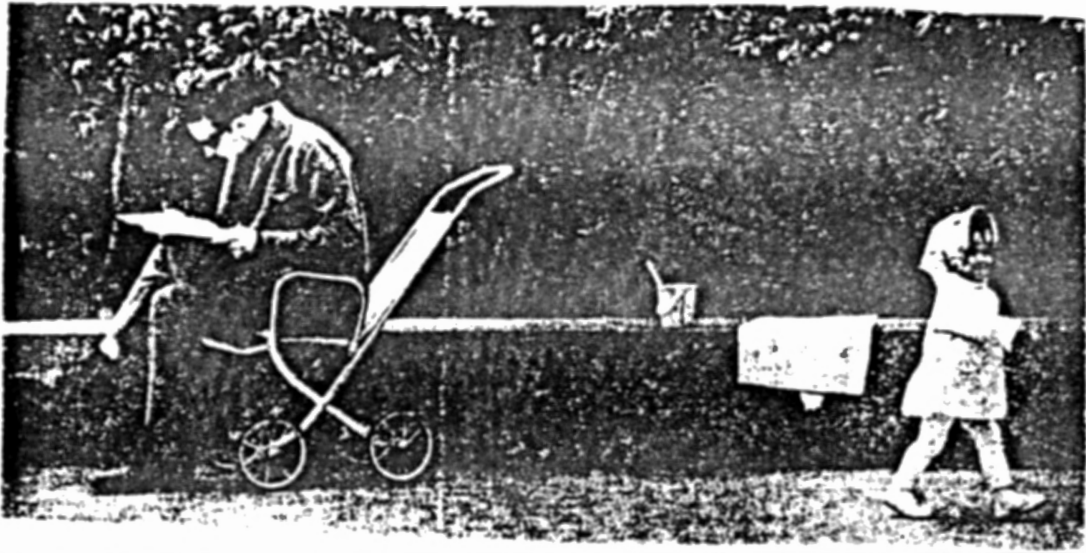


Figure 45. Father and Daughter

APPENDIX G

CHART OF SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS
OF AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

CHART OF SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS
OF AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

Summary of Characteristics of Audiovisual Materials

TABLE 7-1

MATERIAL	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS	RELATIVE COST TO PREPARE*											
			ORIGINALS	DUPLICATES										
Photographic print series	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Permit close-up detailed study at individual's own pacing 2. Are useful as simple self-study materials and for display 3. Require no equipment for use 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Not adaptable for large groups 2. Require photographic skills, equipment, and darkroom for preparation 	\$0.20 per 8 X 10 inch black and white print \$4.00 per 8 X 10 inch color print (by processing laboratory)	\$0.15 per 8 X 10 inch black and white print \$4.00 per 8 X 10 inch color print (by processing laboratory)										
Slide series	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require only filming, with processing and mounting by film laboratory 2. Result in colorful, realistic reproductions of original subjects 3. Prepared with any 35-mm camera for most uses 4. Easily revised and up-dated 5. Easily handled, stored, and rearranged for various uses 6. Increased usefulness with tray storage and automatic projection 7. Can be combined with taped narration for greater effectiveness 8. May be adapted to group or to individual use 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require some skill in photography 2. Require special equipment for close-up photography and copying 3. Can get out of sequence and be projected incorrectly if slides are handled individually 	\$0.35 per color slide	\$0.30 per color slide										
Filmstrips	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are compact, easily handled, and always in proper sequence 2. Can be supplemented with captions or recordings 3. Are inexpensive when quantity reproduction is required 4. Are useful for group or individual study at projection rate controlled by instructor or user 5. Are projected with simple lightweight equipment 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are relatively difficult to prepare locally 2. Require film-laboratory service to convert slides to film-strip form 3. Are in permanent sequence and cannot be rearranged or revised 	\$0.75 per frame, black and white \$3.00 per frame, color (by processing laboratory)	\$0.02 per frame, black and white \$0.05 per frame, color (by processing laboratory)										
Recordings	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Easy to prepare with regular tape recorders 2. Can provide applications in most subject areas 3. Equipment for use, compact, portable, easy to operate 4. Flexible and adaptable as either individual elements of instruction or in correlation with programmed materials 5. Duplication easy and economical 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Have a tendency for overuse, as lecture or oral textbook reading 2. Fixed rate of information flow 	<table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>reel</i></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><i>cassette</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td>300 feet—\$2.00</td> <td>C30—\$1.75</td> </tr> <tr> <td>600 feet—\$2.50</td> <td>C60—\$2.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1200 feet—\$4.00</td> <td>C90—\$2.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1800 feet—\$5.50</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	<i>reel</i>	<i>cassette</i>	300 feet—\$2.00	C30—\$1.75	600 feet—\$2.50	C60—\$2.00	1200 feet—\$4.00	C90—\$2.50	1800 feet—\$5.50		
<i>reel</i>	<i>cassette</i>													
300 feet—\$2.00	C30—\$1.75													
600 feet—\$2.50	C60—\$2.00													
1200 feet—\$4.00	C90—\$2.50													
1800 feet—\$5.50														
Overhead transparencies	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Can present information in systematic, developmental sequences 2. Use simple-to-operate projector with presentation rate controlled by instructor 3. Require only limited planning 4. Can be prepared by variety of simple, inexpensive methods 5. Particularly useful with large groups 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require special equipment, facilities, and skills for more advanced preparation methods 2. Are large and present storage problem 	\$0.40 per single sheet of film	\$0.25 per single sheet of film										
Motion pictures	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. May consist of complete films or short film clips 2. Are particularly useful in describing motion, showing relationships, or giving impact to topic 3. 8-mm film reduces cost for materials and services 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. May be expensive to prepare in terms of time, equipment, materials, and services 	\$7.50 50 feet 8-mm color \$9.50 100 feet 16-mm	\$7.00 50 feet 8-mm color \$6.00 100 feet 16-mm										

* Estimated cost of materials for a single unit. Time and special services would be in addition.

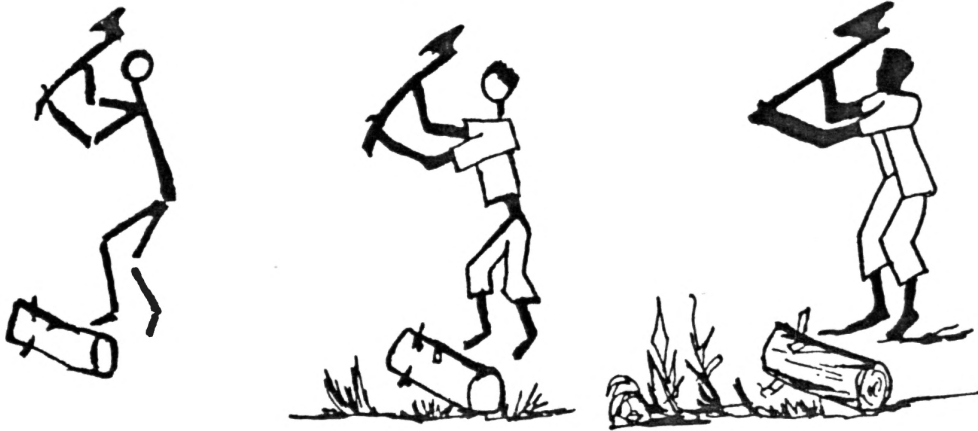
The Kinds of Materials

Motion pictures (continued)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Are useful with groups of all sizes and with individuals 5. Sound is easily added to magnetic film 6. May include special techniques for handling content 7. Insure a consistency in presentation of material 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Require careful planning and some production skill 3. A changing field in which some present equipment may become obsolete 	<p style="text-align: center;">black-and-white \$15.00 \$12.00 100 feet 16-mm color \$0.03-\$0.06 \$0.03-\$0.06 per 1 foot of magnetic striping</p>
Television and display materials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Permit selecting the best audiovisual media to serve program needs 2. Permit shifting from one medium to another during program 3. Permit normally unavailable resources to be presented 4. Playback capability of video recording permits analysis of on-the-spot action 5. New-type display boards provide flexibility in displaying various kinds of objects and writing on surface 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do not exist alone, but are part of total television production 2. Must fit technical requirements of television 3. At times require rapid preparation of materials 4. Some display boards are expensive to make or purchase 	Refer to the specific types of material above
Multi-image/multimedia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Combine presentation of slides with other media forms for presentations 2. Use photographs, slides, filmstrips, and recordings in combination for independent study 3. Provide for more effective communications in certain situations than when only a single medium is used 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require additional equipment and careful coordination during planning, preparation, and use 	Refer to each type of material above

APPENDIX H

SIMPLE SKETCHES TO SHOW DIFFERENT
ACTIONS OR STORIES

SIMPLE SKETCHES TO SHOW DIFFERENT
ACTIONS OR STORIES



Chopping Wood



Lying Down



Running

Figure 46. Illustrations Depicting Action

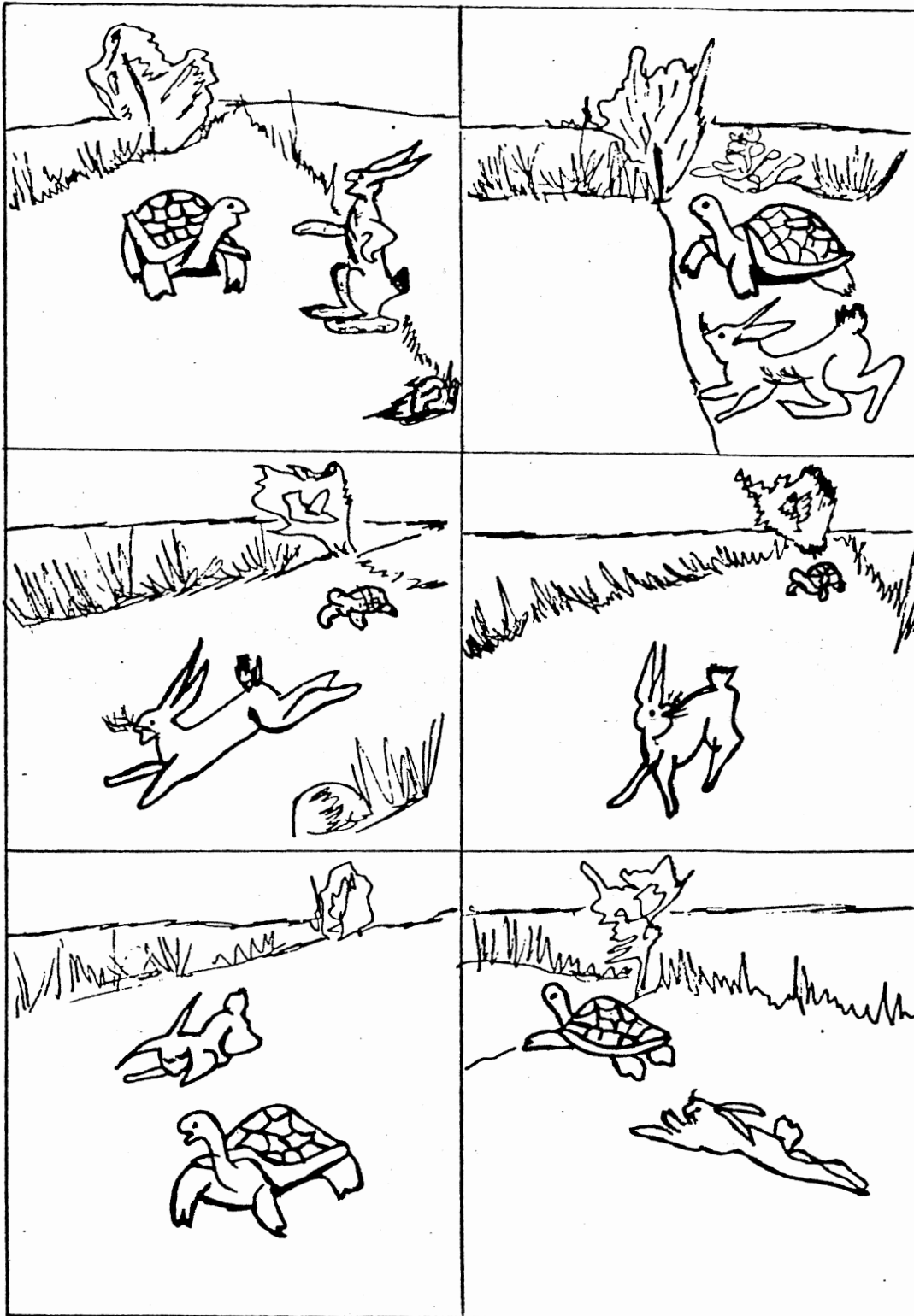


Figure 47. Story of the Rabbit and the Hare



Figure 48. Monkey Stealing Pie and Getting Caught

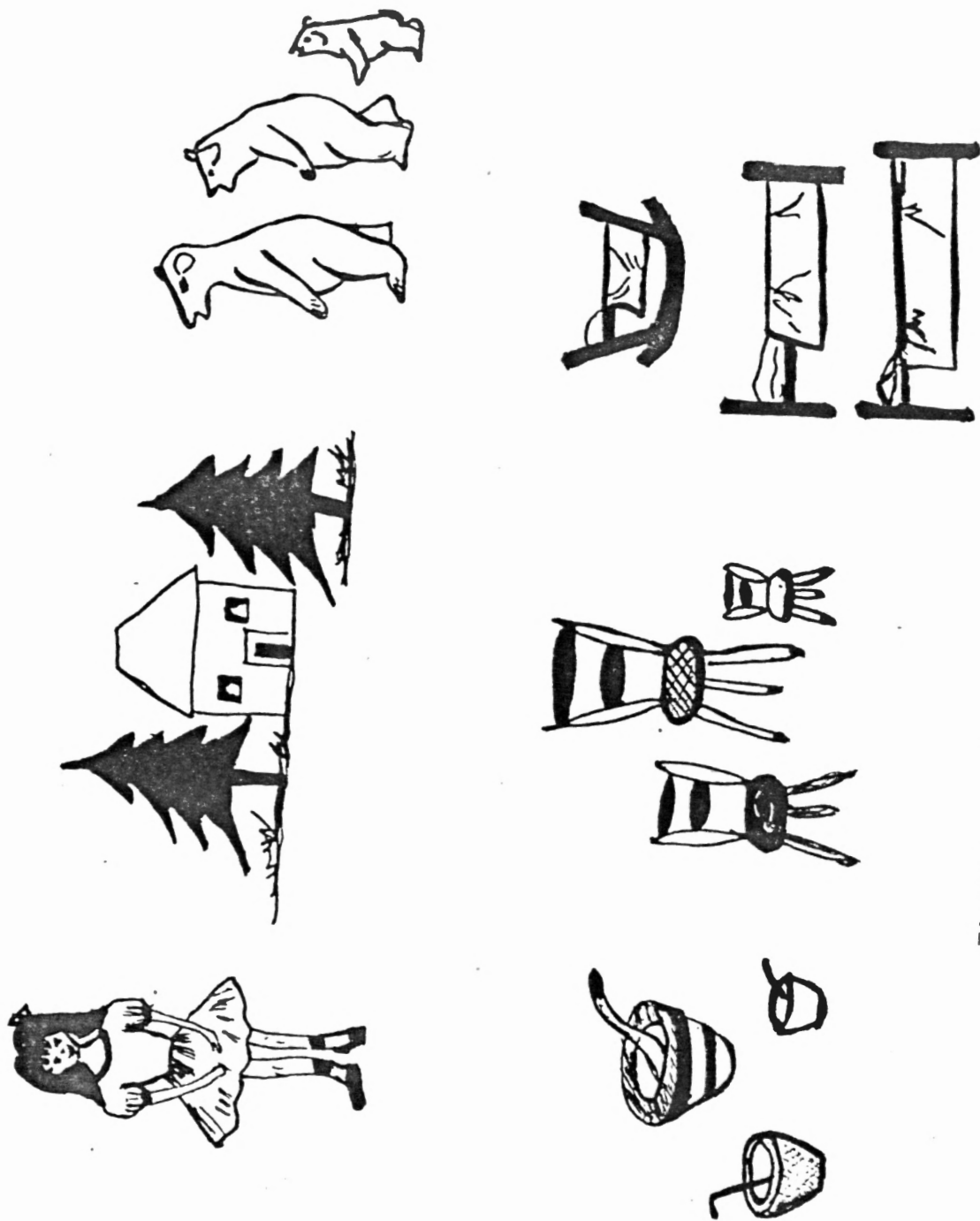


Figure 49. Coldilocks and the Three Bears

VITA /

Parvin Rabie

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