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ABSTRACT

In the first two chapters of this study, the author provides an overview of the role of television in education, and reviews some of the research carried out in the field. Following chapters deal with foreign language teaching, the teaching of English as a second language, teacher training, the teaching of English in Israel, a contrastive analysis of the use of the indefinite determiner in English and modern Hebrew, a lesson plan utilizing ETV, and a projected view of the field. Concluding the study are a bibliography and a brief listing of video-tape programs in English-as-a-second-language programs used by the United States Information Services, the British Council, the Centre for Educational Television Overseas (London), the Swedish Schools Broadcasts, the St. Cloud-CREDIF (France), and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. (AMM)

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

by
Manuel Silver

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THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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1. Introduction: Educational Television and the Twentieth Century

In the United States, as in other technically advanced countries, the average person is apt to take for granted the great wealth of informational facilities at his disposal. It may be difficult to realize that nearly seventy percent of the world's people, living in over a hundred countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, lack the barest means of being informed of events at home, let alone in other countries. In these areas, for every hundred people there are less than ten copies of a daily newspaper, less than five radios and less than two movie seats. Many of the countries have no news agency of any kind and no television service. This dearth of facilities for mass communication is all the more significant in a time of rapid growth of population and worldwide efforts to raise living standards. These factors enhance the importance of mass communication for education.

Unsurpassed in speed, range and force of impact, television can play a crucial role in the economic and social expansion of countries, particularly at a time when the less developed nations are seeking to achieve in a matter of years a level of advancement which has taken developed countries centuries to attain. It is not surprising therefore, that there is an increasing awareness of the link between the development of educational media and economic and social expansion generally. On the one hand, society must reach a certain level of

wealth and technological advancement before it can establish and service the mass media. On the other hand, the media can markedly stimulate the capacity to create wealth and to spur technical progress by enlisting the human factors such as improved skills and better education among adults. However, since information and education in the past have not been considered as a factor in production but rather in consumption, development of mass media of communication has generally not been given the place it deserves in modern economic planning.

The importance of television in mass communication is taken for granted. However, many are not yet convinced of the importance of television for educational purposes. We are thinking not only of the use of films and television programs in existing forms of education, but we are looking at television as a force which would greatly accelerate and expand the whole of the educational process.

When considering the situation in the world today, it is essential that we make a special effort in exploring the use of mass media for the solution of pressing educational problems. The shortage of teachers and the new potential of mass media, especially television, are glaringly evident. Are we looking too far ahead in the future to the use of satellites in outer space for the widespread dissemination across national boundaries of educational programs? This is being done today - even though to a small extent.

We must take a fresh look at the new role that television is likely to play in the next twenty years, and the impact this will have upon the educational process of both children and adults. Governments of countries seeking to make a rapid break-through in education will not wish to rely merely on traditional methods. If new techniques are to be employed, what will be their usefulness? What will be their cost? How will they affect the minds of men? What changes in the structure and the methods of education do these mass media call for? To some of these questions only tentative answers can presently be given and no attempt will be made in this paper to present a solution. However,

certain factors are very evident.

The very rapid development of science and technology characterizes this world and education today. The people who support and develop this expansion in technological aids need to have a great increase in education to provide trained personnel for these new skills which are at their disposal. A good system of primary and secondary education open to all children, and democratic in spirit is essential for the growth of the people.

Not only is the complexity of education increasing but the very number of people to be educated is increasing at a fantastic rate. More people of the world want more and better education. Particularly in those countries which are called developing countries there is a great need to plan educational systems in such a way that we can meet the aspirations of the people. At the same time, schools must be planned to take advantage of the great technological strides that have been made. When over half of the world's children are not now in school, when many of those who go to school would have only a few years of inadequate education before they leave, when forty five percent of the world's people over fifteen years of age are totally unable to read or write - then the magnitude of the task is obvious.

Many questions are being asked about educational television today. We do this not only because of dissatisfaction with past practices but because we feel that new situations demand new approaches. The classroom in which a fully qualified teacher instructs a small number of children with adequate facilities is of course desirable, but what do we do when a country lacks teachers, schools and instructional materials yet desires to have free compulsory education? What do we do when the majority of the adults are illiterate? What happens if such a country cannot afford at the peril of its own development to make only gradual progress in the education of its citizens? How effectively can educational authorities seek out ways to make better use of the talents of existing qualified and semi-qualified teaching personnel, to

meet the needs of great numbers of students? Situations such as these demand that we revise our approach to the media of communication, not because we doubt that the traditional approaches are inadequate, but because they are inapplicable under prevailing conditions.

Television has probably a more comprehensive and fundamental role to play today than any other innovation because it is the most powerful medium of communication that has become available to mankind since the invention of moveable type. It is not simply a new "extra" to be super-imposed on the status quo of education to achieve marginal improvement. Its serious application as a teaching tool is bound to change the whole web of conventional education, including the curriculum, teacher training, the chronological lock-step grade system, the traditional type of textbook and even school architecture and planning.

2. Research in Educational Television

Even though television in the presentation of regular classroom instruction only dates from about 1950, it has probably been subjected to more research than any other instructional innovation. This may be either because the use of television has appeared to threaten the position of the classroom teacher or perhaps the costs involved are such that the advocates of educational television have had to produce a great deal of evidence to support its use. In any event, the research has been extensive and well-documented.

The most extensive phase of research was characterized by many studies of relative effectiveness, in which learning from educational television was compared with that resulting from direct classroom instruction in many subjects at a variety of educational levels, ranging from elementary through college.

A number of excellent summaries of studies of comparative effects

of student achievement have been published. Kumata's[1] Inventory in 1956 was followed three years later by Holmes[2], who developed an elaborate coding and classification system under which he considered ninety six research studies. Another study[3] does a thorough job of reviewing the research relating to comparison of attitudes relevant to educational television in particular. Schramm[4] pointed out that in the various research studies some groups of students learned more from televised instruction than from direct instruction, some learned less, and in many cases there were no significant differences in learning. In his survey the results of three hundred and ninety three studies were summarized. Of these, eighty three showed differences in learning in favor of television, two hundred and fifty five reported no significant differences and fifty five favored direct classroom teaching over televised instruction. Stickell[5] advanced a hypothesis that these apparent inconsistent results from many research studies may be a function of inadequate experimental designs from uncontrolled variables. Accordingly, he designed a set of rather rigorous requirements for good experimental research for these types of comparisons of achievement. He then carefully examined some two hundred and fifty studies which had compared televised with

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1 Kumata, H. An Inventory of Instructional Television Research, Ann Arbor, Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956.

2 Holmes, T.D., Jr. Television Research in the Teaching-Learning Process, Detroit, Wayne State University, Division of Broadcasting, 1959.

3 Maclennan, D.W. and Reid, J.C., A Survey of the Literature of Learning and Attitude Research in Instructional Television, Columbia University of Missouri, Dept. of Speech, 1963.

4 Schramm, W., "What We Know About Learning from Instructional Television", in Schramm, W. (ed.), Educational Television: The Next Ten Years, The Institute for Communication Research, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1962.

5 Stickell, A.W., A Critical Review of the Methodology and Results of Research Comparing Televised and Face-to-Face Instruction, unpublished Ed. D. thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1963.

face-to-face instruction, and classified them according to the extent to which they met his requirements for adequate experimental designs. Of the two hundred and fifty comparisons, two hundred and seventeen were classified as uninterpretable, twenty three were classified as partially interpretable and only ten were classified as interpretable. Of these ten, all showed no significant differences in learning at the .05 level between face-to-face and televised instruction.

One of the most significant developments today is the trend toward emphasizing the question of how instruction can be improved through the use of television. In the last year or so several studies have applied some of the principles of programmed learning[1] to televised instruction in an effort to overcome the alleged passivity of learning from television by providing many opportunities for students to interact with the concepts being presented. Learners are given questions to answer or short problems to solve and are reinforced with immediate knowledge of results over the television system.

These programming techniques may well be extended to laboratory instruction using television to pace students through complex experiments or presenting audio-visual performance test situations for students to solve.

One of the most productive trends now beginning is the concept of course development. The objectives of the course or curriculum are subjected to a thorough operational analysis and are then restated in detail and expressed in terms of desired student behavior. In other words, what should the learner be required to know and do as a result of studying the course? Such terminal behavior cannot be expressed in a paragraph or two of generalities. It must be described in a num-

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[1] Comparative Research on Methods and Media for Presenting Programmed Courses in Mathematics and English, University, 1963.
Gropper, G.L. and Lumsdaine, A. A., "The Use of Student Response to Improve Televised Instruction, 7 vols.", Pittsburgh, American Institute for Research, 1961 to 1964.

ber of pages of detailed behavioral requirements. With this defined, it is possible to build appropriate tests which will assess whether the student can achieve the desired goals. At the same time, performance standards can be specified.

The content that will be required to provide the necessary knowledge the students will need, must be decided upon. The subject matter must be structured for optimum learning and the most appropriate method of presenting the content decided upon. Thought must be given to the development of appropriate supplemental materials and learning opportunities, which may include textbooks, references, especially prepared study guides, assignments, tests for self-evaluation, programmed material, recordings, laboratory activities, etc. Ample opportunity must be provided for students to practice what they are learning and to receive appropriate reinforcements through knowledge of progress.

Several things are clear. Research on instructional television will be with us for some time to come and it is becoming more sophisticated and more complex. Television (video-tape recordings in particular) provides a marvelous vehicle with excellent control over the stimulus material to make such research feasible and productive.

On the whole, the results of the full three years of the testing program indicated that the classes receiving televised instruction generally did better in the subject matter areas involving the related classroom and televised instruction than did the non-television classes.

In concluding his report to the Board of Education, regarding the findings resulting from the first three years of the program Dr. Lefevre commented:

> "...We are evaluating a "package", a complex pattern of factors influencing the learning experiences of children rather than the effect of instructional television as a separate isolated entity. Television instruction is but one element in the total combination of influences impinging upon the child, even though we limit our observations to what the child is learning while in the classroom.
>
> ...The evaluations indicate that television is a decidedly

useful tool in the hands of this instructional staff... (and) the re-deployment system with its teams of resource room teachers and skills teachers, appears especially promising. The results of this evaluation may be interpreted as distinctly favorable to the continuation of the instructional television program."[1]

3. Educational Television and Foreign Language Teaching

Foreign language teachers have always been in the forefront of the movement to utilize the best available audio-visual techniques, for the better presentation of their material. Thus, it was natural that the foreign language teacher looked with expectant gaze at this newest edition to the educational toolbox.

The FLES Program (Foreign languages in the elementary school) had bogged down for lack of a rationale and long term projections. Colleges and high schools alike, complained of the lack of achievement in their foreign language courses. The shortage of teachers and specialists in the field of Foreign Language Education was acute. The field was thus ready for educational television to take its place in the teaching of French, Spanish, German and Russian, the most common subjects in our curriculum.

A number of programs were initiated. Rather than list all of the experiments that were undertaken, let us examine in detail one or two of the more worthwhile projects.

The Denver-Stanford Project: This project was one of the largest research projects financed under Title 7 of the National Defense Educa-

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[1] Shanks, Robert E. --"The Anaheim Approach to Closed Circuit Television", Diamond, Robert M., (ed.) --A Guide to Instructional Television. New York, McGraw, Hill Book Co. 1964, p.56

tion Act, conducted jointly over a three and a half year period by the Denver Public Schools and the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford University. Thus, the resources of both the largest school system and a research institute were brought to bear on the problem.

Foreign language in the elementary school was selected as the subject matter to be taught, with Spanish as the specific language. Not only was there a great shortage of elementary school teachers qualified to handle the language, but furthermore, foreign language instruction had begun in many school systems but without any hope of specific continuity. One advantage of the use of the foreign language as the vehicle for investigation was that it had not been frozen by years of use, and thus lent itself well to experimentation. The project began in 1960, using television as a basic instructional device, but its primary purpose was to discover through systematic variation of the context of television what combination of television, classroom and home activities would meet the objectives of an elementary school Spanish program.

In the project, fifth grade pupils viewed a fifteen minute televised lesson each Monday, Wednesday and Friday, and sixth graders each Tuesday and Thursday. All lessons were re-telecast in the evening at seven. The basic TV instruction was constant, that is, the same videotapes were used year after year, thus variations occurred in the complementary school and home activities.

The first year of research in the fifth grade was concerned with audio-lingual skills. Pupils listened to and spoke Spanish but did not read nor write. The research procedures in 1960-61 were designed to determine:

1. if adding classroom to televised instruction would increase learning
2. what type of classroom activity would be most effective
3. if a second viewing of a TV lesson was of any value.

In the second year of research further electronic aids were evaluated as part of the instructional package. These aids, which consisted

of record players and a few tape recorders, were used in the classroom but not in language laboratories of any kind. Pupils listened to specially prepared lesson segments and practiced speaking, although they did not record their own voices. In the sixth grade the experimental variations involved mostly reading and writing. Audio-lingual instruction continued of course, as sixth grade pupils viewed the TV lessons and had a fifteen minute follow-up each Tuesday and Thursday, but a thirty minute period each Wednesday was used for other activities.

Half of the sixth graders had reading and writing instruction on Wednesdays in the first semester, and half had further audio-lingual instruction. All pupils took reading and writing in the second semester. Thus, beginning these skills at different times may have an affect upon the listening and speaking skills. In another variation, children studied writing and reading in two ways, by the traditional face-to-face teacher-directed method and by programmed instruction.

In the third year the fifth graders received tape recorders which they used to record and play back their own voices. Thus, the three research treatments were therefore:

a) no electronic aids

b) electronic aids without feedback

c) electronic aids with feedback

During the third year of research, in the sixth grade, the emphasis was once more on reading and writing, which began at the start of the year, and the two single practices (either entirely by teacher direction or entirely by program) were repeated. A number of combinations were added and these included:

1. teacher-directed plus automated instruction in school
2. teacher-directed instruction in school and automated instruction at home
3. teacher-directed instruction in school and automated instruction at home plus extended reading at home and at school
4. teacher-directed instruction in school and automated

instruction at home plus extended reading at home and at school plus a "Spanish Corner" in school.

The Spanish Corner included a tape recorder, various reading materials and cultural artifacts. In the evening, parent participation was considered an added factor.

The main findings of the project can be summarized as follows:

1. A substantial amount of learning takes place when fifth and sixth grade pupils view expertly prepared television lessons in their classrooms.
2. The amount of learning can be greatly increased if the context of this instruction is skillfully manipulated.
3. A second viewing of the television lesson is valuable when the pupil has no additional instruction in the classroom.
4. Many activities were found to be effective supplements to the televised instruction, but certain combinations of activities were considerably more effective than others.
5. An eclectic form of classroom practice proved desirable, (that is, structure drill, dialogue drill, narrative drill and certain other practices.)
6. Electronic aids, particularly those with feedback, proved valuable in all instances.
7. Reading and writing should start at least by the beginning of the second year of instruction, (that is, the sixth grade in this case.)
8. The supplemental activities which provided more variety produced more learning.
9. In most of these supplemental activities, the pupil had some contact with the classroom teacher who was of prime importance. In fact, a well trained and highly motivated classroom teacher is the most effective single "learning aid" that a school can combine with instructional television.

10. The interest, experience and preparation of the classroom teacher influenced the learning.

Two other findings were of particular importance.

1. The use of programmed instruction: in all trials, automated materials produced significant amounts of learning and when introduced during the fourth semester of language instruction, they were as effective as the traditional teacher-directed approach. However, although children learned from these materials, they still required the attention of a teacher to deal with individual problems and needs. This suggests the combination of teacher-directed and automated instruction in each situation.

2. Parent participation: this involvement of the parents directly in the instructional process runs contrary to the trend of public school practices over the last fifty years or so. The parents were invited to help their children learn Spanish and increasing numbers volunteered each year. They were asked specifically to view the evening repeat of the television lesson with the child, using a specially prepared phonograph record to improve Spanish pronunciation, and to speak Spanish with the child in general. What was the result of this? Children whose parents participated in the program learned more Spanish than those whose parents did not participate. Each year a completely new set of parents and pupils was involved and on every trial the procedure produced statistically significant differences in performance. Therefore, there is no doubt that the differences were real and not the result of chance. There was a selection factor, of course. Since parents volunteered for the activities a legitimate question is whether their children might not have learned more anyway. This cannot be proved. However, every effort was made to account for all the possible factors and the results, under the most careful scrutiny, indicate conclusively that parent participation per se affected performance. In further study, a significant but relatively low (about .25) co-relation between amount of practice at

home and pupil performance was found. If this is examined as of any value, it suggests that parents can constitute a valuable, educational resource which has been largely overlooked. The implications for teaching in other areas are of course immense.

The Denver-Stanford Project has established beyond any doubt, that the context of instructional television is important, and that an excellent instructional program can be built by combining television with complementary classroom and home activities.

The Anaheim approach to closed circuit television proved so successful that educational personnel, technical personnel and the school board were convinced that this was a worthwhile project of considerable value. Although the project dealt with a complete school district and with all areas of instruction, our interest is directed to the specific foreign language program.

Through the use of closed circuit television facilities, systematic instruction in conversational Spanish was made available to more than six thousand pupils in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades of the Anaheim district. Three highly talented, truly bilingual teachers provided the basic instruction via television, at a salary cost to the district of approximately $18,000 annually. Not only would it have been impossible to locate a large number of language teachers necessary to provide the same instruction by conventional means, but the cost of the instruction, in terms of salaries and transportations expenses for such teachers (who would have been required to travel around the district to do this teaching) would have been practically prohibitive. By conventional means, it would have taken at least twenty teachers, to provide equal instruction at a cost of $120,000 per year.

MPATI, The Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, probably reaches more schools and students than any other broadcasting technique of its kind. Now in its seventh year of operation, the program has had its share of headaches and frustrations, but it is considered a success by all those who use it. Operating on two ultra-high-frequency

channels, it transmits twenty six courses from airplanes, broadcasting four days a week, five hours each day. Most lessons are repeated to allow schools flexibility in scheduling. Course guides are provided to give lessons more meaning to both pupils and teachers. MPATI covers more than 140,000 square miles, containing 14,000 schools and colleges that enroll 6,600,000 students. It spends approximately $2,000 a lesson to produce courses with additional costs including aircraft purchase and designing and engineering, and a large staff.

While these figures might stagger some people, the officials of the schools emphasize that the quality is excellent and that they do get their money's worth. All grade levels are served by the program. The courses for elementary grades range from science and mathematics to music and foreign languages. For junior high - science, foreign languages and social studies, and for senior high - social studies and literature. There is even a special program for teachers.

The quality of the telecasts is rated very high by the participants. Foreign languages and science won special praise, because without these televised offerings, the courses would not have been available at certain grade levels in some of the schools.

With regard to lessons in Spanish, teachers reported that:

> "...T.V. instruction in Spanish is at least as effective as instruction of the same type by a special teacher locally. Students in the T.V. group outperformed the control group by six points in a forty item interpretation test, equalled the control group in a second similar test and equalled the control group in a pronunciation test."[1]

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[1] Sinha, B.K. and Sweany, P., Research and Evaluation of MPATI by Memeber Schools, East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1963.

4. Educational Television and the Teaching of English as a Second Language

The UNESCO Ceylon Conference of 1955 set forth the following guide lines for foreign language education:

1. The educational approach must be essentially oral.
2. Active teaching methods must be used to the utmost.
3. The foreign language must be used as much as possible in the class.
4. Cognizance must be taken of the hierarchy of difficulty in presenting pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.
5. The purpose of teaching a language is to provide pupils with actual practice rather than to impart theoretical knowledge of the forms of the language.

Educational television is a tool in the hands of the teacher, a tool that can help to translate the above guide lines into daily classroom use.

What then is the place of educational television in the reality of classrooms, timetables, curricula, teachers with forty children, traditional textbooks, and so on? The producer of a school program knows that his audience will be graded according to age and classes. They will view the TV screen at fixed hours, at fixed days, assisted perhaps by a teacher instructed in advance, who is able to utilize the TV program and wants to incorporate it into his teaching.

Professor Pit Corder[1] is of the opinion that such teaching, to fit in properly with class work, must be produced at a local level and therefore must be a "live" broadcast, though he knows that we are a long way from that situation. He adds that the sole justification of the television course is that it can supply, as a complement to the teacher's lessons, what teaching between the four walls of a classroom cannot

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[1] Corder, Pit S., English Language Teaching and T.V., London, Longmans, 1960.

supply - the cultural background of the language and the attendance of native speakers from foreign countries, for example. Auxiliary television can supply what he calls "contextualization." This he defines as showing how each word, each sound, each construction has a bearing on the word system, the pronunciation and the grammar of the language, or on the general context of the part of the world where the language is spoken. He regards short lessons of five minutes daily, repeated several times a day as the most effective. This is how he visualized them:

1. Context: The pupils see a linguistic episode on the screen, a brief sketch demonstrating a particular pattern of behavior.

2. Practical Application: The pupil is invited to play the part of one of the participants and the whole sketch is run through again phrase by phrase, with the pupil imitating and repeating the verbal behavior, and even the gestures of one of the participants while the other actors on the screen address him.

3. Consolidation: A further repetition of the episode made from beginning to end at normal speed, the pupil taking one of the parts which he now knows by heart.

A somewhat different format is followed by the BBC in their "Walter and Connie" series, in which they use both live actors and animated cartoons.

What are the aims of these programs in view of recent research in applied linguistics?

1. To induce the viewer to react correctly and appropriately within a limited choice of predictable situations.

2. To portray life and the part played in it by language, in such a way that the viewer may recognize it and appreciate the point, when he comes across the same situation in ordinary life.

3. To create in the viewer a feeling of confidence and arouse his interest, so as to encourage him to continue the study of the language.

Mr. W. Stannard Allen, of the British Council, the author of "Living English Structures and Living English Speech" has been the language adviser of the television professionals who wrote the dialogue for "Walter and Connie." The course is closely linked with situations of daily life. The language employed is restricted so that it can be manipulated with confidence at a normal pace. There is some attempt to develop a comprehension of the language, on a more extensive scale than that which the beginner will manage to speak.

Grammar is by the inductive method, leading the learner on to work out for himself what the rules are. Constructions are presented again and again. The items are repeated in different settings so as to avoid monotony and help fix idioms, which are carefully chosen for their frequent recurrence and their usefulness.

"Walter and Connie" was deliberately conceived with the idea of being passed on to foreign administrations. There are standard parts of the program in English and these are mixed with passages in the vernacular. These sections can be prepared according to taste by the foreign administration which is supplied with a text for translation and adaptation. Versions exist in French, Spanish, German and Arabic. Employing the device of a "Voice Off" avoids the awkwardness of post-synchronization when the speaker is visible on the screen. The cartoons used lend themselves to this arrangement.

The Center for Educational Television Overseas, of London, has prepared boxes of material called "Outfits for Programs" containing 16 mm films, photos, planning schedules, dummies, models and captions. All the material is intended for teachers who are going to teach by television in developing countries. Eight programs out of forty-eight have been available since the beginning of 1964. Each outfit contains a filmed sound cartoon lasting fifteen minutes, explanatory views il-

lustrating the essential scenes of the cartoon and the text of the scenario. It is recommended that the program should be based four days a week on consecutive sequences of three minutes, that the complete duration of the lesson is fifteen minutes and it is up to the teacher to use the graphic material and the text to fill out the film. On the fifth day, the whole film will be shown by itself, as a recapitulation exercise and to help fix the acquired knowledge firmly in the viewers' minds. One outfit on its own thus serves for the preparation of five televised lessons, if the teacher has been trained to use it judicially.

"Let's Learn English" is produced by the United States Information Agency. It is a series of one hundred thirty 15 minute filmed programs following an audio-lingual approach in teaching the English language, but adding strong visual support to language learning. The series, which limits itself to a beginner's level, took a complete year in the planning stage before production began. After careful consideration, it was decided that the series should be directed toward an older student, and even an adult audience, that it should be suitable for use in any country having television and that it should concentrate on language problems generally regarded as basic at the beginning level. As a ready and useful grammar and vocabulary guide on which to base the TV lessons, the writers selected the text book "Let's Learn English." The television lessons are of course designed to teach English without any accompanying printed material. Since, however, this textbook is widely used around the world, it is readily available to persons who wish a study guide of this type.

Because this TV English series is directed to world wide audience, the filmed programs are necessarily completely in English. While the producers of the series recognize the importance of contrastive analysis in developing a teaching program, the multi-lingual nature of the audience imposed a course outline which emphasized only those elements which are difficult for learners from many different language areas. The result is a course which gives approximately equal stress to all the aspects of English. To teach basic English grammar and the vocabulary of a thousand

words, the series relies on a format which balances presentation, drill and language activity in the form of dramatized situation.

The programs generally open with an introduction to new words and structures, given by the TV host and teacher, Don Richards, who then introduces the dramatic portion in which three foreign students use the English they have learned to face situations they meet during their stay in the United States. The teacher returns to conclude the presentation by conducting various review exercises. The techniques of the direct method are used by the TV teacher. "Listen", he says, and then proceeds to speak several sentences which illustrate the grammar point he wishes to teach. "Now repeat", he commands, and the sentences are given again with a pause after each one to allow the TV viewers to imitate him.

In pattern practice, through substitution drill, the teacher asks the student to repeat a sentence he has spoken, but with one of the elements of the sentence changed. The original sentence might be, "Where does Tom study?". The teacher speaks the sentence and then says, "Now, substitute Betty." In the pause that follows, the student is expected to say, "Where does Betty study?". The teacher then speaks the sentence, so that the student will know whether he has done it correctly. This substitution drill was introduced and carefully demonstrated in the dramatic sequence of several programs before the TV viewers were asked to participate in it themselves.

The result has been that the viewers have understood from the start what they were expected to do. They report that they enjoy this type of drill and recognize its value as a learning device. In following Prator's suggestion of the development of a manipulative-communicative scale, we see that we are now at the point where we should ask the student specific questions which he should answer himself, thus setting the stage for communication.

As a final activity to the lesson, the viewer is asked to answer questions. "Where does the doctor work?", asks Mr. Richards. The student may be helped visually to give the correct answer, by seeing on the

TV screen a picture of a hospital at the same time that he hears the question. In the pause that follows, he is expected to give the answer, "He works at the hospital." The teacher then gives the answer himself. Here, one may well ask, "What purpose does a question-answer exercise serve in TV language lessons?". Obviously, the TV teacher is unable to hear the answers of the students. In a normal classroom situation the teacher judges from the students' responses whether he needs to continue the drill or perhaps substitute another, more suitable one, or whether he can move on to another problem, since the students obviously have learned to handle this one. In television teaching, it is obvious that the answers to questions cannot serve the purpose of testing student progress, except insofar as they permit the student to test himself.

The true purpose of the question-answer exercise is revealed when we examine its format more closely. A question is asked, a pause permits the student to give the answer, but then the correct answer is given by the teacher. The question is repeated and a second pause permits the student to answer again. In the TV script, the part above looks like this:

Don Richard: "Where does the doctor work?"
(Shows picture of hospital.)
(Pause for answer.)
"He works at the hospital."
"Where does the doctor work?"
(Pause for answer.)

We can appreciate the fact that though the question requires a meaningful response from the TV student, this response is guided and suggested by visual hints and it is immediately confirmed orally. Once again the student is given a chance to imitate the correct answer, since the question is repeated. In the question and answer drills as well as in the repetition and substitution exercises, "Let's Learn English" follows the widely accepted principle that beginning students (of English)

must be helped to speak correctly through guided multiple imitation of the correct model. At the elementary stage, the student should not be asked to construct original sentences since he would inevitably make mistakes and then practice his own mistakes, thus compounding the error. Though the medium of television as yet offers no opportunity to judge the accuracy of student response, the very fact that a response is expected and the knowledge that the whole course has been planned in this way, persuades the TV student of the importance of participating actively and audibly in the learning process.

Many TV stations using this series supplement the film lesson with a ten minute analysis and review session, televised live and employing a teacher who can give explanations in the local language and emphasize those grammar and vocabulary difficulties that cause the greatest trouble for speakers of that particular language.

The United States Information Service provides a model script on which the local teacher can base his lesson. Reports from countries where the series has been in use indicate that the lesson format described has proved in general quite satisfactory. The standardized tape can be printed in the 16 mm size and distributed as films in schools and other institutions. These translations have crossed the so-called iron curtain and have been used in Poland and Yugoslavia.

"Smile Please" was produced by the Swedish Schools TV as a pleasant addition to class work. The program does not aim first and foremost at teaching, but rather a demonstration of the use of constructions and vocabulary already familiar to the pupils. It is intended to be a stimulant, to prove to second-year students that they already possess a sufficient knowledge of English to understand and appreciate a simple situation played out in that language. Although the situations in which Phillip, the chief character, is involved, are often absurd, the language used is natural enough.

The setting for these five programs was filmed in England, in a small town, in London, on a farm and on the beach at Brighton. The

textbooks in Sweden cover some of the centers of interest and the pupils are of course delighted to see them filmed.

The second part of each lesson consists of questions and answers on the story which has just been presented. In one case, one of the main actors visited some schools at the viewing time, in order to observe the program in action. It is interesting to note that the pupils, even though they knew him to be present in actual flesh and blood, in their classroom, would answer his image on the screen. He ascribes this attitude to the hypnotic affect of television on students and thinks that here is a force to be exploited.

In Sweden the schedule of the foreign language program is incorporated in the booklets about school television in general, one booklet for the pupil and one for the teacher. "Smile Please" has a descriptive passage about the program in Swedish, with suggestions in English for the preparation and utilization of the transmission, including a questionnaire about the drawings or photographs reproduced in the pupil's booklet.

No attempt has been made in this paper to present a comprehensive survey of the many countries experimenting with teaching English as a second language via E.T.V. However, it is of interest to note the massive program started in October 1964 in American Samoa, where six channels beam lessons to twenty six consolidated village schools and three high schools.

George A. Pittman, the Australian language specialist, believes that TV as a medium is admirably suited to the teaching of oral English. If this experiment is successful, "it may influence the speed and spread of English in the underdeveloped areas of the world generally."[1]

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[1] Weigand, John A. "Teaching English via T.V. in Samoa.", English Journal, Champaign, Illinois, 54.2. Feb. 1965, p.118

5. Educational Television and Teacher Training

It is obvious that a qualified teacher can act as a model for pupils in the studio and demonstrate a lesson which can be observed by other teachers. Institutions specializing in training language teachers could not do better than to allocate as much money as possible toward equipping a closed circuit system to function in adjacent classes. To have student teachers in a class is always an embarassment for a teacher taking the class and for the pupils. However, one becomes accustomed to electronic equipment and regards it as something impersonal. The lesson is transmitted to colleagues in some other room whose comments could be heard later on, since their reaction cannot be heard in the classroom, where the qualified teacher is giving his model lesson. Of course, if we produce a tape, the program can be shown again and again.

We should mention here the use of teacher training films, and specifically those which have been geared to modern linguistic theory and teaching methodology. In addition to the various films on preparation of foreign language teachers in general, there is the B.B.C. series called "View and Teach", consisting of twelve films. They are part of "English by Television", which is mainly concerned with the spoken language at first year level in secondary schools. The titles are as follows:

1. Teaching a New Pattern
2. Oral Practice
3. Question and Answer
4. Sentence Patterns
5. Practice with Picture Sets
6. Conversation with the Blackboard
7. Acting a Story
8. Learning from Pictures
9. Bringing in the Outside World
10. Rhythms of English Speech

11. Tunes of English Speech

12. Planning Oral Work

It is easy to see the use of these films in closed circuit, either before or after a "live" broadcast of a neighboring class. A logical extension of the teacher training film or tape is to combine it with texts, workbooks, and language laboratory equipment, thus producing a self-contained programmed self-instructional course. The Teacher Education Program is detailed herewith.

6. Teaching English in Israel

English is a compulsory subject in virtually all elementary and secondary schools in Israel from the age of eleven onwards. It is taught according to a uniform syllabus in the three upper grades of elementary school, (ages eleven to fourteen), with four weekly lessons each. At the post-elementary level, (age fourteen upwards), the requirements are somewhat modified for different types of schools. All four year academic type secondary schools follow the same syllabus, which includes both language and literature with five weekly lessons.

The importance of English as a medium of international communication and as a means of gaining access to a wide range of general and technical literature (and hence as a means of cultural breakthrough) is generally recognized. Although vast efforts are devoted to the study of English within the Israeli school system, it is doubtful whether these ultimate goals are in fact being achieved.

The rapid and far-reaching changes in the structure and cultural fabric of Israeli society, have given rise to a constant re-adjustment of the educational framework to meet the needs of changing conditions. The specific field of the teaching of English seems to have remained

largely unaffected by this need for a dynamic approach. It would seem necessary for aims and methods in the teaching of English to be re-examined objectively and critically in the light of the social changes taking place and in accordance with the results of modern educational research and practice.

Replies to a pupils' questionnaire on outside help in English indicate that as early as the initial stages a high percentage of pupils feel a need for help in order to cope with the demands of the subject, and that large numbers obtain such help either from the members of the family or from private teachers. Nearly half the pupils in grade six and two thirds in grade eight expressed need for outside help, that is, they admitted that classroom instruction does not suffice them to meet syllabus requirements. Approximately one out of every four pupils in grade eight admitted to receiving paid private tuition.

The gap between the official requirements and pupils attainment shown by test findings, was one of the reasons for an investigation of the possibility of introducing educational television into the Israel school system.

Israel does not possess television - i.e., it does not have an open circuit television station, private or public, producing programs for local consumption. However, this does not mean to say that Israelis do not possess television sets. There are thousands of sets throughout the country which rely upon the local stations in Egypt, Syria and Lebanon for entertainment.

In September 1966 the government decided to utilize a closed circuit television program for teaching English as a second language and for teaching mathematics, in a number of schools, the experiment being conducted in the sixth and eighth grades. No information is presently available as to the results of this experiment.

7. A Contrastive Analysis of the Use of the Indefinite Determiner in English and Modern Hebrew

In considering the teaching of English in the school system in Israel, we must face the fact that there has been no contrastive analysis of Modern Hebrew and English. In Biblical Hebrew, of course, there has been a voluminous amount of linguistic inquiry and translation throughout the centuries, but this is of little use when one realizes that Modern Israeli Hebrew is far removed from literary classic Hebrew of Bible days.

The transformationalists, working with the formulae to express the generation of grammatical English sentences have incorporated D (determiner) which divides into Dd --- the, Di --- a/an and some, into their closely written formulae, but they are the first to admit that they have not yet captured the complete system of article usage.[1]

A chart illustrates the basic differences in the use of the Di in the two languages.

HEBREW		ENGLISH	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
		Before Consonant / Before Vowel	
∅ ~ ∅	kama + N ; N. + axad -im / -ot	a ~ an	∅ ~ any + N ; some + N

Hebrew has a set of number and gender forms and suffixes, which show grammatical concord with the noun. English often has a distinct form for plural, and a variation in the singular form determined by the following sound.

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[1] McIntosh, Lois - "The Article Still Eludes Us", UCLAN Review, UCLA, 1962

In general, the Hebrew speaker has to learn the various correct usages in English, and to remember to insert a form where nothing exists in his native language. The learner of Hebrew has an easier time, as he can in most cases simply eliminate the English determiner.

yeled yashav ..... a boy sat.

ani loke'ax sefer ..... I take a book.

The choice of a or an depends on whether the following noun begins with a vowel or a consonant.

ani loke'ax sefer ..... I take a book.

ani loke'ax tapu'ax ..... I take an apple.

English orthography does not reflect the various forms used in speech.

	strong stress	weak stress
a	/ʌ / or / ey /	/ə /
an	/æn /	/ə n /
some	/ sʌm /	/ səm /

In the Hebrew singular, no difference is reflected for the Di when the noun is feminine (other than in the form of the noun itself.)

ani loke'ax banana (F.) ..... I take a banana.

There are three distinct ways of expressing the Hebrew indefinite plural.

1. Ø

ani loke'ax sefarim ..... I take some books.

2. Kama + N ..... Kama is used to express an indefinite plural -- some, or several.

ani loke'ax kama sefarim ..... I take some books.

(As kama is an adverbial expression there is no concord and it precedes the noun, unlike the adjective which follows the noun.)

3. N - axadim/axadot: axad = one, and in the plural form it is an adjective expressing the equivalent of ones, or more than one. The corresponding masculine /-im/ or feminine /-ot/ suffix must be used for concord.

ani loke'ax sefarim axadim (M.) ..... I take some books.
ani loke'ax bananot axadot (F.) ..... I take some bananas.

Some: /səm/ or /sʌm/

1. with little stress, indicates a general plural.
Some students are waiting for lunch.

2. with strong stress, indicates a relationship, "part of" the class talked about as distinct from the rest of the class.
Some students are waiting for lunch. - implying that others are not.

The numerical use of one/a does not present a problem, as both in English and in Hebrew one contrasts with ∅ in the same way that axad contrasts with ∅.

yesh li sefer ..... I have a book.
yesh li sefer axad (M.) ..... I have one book.
yesh li maxberet axat (F.) ..... I have one notebook.

However, there is a relationship in context between the Di and the numeral that is clearly demonstrable when the noun head is eliminated.

yesh li sefer ..... I have a book.
yesh li axad ..... I have one.
yesh li sefarim ..... I have (some) books.
yesh li axadim ..... I have some.

If the noun is modified, Di is retained in English even when the

noun head is eliminated.

yesh li bat yafa ..... I have a pretty daughter.
yesh li axat yafa ..... I have a pretty one.

Spoken English is very careful to emphasize by stress the difference between <u>one</u> and <u>a</u>.

May I have <u>one</u> box of matches?

This specific use contrasts <u>one</u> with <u>more than one</u>.

May I have <u>a</u> box of matches?

This is the general non-contrastive use.

<u>ANY</u> is used in place of <u>SOME</u> in negative statements.

There aren't <u>any</u> balls in the box.

<u>ANY</u> is also used in place of <u>SOME</u> in questions.

Are there any balls in the box? Yes, there are some.

Hebrew uses ∅ equivalents for questions and negatives.

<u>MASS NOUNS</u> and <u>COUNT NOUNS</u> present a particular problem in English, although there is no parallel difficulty in Hebrew due to the absence of the Di. In general, the distinction is based on criteria of measurement:

a. mass nouns: measurement by amount or volume --
water, jewelry, rice

b. count nouns: measurement by units or quantity --
bed, page, finger

This distinction has obligatory grammatical consequences, resulting in confusion by the learner when choosing <u>∅</u>, <u>a</u> or <u>some</u>.

In <u>count nouns</u>, a is used for singular, ∅ some for plural

<u>a</u> finger <u>some</u> fingers

(Some is optional in some construction. 'My mitt has fingers.')

In mass nouns, some is the optional form for those nouns which normally do not have a plural.

Have some milk! I don't like milk.

A single unit of a mass noun is indicated by an additional count noun in both Hebrew and English.

ani rotse bakbuk xalav --- I want a bottle of milk.

(Unfortunately, there is often a crossing-over of classes in both English and Hebrew which creates further complications for the learner.)

In a number of cases, the definite prefix /ha-/ is used where English uses no Determiner.

Ken, hamefaked ..... Yes, sir! (Yes, "the" officer, used in military.)

Hageveret ..... Madam

Hamoreh! ..... Teacher! (polite vocative)

These forms are used particularly with direct address, or when speaking of someone by title or name.

A humorous example is told of the incorrect use of the polite 3rd person to replace the 2nd.

"May I help Madam?" is the accepted form of address in ladies' shops.

In Hebrew the /ha-/ prefix is used: /hageveret/, but the saleslady incorrectly said "May I help the Madam", giving an entirely different meaning to the noun.

8. Lesson Plan Utilizing ETV

(50 minute lesson for adults in an evening course.)

Aim: to introduce: "There's a _____." "There are some _____."
"There isn't any ____." "Is there any _____?"

Step 1: (5 min.) "Warm-up."

a) The day, date, month and year.
One student (who has prepared) writes details on board during oral drill.

b) Roll call or class management details, homework, etc.

Step 2: (5 min.) Review

Previous lesson taught Imperative and Possessive pronouns.

a) Drill - students responding to commands
"Stand up" "Open the door.", etc.

b) Drill - students telling someone to do an action.
"Tell Amy to sit down." "Sit down.", etc.

c) Drill - "Whose pencil is this?" "It's mine", etc.

Step 3: (10 min.) Preparation for telecast.

a) Using examples from the room itself, the teacher illustrates use of "There's a _____" for count nouns.
"There's a teacher in the room."
"There's a book on the table."

b) Students repeat and form similar phrases.

c) Teacher illustrates "There's some _____", showing difference between mass nouns and count nouns by having actual examples on the table.

"There's some salt in the box."

"There's some cheese in the store."

d) Teacher illustrates use of <u>any</u> in questions and negatives to replace <u>some</u>.

"Is there <u>any</u> beer in the bottle?"

"No, there isn't <u>any</u> beer in the bottle."

e) Students repeat and form similar phrases, using cues from teacher.

<u>Step</u> 4: (15 min.) <u>Telecast</u>

<u>Walter and Connie</u> <u>Lesson 7</u>

CONNIE AND THE BURGLARS

(Outline of Conversation in Script)

(Nighttime. Two burglars climb through the window into Connie's apartment. Walter is away.)

1. Hold the window.
2. What?
1. Hold the window. Hold it up.
2. Whose knife is that?
1. It's mine.
1. Open that door.....Shut the door.

Connie: Whose bag is that?

1. That bag is ours.
2. This is the kitchen. There's a loaf on the table.
1. Is there a knife?
2. Yes, there's a knife behind the loaf. And there's the butter.
1. Where?
2. On a plate behind you.....There are eggs in this dish.
1. How many eggs are there?
2. There are four.

1. There's one knife here. How many knives are there in that drawer?
2. Four.
1. Are they all small knives?
2. There are three small knives and one big knife.
1. How many forks are there?
2. Three.
1. Here's a big fork.
1. Is there any pepper?
2. Yes, there's some in this cupboard.
1. Is there any cheese in that cupboard?
2. Yes, there's some cheese in this dish.
1. There's nothing in this dish. Is there any beer in the cupboard?
2. There's a bottle here.
1. Good!
2. But there isn't any beer in the bottle.
1. Have you any beer?

Connie: No, I haven't.

1. She hasn't any.
2. We haven't any beer, but we have some coffee.

Step 5: (5 min.)

a) Teacher reads script, students repeat in groups and individually, practicing correct patterns of intonation.

b) Script distributed to students, three of whom "act out" the parts by reading aloud.

Step 6: (5 min.)

Class divided into groups of three, who "act out" to each other, with teacher checking wherever possible.

Step 7: (5 min.) Summary. Review of previous sentences from text.

a) a/an — a knife - an egg
a plate - an apple

b) a/some — a cup - some coffee - a cup of coffee
a glass - some milk - a glass of milk

c) any? — Have you any coffee?

d) any — No, we don't have any coffee.

Assignment:

Write 5 questions and answers patterned above using water, rice, gasoline, ink and sand.

Write 5 questions and answers using bottle, house, door, orange, hat.

(NOTE:) A teacher using a technical aid must be prepared for those occasions when the "machine" doesn't work - and must plan accordingly.)

9. Looking Ahead

An ex-student of educational television of New York University shows in some detail how American Peace Corps volunteers are beginning to use instructional television in and around Bogota, Columbia, to bring lessons to a hundred thousand primary students in four hundred classrooms.[1] He describes more than twenty telecasts given each week at various grade levels, taught by a Columbia television teacher, each lesson being followed by twenty five minutes of classroom instruction in the schools. Soon the open circuit system will carry adult education programs to Columbians, some of them who have never even seen television of any kind before. Evidently, many observes believe that this project is one of the most successful upon which the Peace Corps has embarked. An ex-project director, John Winney, says, "With educational television we hope to accomplish in ten years what would take one hundred years by the conventional means." Inasmuch as ninety four percent of the country's schools are within reception range for television signal, there is no reason for the project to fail.

Bogota's television project is just one example of how open circuit educational television can be used to meet the special needs of a small country. One prediction is certain; wherever in the world television systems grow today, they will be used as much if not more for education as for entertainment. Nations emerging from the dark ages may at the moment enjoy endless reruns of films featuring American cowboys and Indians, but they certainly will have more important things to do with television in the future.

Closed circuit transmission is an aspect of educational broadcasting which literally is limited in its application only by the degree of inventiveness of those who use it. In the combination of closed circuit TV with tape recorders, movies, special event programs, film strips and films, we have here a most interesting challenge to educators today.

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[1] Peace Corps Volunteer, Washington, June 1964

A closed circuit installation can vary from a single industrial type camera connected to one or two nearby receivers, costing a total of two thousand dollars, to a complex studio with transmission and reception equipment covering numerous schools throughout an entire school district, a set every bit as elaborate and expensive as a professional open circuit broadcasting system.

On the basis of one hundred and thirty three representative closed circuit systems examined by Nelson, it is possible to make certain generalizations about the current costs of educational television by closed circuit transmission in the United States.[1] The New Ampex 6000 Series Home Video Recorders is a low cost model at fifteen hundred dollars. This attaches to any standard TV set without modifications and records up to one full hour of TV or live material on a nine and one half inch reel. A remote-controlled TV camera with f/1.4 lens, a tripod and twenty five feet of cable sells for five hundred and eighty nine dollars. Ampex Video Recording Tape, one reel of 2950 feet gives a complete hour of recording. Cost $59.55. These are the budget low prices of equipment now available which when connected to any ordinary TV set will give a complete closed circuit television system.

Whether this picture will change in the future depends upon new and possibly unforeseen uses which educators may find for closed circuit television as a means of communication within and among school buildings and on the future cost of equipment. These costs seem at present to be decreasing because of the use of simplified electronic devices such as printed circuits, and as a result of the importation of Japanese components and equipment which are frequently noticeably cheaper than their American counterparts and no less effective.

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[1] Nelson, Lyle M., "The Financing of Educational Television" in, Educational Television; the Next 10 Years (Stanford; The Institution for Communication Research, 1962) pages 166-183.

We must remember that the textbook was once considered the ultimate in educational devices. Can one conceive, however, any more ingeniously devised school room than one in which every student has a small closed-circuit television screen built into his desk along with tape recording equipment, and a teaching machine with programmed instruction of various kinds for employment when such material is needed? Such a "student learning unit" would resemble a booth in today's language laboratory with the addition of a TV screen and provision for programmed instruction. Units of this kind could be controlled from a console in the front of the room behind which the teacher might speak with any student without disturbing others at work, or might address the entire class.

Lest one fear a George Orwell type of social order, there is a doubt that every model classroom will ever contain these units. For any audio-visual device, including television presently in use, will probably be replaced by a more useful cheaper item which accomplishes the same ends. For instance, the Mark IV Console is an 8 mm magnetic sound-film projector which accepts a preloaded film cartridge and immediately produces a clear sound color motion picture by reel projection. There is no film to touch, to wind or rewind and no warmup time is necessary. In slides the cartridge and the film begins. The instrument is at present quite expensive, but no one can anticipate which audio-visual devices, if any, such an instrument may replace, if it can be produced cheaply and if film cartridges can be distributed inexpensively and widely. When it comes to gadgetry, there seems virtually no limit to American ingenuity and it is not possible to anticipate how this ingenuity will be used in tomorrow's mass media.

In 1961, the cheapest video tape recorder cost over forty thousand dollars, in 1963, a model cost only a quarter of that amount and today in 1967, it is available for only two thousand dollars, in your home.

There are those who feel that the uses of multiple electronic and mechanical devices in education constitute an invitation to conformity. They see in it a trend towards impersonality, the death of instruction

by living teachers and a move in the direction of Big Brother.

However, gadgets can no more replace teachers or render pupil contact obsolete than the introduction of the textbook did. All devices, like chalk and the chalkboard, have a place in modern education on all levels. That place varies from subject to subject, from school to school, and probably even from pupil to pupil. One of the main tasks facing educational psychologists is to spell out exactly what combination of which kinds of instruction for which pupils will produce optimum results in learning.

There are many who say that educational television is a pipe dream, when one takes into account the lack of electric power in developing countries. Though this is a difficulty, it should not be counted as an insurmountable objection. The rapid rate of technological advance in specific areas, leads us to hope that this is only a matter of time, perhaps only a few years till we can solve this problem. In three areas of technological development we hope for a breakthrough which could free us from traditional generated electric power, as the steam engine and the internal combustion engine freed us from the restraints of human and animal power. These areas are:

1. The miniaturization of batteries and transistors developed for the space age will have immediate application for our field. If we can beam television signals of the moon's surface, then certainly we should be able to do something of a similar nature on the face of our own planet.

2. The harnessing of atomic power for peaceful purposes gives us a source of energy which is limitless in its possibilities.

3. The harnessing of solar energy for human purposes. This year (1967) a number of "Solar Coffee Pots" are in experimental use in desert areas, powered by seven circular one-foot mirrors that reflect the rays from the sun onto one spot. Within twenty five minutes the Bedouin has suf-

ficient hot coffee for the entire family. The whole equipment is easily transportable and light in weight.

As teachers, we have a responsibility to utilize every means in order to obtain maximum results. If educational television will enable us to teach more effectively -- let us use it.

A GUIDE TO ETV - TESL VIDEO-TAPES AND PROGRAMS

United States Information Services

"Let's Learn English" - 132 films, 15 minutes each-beginners

"Let's Speak English" - 65 films, 15 minutes each-lower intermediate.

"Adventures in English - 65 films, 15 minutes each-intermediate

British Council, London

"Walter and Connie" - 39 films, each of 14 1/2 minutes, for the teaching of Elementary English to non-captive adult audiences.

"Walter and Connie Reporting" - 39 films, each of 14 1/2 minutes being an Intermediate follow-on series to the first.

"View and Teach" - 24 films each of 15 minutes, intended for the training of teachers of English as a second language.

"The Scientist Speaks" - 13 films each of 14 minutes, intended for students of Science and Technology whose English is at a fairly high standard. The series aims to present the language used in scientific speech and writing.

"Speaking English"-5, 20 minute films designed as reinforcement material for teenagers and adults learning English as a second language.

"What's the Time?" and "What's the Price" 2, 15 minute films intended for 3rd year English students.

Center for Educational Television Overseas, London, England

"English for Everyone"

Swedish Schools Broadcasts

"This is English" - Ian Dunlop

"We are going to England" - Ian Dunlop

"Can you Speak English" - Ian Dunlop

"Billy Boy" - 400 words - marionettes

"Smile Please" - lower intermediate

"People at Work" - older pupils

France (St. Cloud - CREDIF)

"Look Here" - 8 tapes - beginners - 6th grade

"Can I Help You?" - 17 tapes - beginners - 4th grade

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation

"Let's Speak English" 81 lessons

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