

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE AUDIO-LINGUAL APPROACH  
AND THE COMBINED AUDIO-LINGUAL-GRAMMAR APPROACH  
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

by 1264

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## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

#### I. INTRODUCTION

"There is, unfortunately," states Oreste Pucciani, "no unified field-theory of language or of foreign-language learning. The educational process itself is no easy matter to define."<sup>1</sup>

For years, the study of the grammar of a foreign language has passed for the study of the whole language; more recently, the science of linguistics, and particularly that of applied linguistics, has introduced control in the field of language learning.

#### II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Statement of the problem. It was the purpose of this study to compare two groups of students, one group taught by drill and the other group taught by drill plus a form of intellectualization. More specifically, the primary consideration of this study was to test the following hypothesis:  
 $H_0$ : There is no difference in learning a foreign language under the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-grammar approach.

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<sup>1</sup>Oreste F. Pucciani, Langue et Langage (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), p. 1.



Importance of the study. There are many methods of teaching languages and a considerable amount of controversy exists as to the best way of teaching foreign languages. A good case could be made against some aspects of all methods of teaching the second language. The grammar-translation approach was encyclopedic in nature and presented the new language as an abstract system of classification.<sup>2</sup>

For years, the audio-lingual aspect of language was neglected. Then, in 1943, the Army Specialized Training Program needed a modern language course which would teach its personnel to converse in a foreign language in as short a time as possible, and foreign language teaching methods came under sharp surveillance and criticism. In answer to the problem, the audio-lingual approach was developed and has since been widely accepted.<sup>3</sup>

Still, universal tradition still agrees that during the first year a student must cover all basic structures of a new language, and at least make a beginning in the reading of literary or semi-literary texts.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Emile B. de Saussure, The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages (New York: John C. Winston Co., 1920).

<sup>3</sup>B. M. Bazan, "The Danger of Assumption Without Proof," Modern Language Journal, 48:337, October, 1964.

<sup>4</sup>Robert L. Politzer, Teaching French, An Introduction to Applied Linguistics (New York: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1965), p. 169.

The truth of the matter is far more complex than either of these choices would lead us to believe. It seems timely, thus, to evaluate both approaches.

### III. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Pattern drill. The pattern drill is an oral exercise designed to enable the student to acquire verbal control over a grammatical construction. This is accomplished by providing sufficient repetitions of the motif of the exercise in a number of similar contexts so that the linguistic pattern emerges.

Intellectualization. The investigator used this term rather freely throughout the study. It took the form of what we ordinarily term grammar and was defined to the students in terms of rules. The rules of grammar were introduced to the students after the pattern drill exemplifying a particular pattern drill had been studied. The pattern drill is linguistically oriented and one drill is replaced by another to enable the student the building stones necessary to form the entire structure of the language.

Audio-lingual. The object of the audio-lingual or sometimes referred to as the "direct" approach is to teach the student to understand and to speak the language. The distinguishing feature of this method is that the student's

native language is avoided, and the student memorizes dialogue phrases which he hears from the teacher or tapes of native speakers.<sup>5</sup>

Traditional. This method refers to the multiple-approach [de Saúze] training system in which the student learns the language by studying grammar, writing and reading from the beginning with little audio-lingual work.

#### IV. ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This report has certain limitations: (1) One teacher was used to present both methods and to teach the target language both to the control group and the experimental group. The use of one teacher eliminates the variability of teaching differences between two or more teachers. It is assumed that there was no opinion on the part of the teacher in favor of one method or the other.

(2) The experiment was conducted for a period of six weeks. The short period of time allowed for this experiment would inhibit the accurate prediction of effects which might be found if the study had been continued for a four- or five-year period.

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<sup>5</sup> John B. Carroll, "Research on Teaching Foreign Languages," Handbook of Research On Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (The American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1964), p. 1062.

(3) The level at which the research was conducted was the fourth grade and the results of this study could not be transferred to any other level because the entire study was geared to the achievements of fourth graders.

(4) The Review of the Literature concerns itself with primarily a developmental study of the methodology from the 18th century to the present date and is not intended to support one method in favor of the other. The writer wishes to discern, rather, from the Review of the Literature, what has been good and bad in previous methods used in teaching a modern foreign language.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### I. INTRODUCTION

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the concept of providing those who could afford it with a literary and cultural orientation began to find favor along the Eastern Seaboard, and gradually, the curriculum of British universities began to be imitated on this side of the Atlantic. Foreign languages were among the subjects brought into the curriculum at this time. French was introduced at Harvard in 1735, and at the College of William and Mary in 1779.<sup>1</sup>

The history of the nineteenth century thereafter reveals a gradual introduction of language instruction in the programs of higher education until the eve of the First World War when nearly every college in the United States taught one or more foreign languages, though their study was but infrequently compulsory. In classroom after classroom, whether in colleges or in secondary schools, students were engaged in various activities all of which were centered around the study of French as a written language, oddly

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<sup>1</sup>R. D. Cole and James B. Tharp, Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching (New York: Appleton-Century, 1937), pp. 1-2.

devoid of any meaning unless it was translated into English. Although there were many different texts in use in the public schools, by far the most popular one, was Fraser and Squair in its various subsequent editions. It exemplifies best the grammar-translation-oriented teaching.<sup>2</sup>

## II. THE FIRST WORLD WAR

The study of French was given an unprecedented impetus by our involvement with France as an ally in the First World War. The leadership came mostly from the universities and the colleges. In secondary schools, lack of adequately trained teachers maintained the teaching of French at a very low level. But at this time, among the general public, classes for adults were organized and taught by self-styled specialists. YMCA's and church groups sponsored the study of French from Maine to California, and America was treated to the spectacle of previously isolationist adults striving to master a foreign language.<sup>3</sup> Viewed in retrospect, most of these programs seem to have been ill-conceived, ill-taught, and all but useless, at least from a purely linguistic point

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<sup>2</sup>W. H. Fraser and J. Squair, Standard French Grammar (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931).

<sup>3</sup>L. Clark Keating, "Values and Problems in Foreign Language Learning," The Study of Foreign Languages (New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1968), p. 38.

of view. Few persons in the volunteer classes actually achieved any proficiency in French.<sup>4</sup>

### III. PERIOD AFTER WW I

During the period between wars language study in America deteriorated in quantity and quality. Many of the educationists of the day started to attack it as an unjustifiable preemption of school time, urging its total elimination, or, where this was impossible, its reduction to a mere two-year program.<sup>5</sup>

Meanwhile, many of the schools of education discouraged or tried to discourage all study of languages as a colossal failure in the public school. Many of the Fraser and Squair era teachers heroically tried to convey their skill to their students. But their textbooks were a far more formidable obstacle to any success than the somewhat mythical lack of aptitude for foreign languages traditionally attributed to the American student.<sup>6</sup> Language teachers spent little time in pointing out values of second-language learning, which

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 38.

<sup>5</sup>C. C. Gullette, L. Clark Keating, and Claude P. Viens, Teaching a Modern Language (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1942), p. 3.

<sup>6</sup>Genevieve Delattre, "The Changing Aspects of Teaching French," The Study of Foreign Languages (New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1968), p. 146.

seemed to them, self-evident. As it happened, the discussion of methods then proclaimed that the chief value of second language study lay largely in having students achieve a reading knowledge.

#### IV. THE SECOND WORLD WAR

The Second World War was to effect a drastic change in many American attitudes, and not least in the attitude toward language study. The American people saw that languages could be taught effectively, and that if they put their mind to it, they were capable of learning and using a second language. For the first time in history, the people realized that America could not and dare not rely solely on foreign interpreters and translators when national security was at stake. With the realization of these facts went a frequently expressed impatience with the results heretofore achieved by conventional methods. Unfair comparisons were made between the teaching done in the public schools and that done in the Armed Forces.<sup>7</sup>

When the sudden demands of the United States Armed Forces for language-trained personnel and their consequent organization of ASTP shook up the dormant world of foreign

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<sup>7</sup>A Survey of Language Classes In The Army Specialized Training Program, prepared for the Committee on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America, 1944, *passim*.



language teaching, French played a prominent part in the new program. In 1943, the publication of the Army manual for French,<sup>8</sup> Hall's Spoken French, offered a long-awaited model for materials aimed at teaching the spoken language effectively. Slowly, during the next decade, the French teaching profession began to awaken but it did so slowly in the public schools. In the secondary schools, lack of adequately trained teachers maintained the teaching of French at a very low level of oral proficiency until 1958 when the federal government finally directed its attention toward the retraining of language teachers.

#### V. RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY SINCE 1943

The contribution of structural linguistics to the teaching of languages, and in particular to the perfectioning of audio-lingual techniques, is a phenomenon which does not concern only French. But in French more than in the other languages, the notions of phonemes, morphemes, morphonemes, and tagmemes show how much the language in its oral reality differs from the image which traditional grammar had presented. If the linguists who are grappling with a structural analysis of French are still few in number, one should rejoice in the fact that the research has been done by people

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<sup>8</sup>Francois Denoeu and Robert A. Hall, Jr., Spoken French, Basic Course (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1943).

who are directly interested in teaching techniques and who thus have made the practical application of their work easier.<sup>9</sup>

In the area of syntax, linguistic research is also of interest to the teacher of French, since it permits him to better define the essential structures of French and their mechanisms, and to understand the points of interference with English. If the contrastive study on the phonological level is important, it is much more so on the syntactical level. Only interference points need to be carefully drilled, since elsewhere the two languages function identically. It is in this perspective of contrastive structural analysis of English and French that the book by Robert Politzer, An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Teaching French was written.<sup>10</sup>

The FLES Program. Dr. Harold MacGrath, a professor of education who had become United States Commissioner of Education, proposed a massive program of foreign language instruction in the elementary schools, to be continued all the way through high school, and to be abetted by college training for all individuals who went that far in their

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<sup>9</sup>Pierre Delattre, "Les dix intonation de base du français," The French Review, XL, 1, October, 1966, pp. 1-14.

<sup>10</sup>Politzer, op. cit., [entire pagination].

education. This FLES [Foreign Language in Elementary Schools] program was a kind of hit-or-miss affair whose results were excellent in one place and poor in others.<sup>11</sup>

At the high school level. When NDEA Institutes required an immediate use of some model audio-lingual method, the already existing "Glastonbury material" was officially chosen, quickly polished and expanded and was distributed as A-LM. The A-LM French series<sup>12</sup> has its merits in its skillful use of pattern drills based on structural analysis, its principle of keeping throughout level one aural comprehension and speaking ahead of reading and writing, and on its deliberate reduction of quantity for the benefit of quality.

The Ecouter et Parler<sup>13</sup> series, relies exclusively on dialogue memorization technique. Drills are only of the simple substitution type [one slot], and dialogue content is reshuffled into various new dialogues. However, there

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<sup>11</sup>Dr. Harold MacGrath, United States Commissioner of Education, Conference on Foreign Language in the Schools, St. Louis, Missouri, May, 1952.

<sup>12</sup>Modern Language Material Development Center, A-LM, French [level one, level two, level three] (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961).

<sup>13</sup>Dominique G. Cote, Sylvia N. Levy, and Patricia O'Connor, Le Francais: Ecouter et Parler (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962).

is no articulation between the technique of level one and that of level two.

Films have been used for quite some time as supplementary material. They bring French culture into the classroom in a much livelier way than talks by the teacher. However, the idea of developing a curriculum entirely based on the use of films is fairly new. Many high school teachers have now adopted this technique and use the Je parle francais films.<sup>14</sup> Each lesson is presented first by viewing a film and learning how to comprehend its dialogue. The situation comes alive and students are able to identify themselves with the people on the screen. There are no drills based on a systematic manipulation of structures. Rather, drilling is done entirely by stimulus and response in context, having students react automatically but meaningfully in French to a French utterance.

Comparable to Je parle francais in the importance given to visual aids and in the basic orientation of the course toward spontaneous response in French to certain situational cues, Voix et Images de France was developed by the CREDIF [Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la

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<sup>14</sup>Lavelle Rosselot and Georges Matore, Je Parle Francais, A Film-And-Text Course in French For Beginners, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1961.

Diffusion du Francais] at Saint-Clud, France.<sup>15</sup> Each lesson consists of a dialogue, recorded on tape for its presentation in class to the students, accompanied by an illustrated filmstrip [one picture one sentence]. The students listen to the dialogue while they watch the filmstrip. The teacher intervenes only for explanation of new words not made directly intelligible by the illustrations. Structural drilling takes the form of a dialogue strictly built for the learning of a few particular points of grammar.

## VI. EXPERIMENTS

Green Mountain Junior College. In 1941 Frederick Eddy inaugurated an experiment in Paultney, Vermont and it could be considered the first language laboratory because he sent his students after class to a "language studio" where they could practice their listening and speaking skills as much as they needed to. The instructor or a qualified student assistant was present to help the students with their pronunciation or encourage them to speak. By offering intensive individual drilling in aural comprehension and speaking, the studio allowed the instructor to devote more classroom time to reading and writing, to no detriment of

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<sup>15</sup>Audio-Lingual Language Programming Project. Unpublished report, Contract No.: OE 3-14-012, United States Office of Education, Language Development Branch, 1964.

the oral skills.<sup>16</sup>

University of Colorado experiment. In 1960-61 an experiment was conducted at the University of Colorado under the direction of George A. C. Scherer and Michael Wertheimer to test and compare the audio-lingual approach with the traditional approach. The subjects were the 150 students enrolled in a beginning German course.

It was not announced until after registration which classes would be taught with the audio-lingual or the traditional approach. At the end of the first semester both groups were given the same series of tests. They were tested again at the end of the second semester.

Results of the experiment. At the end of the first semester the experimental group was much superior in speaking, while the control group was greatly superior in reading and writing. At the end of the second semester the test results showed that students taught by the audio-lingual method were far superior in listening and speaking and that they were almost on the same level with the students taught by the traditional method in reading and writing tests. A composite score for the four skill tests revealed that the audio-lingual group was just barely statistically better

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<sup>16</sup>Frederick Eddy, "The Language Studio," Modern Language Journal, XXVIII, 4, April, 1944, pp. 338-341.

than the traditional group. However, the traditional group was much better in the German to English and the English to German translation tests. If the results of these two tests were included in the composite tests score, then the over-all superiority of the audio-lingual group was not statistically significant.<sup>17</sup>

University of Pennsylvania experiment. In 1965 a three-year study was conducted by Philip D. Smith, Jr., Project Co-ordinator. Until 1965, no sufficiently realistic and generalizable research had been undertaken to shed light on which strategy or laboratory system works best when translated from a specific local small scale setting into the larger reality of numerous secondary schools. To assist in developing answers to this question, Pennsylvania undertook the large-scale in situ experiment which has come to be known as "The Pennsylvania Foreign Language Study." The research, a cooperative effort of the Bureau of Research, Department of Public Instruction, and West Chester State College, was supported by grants under Titles VI and VII of the National Defense Education Act by the United States Office of Education.

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<sup>17</sup>George A. C. Scherer and Michael Wertheimer, "The German Teaching Experiment at the University of Colorado," German Quarterly, 35:298-308, May, 1962.



A select group of foreign language educators was empaneled to develop precise definitions of the distinguishing characteristics of each instructional strategy and to identify representative teaching materials.\* These criteria are reproduced in abbreviated form in the Appendix. A competent research staff was assembled and experimental guidelines were developed in great detail.

One hundred and four French I and German I teachers were identified who were willing to limit themselves to the experimental framework. Schools were located throughout the state and were judged to be a good representation of the secondary schools of the Commonwealth. Schools selected represented both "inner city" and suburban Philadelphia and Pittsburgh as well as a large number of diversified small communities. Students were from grades 8-12 with the majority in grades 9 and 10.

"Traditional" classes were taught, in the main, by teachers who preferred that strategy. It was possible to completely randomly assign eighty-seven classes among the "Audiolingual" and a modified "Audiolingual with Grammar"

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\*Robert Lado, Dean, Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University.  
Stanley Sapon, Dept. of Linguistics, University of Rochester  
Wilmarth Starr, Dept. of German, New York University  
W. Freeman Twaddell, Dept. of German, Brown University  
Albert Valdman, Dept. of Linguistics, Indiana University, and  
Donald D. Walsh, Foreign Language Program, Modern Language  
Asso. of America.



strategies. In addition, fifty-three classes could be randomly assigned between listen-respond and listen-respond-record language laboratory systems. A complete illustration of the assignment to experimental treatments is shown in Figure 1. In the final statistical analyses, only classes truly randomly assigned to laboratory treatment were considered.

Teachers were tested for foreign language proficiency and professional background with the state required MLA Teacher Proficiency battery and trained in their role at a week long pre-experimental workshop. Three other meetings during the year facilitated research staff-teacher communication. The research staff observed teachers throughout the year on an unannounced irregular basis to insure adherence to strategy. Teachers averaged 9.9 years experience and forty-five graduate hours of preparation. Recent college graduates or residents abroad were excluded. Forty per cent of the teachers--twice the state average--involved had participated in National Defence Education Act Institutes and sixty-two per cent had traveled or studied abroad.

Representative texts for both approaches selected by the panel of foreign language specialists were those most

widely used in the field.\* Tests were of both the "new" and the "old" philosophy--The Modern Language Association Cooperative Classroom series and the especially reprinted 1939-41 Cooperative French/German Tests.

All teachers in the audiolingual strategies each used a tape recorder daily in the classroom. Classes assigned to one of the two laboratory periods spent two additional half-periods a week in laboratory practice with the commercially prepared tape programs.

Throughout the research, one goal was foremost in the minds of the staff: to evaluate new curriculum trends in a school situation approaching the reality of secondary education in the United States. The research was never conceived as an original experiment but as the large scale replication of previous studies in a broader yet more relevant context.

One serious disadvantage that the research has suffered from is the unfortunate choice of the word "Traditional" rather than the semantically less loaded term "Cognitive Code-Learning" advanced by Carroll (1965). Throughout the experiment each strategy was hopefully represented in its best possible manner. The "Traditional"

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\*Traditional: French, Cours Elementaire de Francais (2nd ed.) and New First Year French  
German, A First Course in German and Foundation Course in German

Audiolingual: French, ALM, Level I and Ecouter et Parler  
German, ALM, Level I and Verstehen und Sprechen

strategy as employed in the research was far different from the typical foreign language classroom instruction of the 1920's and 1930's.

The research staff is aware of the tendency to assume that teachers deviated from their assigned teaching strategies as a rationalization of the lack of significant findings in favor of newer strategies and materials. Every possible control was utilized without unreasonably disturbing the normal school routine.

The experiment was an improvement over previous in situ research in modern foreign languages in that adequate numbers of students representing two languages were involved in each treatment. Materials and tests were not especially written but were those most available and in widespread use. The statistical analyses were sophisticated and conservative. Data gathering was as extensive as could be permitted. Reporting has attempted to be factual and objective despite the fact that the conclusions of the research are often in direct opposition to the professional training, biases and intuition of the reporters.

Perhaps the greatest implication inherent in the conclusions of Projects 5-0683 and 7-0133 is that the foreign language education profession has for the past decade or more been predicating teaching strategies, materials, and electro-mechanical devices on theoretical assumptions that

may not be entirely valid. The implication for a reexamination of the theoretical basis for second language learning in the secondary school environment is evident in the research.

The false implication that foreign language teaching revert to "traditional" classroom techniques of the 1930's must not be read into the research. "Traditional" teachers as defined in the research had many more insights in human growth, personal interrelations and the learning process than their predecessors of forty years ago.

Countless improvements have been made in the physical classroom, text format and arrangement, and curriculum development. The generation of students utilized in this research has always known television, traveled more widely and seen the world grow smaller. Neither, the teacher, the school, nor the students are the same from year to year. Retrogression is not possible and cannot be regarded as an implication of the research. The recasting of theory, perhaps once adequate, into current society is implied.

The implication is also clear that the "lock-step" language laboratory in the secondary school, no matter of what type, does not meet the expectations posited by earlier more closely controlled research. The twice-weekly utilization employed in the research may not be optimal but reflects the typical school practice as determined by surveys conducted

both before and after the research experiment.

The implications are obvious that student recording equipment may be too ambitious an investment for student drill and pattern practice and that the classroom tape recorder offers the advantage of the "lock-step" language laboratory at a fraction of the cost.

The lack of demonstrable relationship between scores on the MLA Teacher Proficiency Tests and student achievement implies that the most important phase of education is the process of teaching not the teacher's background in subject matter. The research, in examining student attitude, superficial classroom methodology, and teacher proficiency may have failed to examine the real causes of variation in achievement. These may lie in the unexplored area of process-- student motivation for second language learning and student-teacher interaction. The implication is that more precise examinations need to be made of the role of motivation and classroom interaction and second language learning.

"Audiolingual with Grammar" classes were felt by the Project teachers almost unanimously to be the probably "winner" on a poll taken at the end of the two year experimental phase. Such was not the case, rather the strategy in which grammar was presented first then practiced seemed to be more effective. The implication is obvious for research on deductive, "grammar before," versus inductive, "grammar

after," on large enough scale to be sufficiently generalizable.<sup>18</sup>

## VII. SUMMARY

In summary, it was found that today there are a great many more arguments in favor of second language learning and more arguments both strong and weak for their value to the people of a modern nation.

A revolution in the teaching of foreign languages has taken place in the United States especially since the Second World War. According to Lado, the theory forming the basis of the audio-lingual approach maintains that foreign languages can best be learned in the same way in which the individual learns his native tongue.<sup>19</sup> The infant hears his parents and others speaking all around him and even before his eyes can focus upon objects. As he becomes older, he begins to isolate and repeat the various sounds that he has heard about him. Soon he begins to utter meaningful words and phrases, although still in rudimentary and poorly constructed structural form. By the age of five or six,

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<sup>18</sup>Philip D. Smith, Jr., "A Comparison Study of The Effectiveness of The Traditional And Audiolingual Approaches To Foreign Language Instruction Utilizing Laboratory Equipment," at West Chester State College, OE 7-0133, United States Office of Education [166 pages].

<sup>19</sup>Robert A. Hall, Jr., New Ways to Learn A Foreign Language (New York: Bantam Books, 1966), pp. 27-28.

however, his growth in speaking ability has reached a well-developed stage, with only a few elements still needing to be perfected. His school years are spent primarily in learning to read and write his mother tongue.

In the audio-lingual approach, the foreign language is taught in a manner duplicating the stages through which the student has passed in learning his mother tongue.<sup>20</sup> The new language is first presented in a system of sounds to which the student listens as they are presented in meaningful phrases at a spoken rate normal for the particular language. The material selected is short and simple in its construction and carefully graded as to difficulty, but nevertheless it is authentic: it is spoken naturally as the natives of the country would speak it, and it concerns meaningful topics.

Repetition or drill is an important means by which students develop the ability to speak another language, but such reinforcement is most effective when it is meaningful to the learners.<sup>21</sup>

With the introduction of the audio-lingual approach to the teaching of foreign languages, less emphasis has been

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<sup>20</sup>Ibid., pp. 17-40.

<sup>21</sup>John M. Stephens, The Psychology of Classroom Learning (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), pp. 108-118.



placed upon formal grammar.<sup>22</sup> The emphasis now is upon "structural patterns" of the spoken language. Grammatical concepts are presented as "keys", "rules-of-thumb," or in "notes." Grammar is learned as similarities and differences in the sounds, inflections, and structures. Only a minimum of formal principles are introduced--those absolutely essential for an understanding of the logical coherence of the language. Later, when the students have gained some competence in the language, more extensive consideration of grammar is undertaken. Grammatical understanding develops through use of the language and does not precede its use.

Thus the current consensus seems to be that grammatical understanding is essential in the study and mastery of a foreign language. The difference between the "old" and the "new" methods therefore is not whether students need to know the grammar of the language they are learning. Rather, these questions are raised: When should students be introduced to grammar? How should it be presented? And how much of it do they need to know in order to communicate effectively in the language of their choice?

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<sup>22</sup>Adolphe E. Meyer, An Educational History of the Western World (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 156-157; and J. Wesley Childers, Foreign Language Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1964), pp. 1-28.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODS AND MATERIALS

#### I. SUBJECTS

Students used in the experiment. Fourth grade students who had had no previous knowledge of any foreign language were selected to participate in the experiment. Dr. Charles Peccolo consulted with the Manhattan Public School System, and by special arrangement, two fourth grade classes were selected. The selection was based on the fact that the students participating should not have had any previous knowledge of foreign language instruction and what classes were available at the time. Northview Elementary School agreed to permit the experiment to be conducted. There were three fourth-grade classes, and two were selected wherein the supervising teachers were willing to incorporate the experiment into their regular program of study.

After the selection had been secured, the researcher explained to the students that they had been chosen to take part in an experiment designed to examine two methods of teaching a foreign language. It was explained that the target language for the study would be French and that the two methods, the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-grammar approach, were presently being used at higher levels of education throughout the United States. The purpose of

this study, it was explained, was to determine whether significant differences result when the use of one approach is contrasted to the use of another, namely, the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-grammar approach.

School used in the experiment. For the purpose of carrying out the proposed plan, the co-operation of Northview Elementary School, located in Manhattan, Kansas was secured. Northview had a total population of approximately 494 and instructed grades Kindergarten through six. The students were largely composed of a middle-class background.

Two different fourth grade classes participated in the experiment for a six week period. The classes were almost equal in number, but they were not evenly distributed in regard to sex. The experimental group numbered twenty-three distributed almost evenly between twelve girls and eleven boys. The control group numbered twenty-two and was distributed unevenly between eight girls and fourteen boys.

The researcher met each class separately for instruction. This took place each Monday, Wednesday and Friday, and each class was one-half hour in length. The researcher met with the experimental group [audio-lingual-grammar approach] from 2:30-3:00 in the afternoon. The control group [audio-lingual approach] met from 3:00-3:30 in the afternoon. Two different methods of instruction were used

and can be observed in the Appendix to this study.

The classes did not have access to a language laboratory, but a tape recorder was used. The researcher recorded drills corresponding to the methods of instruction used, and the students had access to the tape recorder for the entire period of the experiment. In order that the students might benefit from hearing a native speaker of French, records were chosen corresponding to the drills used in the classroom. The drills used and the tests administered were compiled by the researcher and can be examined in the Appendix to this study.

At the termination of the study, the use of slides was incorporated and they were explained in French by the researcher with very little English translation.

Equating the groups. As noted earlier, the two samples were simple, pre-constituted classes which were available for research. Examination of students' records revealed that there was a difference in the abilities of the two groups, especially with respect to the scores on the Stanford Achievement Test. The group assigned to the audio-lingual-grammar approach [the experimental group] had a mean score of 3.60 and the group assigned to the audio-lingual approach [the control group] had a mean score of 4.00 on the language section of the Stanford Achievement Test. This is illustrated by Tables I, A and B.

TABLE I-A  
SCORE OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS ON THE LANGUAGE  
SECTION OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST  
OF THE AUDIO-LINGUAL CLASS

Student Number	Language Score
1	2.20
2	2.81
3	3.12
4	2.91
5	3.63
6	3.22
7	5.47
8	4.66
9	5.68
10	2.61
11	3.53
12	4.15
13	2.50
14	3.12
15	5.07
16	3.74
17	3.94
18	2.40
19	2.50
20	2.91
21	6.48
22	2.50
23	3.74

TABLE I-B

SCORE OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS ON THE LANGUAGE SECTION  
OF THE STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST OF THE  
AUDIO-LINGUAL-GRAMMAR-CLASS

Student Number	Language Score
1	5.27
2	4.25
3	3.43
4	2.10
5	2.50
6	6.89
7	4.96
8	4.15
9	2.60
10	3.43
11	4.15
12	5.07
13	4.45
14	4.96
15	4.15
16	5.58
17	2.50
18	3.22
19	3.02
20	3.43
21	5.27
22	2.71

## II. METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The analysis of covariance was chosen as the method of analysis, and the contribution of the Stanford Achievement Test score was statistically controlled. The analysis of covariance was selected because it provided a means for equating the two groups with respect to language ability as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test. In addition to this test, the students were administered a French achievement test at the end of the three-week period and again at the termination of the experiment, but no significant difference in the adjusted mean scores was observed. This is illustrated by Tables II, A and B.

## III. DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

The data yielded by the experiment were subjected to the analysis of covariance in order to control the contribution to variation in the criterion due to the Stanford Achievement Test. The analysis of covariance has been described by Roscoe in the following fashion:

The success of an experiment and the ability to detect significant differences in the criterion variable are often determined by the ability of the investigator to control one or more variables that influence the criterion. . . . The analysis of covariance is a blending of regression and the analysis of variance, which permits statistical rather than experimental control of variables. The result is equivalent to matching the various experimental groups with respect to the variable or variables being controlled. . . .

TABLE II-A  
SIX-WEEK FRENCH EXAMINATION OF THE  
AUDIO-LINGUAL CLASS

Student Number	Number Correct Out of Possible 40
1	32.5
2	-35.0
3	15.0
4	4.5
5	10.0
6	12.0
7	16.0
8	-28.0
9	3.5
10	16.5
11	-22.0
12	32.5
13	-19.0
14	15.5
15	-12.0
16	28.0
17	15.0
18	7.0
19	27.0
20	14.0
21	0.0
22	4.0
23	0.0

TABLE II-B  
SIX-WEEK FRENCH EXAMINATION OF THE  
AUDIO-LINGUAL-GRAMMAR CLASS

Student Number	Number Correct Out of Possible 40
1	5.0
2	22.0
3	12.0
4	27.0
5	12.5
6	7.0
7	8.0
8	13.0
9	19.5
10	18.0
11	3.0
12	-19.5
13	10.0
14	0.0
15	24.5
16	17.0
17	8.0
18	5.0
19	6.0
20	16.0
21	35.0
22	2.0



Whenever two measures are correlated, one can be used to predict scores on the other; to the extent that performance cannot be attributed to the experimental activities. The analysis of covariance consists essentially of determining that a proportion of the variance of the criterion existed prior to the experiment, and this proportion is eliminated from the final analysis. It should be immediately apparent that two substantial benefits accrue from such a procedure: [1] any variable that influences the variation of the criterion variable may be controlled, and [2] the error variance in the analysis is substantially reduced.<sup>1</sup>

A computer program developed by Dr. John Roscoe was used to generate a summary table for the analysis of covariance. This table is reported in the Appendix. The interpretation of the analysis of covariance is with respect to criterion means which have been adjusted to eliminate the contribution of the pretest. Means for the two groups on the pretest and posttest variables and the adjusted posttest means are reported below:

	Means		
	Pretest	Posttest	Adjusted Posttest
Experimental group	3.60	13.52	14.20
Control group	4.00	16.77	16.06

The F-ratio for the analysis of covariance was 0.50 with degrees of freedom 1, 42. There was no significant difference in the adjusted posttest means. The available evidence suggests that when the contribution of the scores

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<sup>1</sup>John T. Roscoe, Fundamental Research Statistics (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), pp. 254-5.

on the Stanford Achievement Test are controlled, the two methods of instruction are about equally effective. The generalization of these findings to other groups of students should take into consideration the small size of the two samples and the time involved for the experiment.

#### IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the audio-lingual approach to the audio-lingual-grammar approach in teaching foreign languages in an attempt to ascertain the assets and liabilities of both methods.

The experiment was conducted for a six-week period at the Northview Elementary School and two fourth grade classes, numbering twenty-three in one and twenty-two in the other were selected. The students had never been subjected to learning a foreign language prior to the experiment. Two different methods of instruction were used and the data collected was subjected to the analysis of covariance. The researcher selected the analysis of covariance because it eliminated the contribution of the pretest score by providing an adjusted criterion score. This is equivalent to matching the two groups with respect to the pretest score.

Implications. The retention of the null hypothesis that: There is no difference in learning a foreign language under the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-

grammar approach, reveals that there is no significant difference in the learning of a foreign language when taught by the audio-lingual-grammar or the audio-lingual approach in the first six weeks of study of the target language. Thus, it might be inferred that a synthesis of the two methods might be effective rather than selecting one or the other method as most effective particularly in the early weeks of study of a foreign language. One method might produce more effective results than the other if the research could be conducted over a greater period of time and the samples were increased.

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## APPENDIX A



## LESSON I\*

le vocabulaire--the vocabulary

le monsieur - the man

le garçon - the boy

le fils - the son

le frere - the brother

le chien - the dog

le chat - the cat

le grand-pere - the grandfather

le livre - the book

le crayon - the pencil

la madame - the woman

la jeune fille - the young girl

la soeur - the sister

la maison - the house

la mademoiselle - the lady

la robe - the dress

la dame - the woman

la fenetre - the window

la grand-mere - the grandmother

la chambre - the room

\*The students were drilled in vocabulary at the beginning of each new week. The use of visuals were used to make the translation from French to English.

## DRILL I\*

## "LE"

Le monsieur est dans la maison.  
Il est dans la maison.

Le chien est dans la maison.  
Il est dans la maison.

Le chat est dans la maison.  
Il est dans la maison.

Le fils est dans la maison.  
Il est dans la maison.

Le frere est dans la maison.  
Il est dans la maison.

## "LA"

La madame est dans la maison.  
Elle est dans la maison.

La soeur est dans la maison.  
Elle est dans la maison.

La robe est dans la maison.  
Elle est dans la maison.

La grand-mere est dans la maison.  
Elle est dans la maison.

La mademoiselle est dans la maison.  
Elle est dans la maison.

## "LES"

Les chiens sont dans la maison.  
Ils sont dans la maison.

Les chats sont dans la maison.  
Ils sont dans la maison.

Les dames sont dans la maison.  
Elles sont dans la maison.

Les robes sont dans la maison.  
Elles sont dans la maison.

\*The students were drilled in the difference between le-la-les and in the audio-lingual-grammar [experimental group] class, the rules were explained in English.

## DRILL II\*

le verbe "etre" - the verb "to be"

je suis	- I am
tu es	- you are
il est	- he is
elle est	- she is
nous sommes	- we are
vous etes	- you are
ils sont	- they are
elles sont	- they are

Je suis	madame Thibault
Je suis	monsieur Thibault
Je suis	La Mere
Je suis	Le pere
Je suis	Le garcon
Je suis	La jeune fille

etes-vous	madame Thibault?
"	monsieur Thibault?
"	La mere?
"	Le pere?
"	La garcon?
"	La jeune fille?

\*The students were drilled in the French verb-etre. The same drill was used in the experimental group and the control group, however, in the audio-lingual-grammar [experimental group] rules were explained in English.

## DRILL III\*

Il est        petit

Il est        jeune

Il est        grand

Il est        beau

Elle est     petite

Elle est     jeune

elle est     grande

elle est     belle

\*The difference between masculine and feminine nouns was illustrated by means of drill. The rules were explained in English to the experimental group.

## TEST AT THE END OF 3 WEEKS

1. Replace the nouns with French words and be sure to put "le" and "la"

1. [The boy] \_\_\_\_\_ est dans la maison.
2. [The woman] \_\_\_\_\_ est dans la maison.
3. [The dress] \_\_\_\_\_ est tres jolie.
4. [The cat] \_\_\_\_\_ est tres trist.
5. [The dog] \_\_\_\_\_ est en face de la fenetre.
6. Vous etes une tres [young girl] \_\_\_\_\_.
7. [The grand-mother] \_\_\_\_\_ est tres petite.
8. [The room] \_\_\_\_\_ est tres jolie.
9. [The grand-father] \_\_\_\_\_ est tres grand.
10. [The book] \_\_\_\_\_ est dans mon bureau.

2. Replace with "il" or "elle."

1. Le livre \_\_\_\_\_ est dans mon bureau.
2. La grand-mere \_\_\_\_\_ est tres petite.
3. Le chien \_\_\_\_\_ est dans la maison.
4. Le garcon \_\_\_\_\_ est tres petit.
5. La chambre \_\_\_\_\_ est tres jolie.

3. Explain for me the difference between "le" and "la".

## TEST AT THE END OF 6 WEEKS

- I. Donnez-moi, s'il vous plait, les jours de la semaine.  
[Give me the days of the week].

Monday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Tuesday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Wednesday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Thursday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Friday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Saturday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sunday \_\_\_\_\_

- II. Donnez-moi, s'il vous plait, les numeros un a dix.  
[Numbers 1 through 10].

One _____	Six _____
Two _____	Seven _____
Three _____	Eight _____
Four _____	Nine _____
Five _____	Ten _____

- III. Ecrivez l'article correct. [Give either le or la.]  
In the second blank, please give the English meaning.

grandmere	_____	_____
grandpere	_____	_____
chien	_____	_____
chat	_____	_____
jeune fille	_____	_____
madame	_____	_____
monsieur	_____	_____
maison	_____	_____
soeur	_____	_____
mademoiselle	_____	_____

- IV. Explain the difference in one sentence as to when you use the masculine possessive adjective and when you use the feminine possessive adjective.

## APPENDIX B

TABLE III  
SUMMARY TABLE FOR THE ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE  
-John T. Roscoe-

Source	SS <sub>x</sub>	SP	SS <sub>y</sub>	Adj. D.F.	Adj. SS <sub>y</sub>	Adj. MS <sub>y</sub>
Between	0.281	- 5.780	118.836	1	127.618	127.618
Within	10.830	11.057	3939.109	42	3927.820	93.520
Total	11.111	5.278	4057.945			

$$F = 1.3646$$

$$df = 1, 42$$

$$X_1 = 0.522$$

$$Y_1 = 13.522 = 13.443$$

$$X_2 = 0.364$$

$$Y_2 = 16.773 = 16.855$$



Appendix C of this document has been removed because it contains copyrighted material.

Please consult the original copy.

## APPENDIX D

## TEST 5: Language Part A: Usage

**DIRECTIONS:** Read each sentence below. Decide which, if either, of the two choices in each sentence is correct in standard written English. Look at the answer spaces at the right or on your answer sheet (if you have one). If the choice numbered 1 is correct, fill in the space under the 1. If the choice numbered 2 is correct, fill in the space under the 2. If neither choice 1 nor choice 2 is correct, fill in the space under the N. ("N" stands for "neither.")

## SAMPLES

A Joe <sup>1 sat</sup> <sub>2 sat</sub> in the chair. . . . . A ☐ ☐ ☐

B Sally <sup>1 ain't</sup> <sub>2 aren't</sub> here. . . . . B ☐ ☐ ☐

1 Who <sup>1 drew</sup> <sub>2 drew</sub> the picture? . . . . . 1 ☐ ☐ ☐

2 I wish I <sup>1 can</sup> <sub>2 could</sub> go with you. . . . . 2 ☐ ☐ ☐

3 When he left, he <sup>1 put</sup> <sub>2 puts</sub> his hat on. . . . . 3 ☐ ☐ ☐

4 Dad says medicine makes us <sup>1 well</sup> <sub>2 good</sub>. . . . . 4 ☐ ☐ ☐

5 Jim doesn't have <sup>1 nothing</sup> <sub>2 anything</sub> new. . . . . 5 ☐ ☐ ☐

6 Take <sup>1 these here</sup> <sub>2 them</sub> pens with you. . . . . 6 ☐ ☐ ☐

7 John hurt <sup>1 himself</sup> <sub>2 hisself</sub> swimming. . . . . 7 ☐ ☐ ☐

8 We <sup>1 done</sup> <sub>2 did</sub> the lesson yesterday. . . . . 8 ☐ ☐ ☐

9 Who has <sup>1 stole</sup> <sub>2 stolen</sub> the money? . . . . . 9 ☐ ☐ ☐

10 I didn't know you <sup>1 were</sup> <sub>2 was</sub> going. . . . . 10 ☐ ☐ ☐

11 I <sup>1 got</sup> <sub>2 have</sub> to go now. . . . . 11 ☐ ☐ ☐

12 Tom says he <sup>1 would</sup> <sub>2 will</sub> paint the fence. . . . . 12 ☐ ☐ ☐

13 Where did you put <sup>1 you're</sup> <sub>2 your</sub> coat? . . . . . 13 ☐ ☐ ☐

17 <sup>1 Is</sup> <sub>2 Are</sub> there more than one apple? . . . . . 17 ☐ ☐ ☐

18 I have never <sup>1 ketchd</sup> <sub>2 caught</sub> many fish. . . . . 18 ☐ ☐ ☐

19 Yesterday Mary <sup>1 give</sup> <sub>2 gives</sub> a book to us. . . . . 19 ☐ ☐ ☐

20 We <sup>1 ought</sup> <sub>2 had ought</sub> to go to school. . . . . 20 ☐ ☐ ☐

21 There <sup>1 aren't</sup> <sub>2 isn't</sub> any girls in our club. . . . . 21 ☐ ☐ ☐

22 <sup>1 Us boys</sup> <sub>2 Us fellows</sub> joined the team. . . . . 22 ☐ ☐ ☐

23 I didn't see where you <sup>1 was going</sup> <sub>2 had went</sub>. . . . . 23 ☐ ☐ ☐

24 Mother is <sup>1 lying</sup> <sub>2 laying</sub> down. . . . . 24 ☐ ☐ ☐

25 He put <sup>1 to</sup> <sub>2 too</sub> much air in his tires. . . . . 25 ☐ ☐ ☐

26 One of the kites <sup>1 is</sup> <sub>2 are</sub> Dick's. . . . . 26 ☐ ☐ ☐

27 <sup>1 Bob and me</sup> <sub>2 I and Bob</sub> are going too. . . . . 27 ☐ ☐ ☐

28 He <sup>1 told</sup> <sub>2 tells</sub> us, "What are you doing?" . . . . . 28 ☐ ☐ ☐

29 Has Joe <sup>1 growed</sup> <sub>2 grew</sub> as tall as Tim? . . . . . 29 ☐ ☐ ☐

30 Father took Ann and <sup>1 me</sup> <sub>2 I</sub> to a play. . . . . 30 ☐ ☐ ☐

31 Sally has <sup>1 ate</sup> <sub>2 et</sub> her lunch. . . . . 31 ☐ ☐ ☐

32 There <sup>1 wasn't</sup> <sub>2 weren't</sub> no one waiting. . . . . 32 ☐ ☐ ☐

33 We were <sup>1 choosed</sup> <sub>2 chose</sub> for the play. . . . . 33 ☐ ☐ ☐

34 Has Betty <sup>1 drank</sup> <sub>2 drunk</sub> her milk? . . . . . 34 ☐ ☐ ☐

35 The class had <sup>1 sing</sup> <sub>2 sung</sub> a song. . . . . 35 ☐ ☐ ☐

## 5: Language (Continued) Part B: Punctuation

**DIRECTIONS:** In this test, all punctuation marks and capital letters have been left out. Decide if a mark or punctuation mark, if any, is needed after each underlined word. If a punctuation mark is needed, find the punctuation mark in the row at the right that has the same number as the underlined word. Then look at the answer spaces at the right of your answer sheet (if you have one). Fill in the space which has the same letter as the letter beside the punctuation mark you have chosen. If no punctuation mark is needed, fill in the space under the NP. ("NP" stands for "no punctuation needed.")

## SAMPLES

this is a boy  
the little boy was crying

a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

C a (.) b (?)  
D c (,) d (;)

39  
18 chestnut street  
40  
windsor ohio  
41  
february 20 1962

a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

39 a (,) b (.)  
c (,) d (.)  
a (.) b (,) c (,) d (.)

44  
dear sirs

45  
i read your advertisement in the february 17th issue

and i am interested in selling seeds to make money before my

46  
father will give me permission i must find out what my father can receive any

50  
packages of seeds i do not sell

52  
please let me know promptly for i am anxious to get started.

sincerely yours  
marcia thomas

bob what did one wall say to the other asked joe i know that one

c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c	d	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a	b	NP
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

44 c (,) d (.)  
45 a (,) b (.)  
46 a (,) b (.)  
47 a (,) b (.)  
48 a (,) b (.)  
49 a (,) b (.)  
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95 a (,) b (.)  
96 a (,) b (.)  
97 a (,) b (.)  
98 a (,) b (.)  
99 a (,) b (.)  
100 a (,) b (.)

**DIRECTIONS:** In this part, all capital letters and most of the punctuation marks have been left out. You are to decide whether certain words should be capitalized. These words are underlined and have a number above them. You are not to do anything with words that are not underlined. Look at the answer spaces at the right or on your answer sheet (if you have one). Be sure that the number beside the answer space agrees with the number of the word. If the word or phrase should be capitalized, fill in the space under the letter C. ("C" stands for "capital letter.") If a small letter is correct, fill in the space under the letter s. ("s" stands for "small letter.")

## SAMPLES

mary and tom are going

they will leave tomorrow

	C	E
E	C	O
	C	S
F	O	O

unlike most nations <sup>59</sup> <sup>60</sup> canada has no national flag if you visited <sup>61</sup> montreal or  
any canadian city you would see either the <sup>62</sup> the <sup>63</sup> "british ensign" or the <sup>64</sup> flag of the  
<sup>65</sup> province the british flag is known as the <sup>66</sup> the <sup>67</sup> "union jack" which is a nickname like  
<sup>68</sup> <sup>69</sup> "old glory" or the <sup>66</sup> <sup>67</sup> "stars and stripes"

if you traveled northeast along the <sup>68</sup> ~~St~~ Lawrence <sup>69</sup> river you would come to the <sup>70</sup> city of Quebec <sup>71</sup> in this city you would <sup>72</sup> see <sup>73</sup> the parks and <sup>74</sup> on <sup>75</sup> the public buildings <sup>76</sup> the flag <sup>77</sup> the settlers from France <sup>78</sup> brought with them <sup>79</sup> many <sup>80</sup> years ago

canada has two national anthems <sup>81</sup> one of <sup>82</sup> is "god save the queen" <sup>83</sup> the <sup>84</sup>  
title of the hymn sung by the french <sup>85</sup> canadians is "o canada" <sup>86</sup>

this great nation has two official languages also in parliament the lawmakers  
may use either french or english

like the united states <sup>92</sup> canada is a vast country. Its coastline touches two <sup>93</sup> oceans and the arctic sea. it has great plains and mountain <sup>94</sup> ranges

59	C s
60	C s
61	C s
62	C s
63	C s
64	C s
65	C s
66	C s
67	C s
68	C s
69	C s
70	C s
71	C s
72	C s
73	C s
74	C s
75	C s
76	C s

77 C  
78 O  
79 C  
80 O  
81 C  
82 C  
83 C  
84 C  
85 C  
86 C  
87 C  
88 C  
89 C  
90 C  
91 C  
92 C  
93 C  
94 C

## TEST 5: Language (Continued)

## Part D: Dictionary Skills

## DIRECTIONS

is a test of your ability to use a dictionary. In this test two words (in boxes) are given as they might appear in a dictionary, with four dictionary definitions given for each word. Below the box for each word are five questions. In the first two questions, the given word is used in a sentence. Read each sentence, then decide which dictionary definition best defines the word as it is being used in the sentence. Fill in the space at the answer space at the right on your answer sheet (if you have one). Fill in the space which has the same number as the definition you have chosen. Three other questions are asked about each word. For each of these, decide which answer is best and mark the space which has the same letter as the answer you have chosen.

## SAMPLES

**check** (chek) 1. n. A pattern in squares of different colors. 2. v. To prove true or right. 3. n. A mark showing that something has been examined or compared. 4. v. To hold back or control.

G Miss Jones made a check beside each example.

H The word check in the sentence above is —

a a noun

b a verb

c an adjective

d an adverb

1 2 3 4  
G ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

a b c d  
H ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

**air** (ār) 1. v. To make known. 2. n. Melody; tune. 3. n. Way; look; manner. 4. n. Light wind; breeze.

95 He whistled an old English air.

96 She has a country air about her.

97 The word air rhymes with

a car

b fare

c near

d ere

98 Which one of these uses of the word air is different from the above?

e "giving the dog an airing"

f "air your opinion"

g "air your clothes"

h "in the air"

99 A word which can mean the opposite of air is —

a conceal

b reveal

c fair

d demeanor

1 2 3 4  
95 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1 2 3 4  
96 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

a b c d  
97 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

e f g h  
98 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

a b c d  
99 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

**bitter** (bit' or) 1. Having disagreeable taste like quinine. 2. Painful; distressing. 3. Showing or causing pain. 4. Harsh; cruel; cutting.

100 The child cried bitter tears.

101 The cold wind was bitter.

102 A word that means the opposite of bitter is —

a biting

b cruel

c sweet

d sarcastic

103 In a dictionary, the word bitter would be found between the guide words —

e birth — biad

g bird — bitten

f bit — blat

h bind — birch

104 The accented vowel sound in bitter is like the accented vowel sound in —

a biting

b picture

c patter

d brighter

1 2 3 4  
100 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1 2 3 4  
101 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

a b c d  
102 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

e f g h  
103 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

a b c d  
104 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐



## TEST 5: Language (Continued)

## Sentence Sense

**DIRECTIONS:** Read each group of words below. Decide if the words make *one complete sentence*, *more than one complete sentence*, or *no complete sentence*. Look at the answer spaces at the right or on your answer sheet (if you have one). If the group of words can be correctly punctuated as one sentence by merely putting a period or question mark at the end, fill in the space under the 1. If the group of words *could* be punctuated as two sentences (without changing or omitting any words), fill in the space under the 2. If the group of words is just part of a sentence, fill in the space under the N. ("N" stands for "not a complete sentence.")

## SAMPLES

1 In 1818 the flag had twenty stars . . . 1 ☒ 2 ☐ N ☐

1 In the right-hand corner of the flag . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

105 Origami, a Japanese word for the art of paper folding . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

106 Folding paper into beautiful shapes . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

107 You have probably made paper hats and nut baskets or a paper glider, that is what origami is . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

108 Japanese children learn to make beautiful objects out of single pieces of paper . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

109 Nozomi, a little Japanese girl, showed us how to make . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

110 She took a piece of paper nine inches square, folding it many times, she made a boat . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

111 When someone in Japan is sick, his friends make hundreds of paper cranes to send him . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

112 Since a crane is a bird which is supposed to live for a hundred years . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

113 A charming get-well wish . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

114 Many objects made of paper, such as fans, boxes, lanterns, and sunshades . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

115 A book on origami was written by a Japanese artist, his name is Isao Honda . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

116 Do you know why we have "leap year" every four years . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

117 A year is not exactly 365 days long it is 365 days, 5 hours, and about 49 minutes . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

118 So hundreds of years ago we decided to have an extra day in our calendar every four years . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

119 Making up for the quarter of a day that is left over every year . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

120 However, a quarter of a day is really 15 minutes too long, after many years the extra 15 minutes added up to ten days . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

121 So instead of having 100 "leap years" every 400 years . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

122 Three "leap years" every 400 years are the regular 365 days in length . . . 1 ☐ 2 ☐ N ☐

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE AUDIO-LINGUAL APPROACH  
AND THE COMBINED AUDIO-LINGUAL-GRAMMAR APPROACH  
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

by

SHARON JEANNETTE MECCA

B.A., Marymount College, 1965

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1969



The purpose of this study was to analyse and compare the effect of the audio-lingual and the audio-lingual-grammar approach on the learning of French at the elementary level.

An experiment was set up in the Northview Elementary School in Manhattan, Kansas, using two classes of fourth-grade students who had never been subjected to learning French prior to the experiment. One class of students was taught French by the Audio-lingual approach and one class was taught with the audio-lingual-grammar approach.

The experiment was conducted for a six week period. An Achievement Test, The Stanford Achievement Test was used as the pretest score, and the cumulative average of each class was used as a posttest. A test, constructed by the researcher, was administered at the end of the three-week period and again at the termination of the experiment in order to measure the individual and group progress of the two classes.

In order to compare the results of the experiment, the data were subjected to the analysis of covariance and a computer program developed by Dr. John Roscoe was used to generate a summary table for the analysis.

It was found that there was no significant difference between the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-grammar approach which suggests that when the scores on the Stanford Achievement Test are controlled, the two methods

of instruction are about equally effective, taking into consideration the small size of the samples and the limited time of the overall experiment.

From the findings of this study it was concluded that the original hypothesis--that there is no difference between the audio-lingual approach and the audio-lingual-grammar approach in the learning of a foreign language--was accepted. It was found that no difference exists between the two approaches in the first six weeks of study of the target language.