

## Active Methods and Modern Aids in the Teaching of Foreign Languages at the FIPLV Congress in Zagreb

The Tenth Congress of FIPLV took place in Zagreb on 5—9 April 1968. It was organized by the Croatian Philological Society on behalf of the Yugoslav Association of Modern Languages. About 900 participants from 24 countries met in Zagreb to contribute, through papers and discussions, to the improvement of the teaching of foreign languages in general and teaching methods in particular. Most participants were from the member-associations of FIPLV, but there were also representatives of non-member countries: USSR, Poland, Roumania, Bulgaria, who were active in the work of the Congress by both contributing papers and taking part in discussions.

The main theme of the Congress "Active Methods and Modern Aids in the Teaching of Foreign Languages" was discussed in plenary sessions by six lecturers in their main papers, and in six sections in introductory papers, and several reports in each section. Each section covered one of the aspects of teaching foreign languages, always aiming at discussing two main problems that are included in the main theme; what method should be used in the teaching of foreign languages to achieve maximum results, and what aids will best serve the recently developed methods.

In *Section 1* the main theme was dealt with from the point of view of the use of A—V aids (including radio and television and A—V courses).

*Section 2* examined a fairly new discipline in the sphere of foreign language teaching programmed instruction.

The basic question discussed in *Section 3* was how much the status of bilingualism affects the later teaching of a foreign language (the third language). This section also discussed a general question of foreign language teaching, i. e. how much an intensive foreign language training should aim at establishing something like a final bilingual situation for the pupils.

*Section 4* discussed an aspect of language teaching that has been so far either neglected or not properly dealt with: the place of literature and civilization in foreign language teaching.

The topic discussed in *Section 5* represents an unsolved problem in foreign language teaching: the disproportion existing at University level between traditional academic teaching and instruction in the practical application of linguistic knowledge and the fact that theoretical linguists fill the vacancies that should be filled by competent technical translators and foreign correspondents.

The aim of *Section 6* was to discuss the pedagogical implications of contrastive linguistics, i. e. whether and how much contrastive analysis

can contribute to foreign language teaching and if so in which way its results can be applied.

The papers varied greatly: the first and the fourth sections led the way as their topics drew the attention not only of the active members of the Congress who read papers but also that of general participants. The papers and reports were written in four languages (English, French, German, and Russian), which were also freely used in the discussion.

The opening session took place on Friday, April 5th. On behalf of the Organizing Committee and the Yugoslav Association of Modern Languages Prof. Z. Škreb welcomed the participants to Zagreb and handed over the Congress to its President, Mr. Sven G. Johansson, President of FIPLV. After having welcomed the representatives of the Yugoslav government, of Zagreb University and the Faculty of Philosophy which gave hospitality to the Congress in its new building and pointed out the aims of the Congress and its main theme, Mr. Johansson asked Mr. Vukašin Mićunović, Chairman of the Federal Council for Education and Culture of Yugoslavia to address the Congress and to open it. Mr. Mićunović stressed the work of FIPLV in prompting the teaching of foreign languages and the importance of knowing foreign languages in our modern age. To know a foreign language does not mean only, said Mr. Mićunović, to be able to travel and communicate with other nations. It has much greater importance; to know a foreign language and its literature enables one to get to know a foreign culture and civilization, its history and life, and this is the best way of increasing one's own knowledge and experience. Learning foreign languages is not only a rational procedure to facilitate and increase foreign trade and travel. It is also a process in which one can learn to know the way of life and mental attitudes of other nations and as a result one establishes a climate for mutual friendship and better understanding among nations.

The Vice-Rector of Zagreb University and the Dean of the Philosophical Faculty, and the Mayor of Zagreb, spoke about the old tradition and modern achievement in the teaching of foreign languages on all levels: the University, the secondary, and the primary one. Zagreb linguists together with practical teachers of modern languages have made quite an important contribution to modernizing methods and instructional aids for the teaching of foreign languages.

The first main lecture was given by Prof. Einar Haugen, of Harvard University (USA), who spoke about *Bilingualism as a Social and Personal Problem*. He gave the general framework of language teaching problems and the main bases from which the discussion must begin.

Bilingualism is a sizeable social and political problem which attracts the attention of many specialists. Linguists have primarily been interested in the problem of how a bilingual maintains two separate codes, educators have probed the problem of how well children who are exposed to two languages do in school, soci-anthropologists have reported on the structures of societies where bilingualism is a deeply embedded part of daily experience, and political scientists have provided analysis of the forces involved in language conflict in various countries. The paper further discusses problems of the definition of bilingualism, the gradients in the continua of *competence* and language distance, the social and cultural function of bilingualism, the *horizontal* and *vertical* relationships of languages. Haugen restates the definition of bilingualism and explains the terms *coordinate* and *compound* bilinguals. He concludes that problems faced by the individual are a reflection of problems faced by his society, in which there are conflicts of interest between different language communities.

Prof. Ludwik Zabrocki, of Poznan University, spoke about cybernetics and programmed instruction: *Kybernetische Lernmodelle und programmiertes Fremdsprachunterricht*. In this paper the following topics

were discussed: a) Theoretical foundations of programmed instruction; b) The specific features of programmed language teaching; c) Selection of methods (Skinner, Crowder, etc); d) Phonetics in programmed language teaching; e) Programming of grammatical structures (Sentence patterns); f) Syntagmas and conventional figures of speech; g) Vocabulary; h) Programming of closed and open structures; i) The problem of the quantity of information; j) Background information and controlled information; k) Slot filling and testing procedure; l) Grammatical explanations; m) Dialogues and texts; n) The problem of repetitions; o) The age parameter; p) Teaching machines and programmed language teaching; q) Contributions of the conventional methodology; r) Cybernetic models of learning in the programmed foreign language instruction as closed and isolated systems. View of the future.

Prof. Renzo Titone (from Rome) read a paper on *A Psycholinguistic Model of Grammar Learning and Foreign Language Teaching*. Titone starts from the assumption that a 'pedagogical grammar' cannot be the application of mere linguistic grammar, but is rather the result of combining linguistic grammar with psychological grammar. He goes on to discuss three basic questions within which he deals with various other items:

1) *An 'effectiveness' paradigm of grammar teaching*. Three main items dealt with are: (a) Types of grammar (Intuitive, Analytical, Pedagogical). (b) Nature of psychological grammar ("a psycholinguistic model of grammar aims at explaining how grammatical sequences are encoded and decoded in communication contexts and also how the learner acquires the ability to encode and decode grammatical sequences"). (c) Characteristic concerns of a psychological grammar (adjustment to the student's linguistic aptitude and mental development, utilizing inductive procedures, conveying language as a tool for expression and communication).

2) *A psycholinguistic perspective of grammar learning*. The following questions are discussed: (a) Genesis of grammar. (Grammar is gradually assimilated through imitation and induction, and then put to use by applying deductively the general schemata established in the individual's control system). (b) The functioning of grammar. Sequential psycholinguistics is concerned with the processes of perceiving and constructing grammatical sequences. The laws of association of elementary linguistic units. Induction and integration. Deduction.

3) *Some pedagogical inferences*. Titone emphasizes two important aims: (a) At a beginner's level, grammar teaching must try to create in the student a genuine linguistic feeling (Sprachgefühl); (b) At a more advanced level, the knowledge of grammar will have to become systematic awareness of the structure of the language.

Dr. W. R. Lee (from London) spoke about *Aids and Activity in Foreign Language Learning*. His main points are: Activity is an important factor in language learning. Pictures may stimulate or suggest use of language, while auditory aids usually call for imitation. Some aids consist of material prepared beforehand and centrally, whereas others are made on the spot. Some encourage immediate, others postponed activity. Pictures help to supply or suggest situation. Active use of the language or of the aid may be either individual or collective. Some aids tend to impose a rate of activity on the class, others are more readily adaptable to particular classes. Some lend themselves to group-work. (Beginning with the blackboard, the speaker then takes the common aids in turn, questioning how each can best be used to promote active classroom use of the language).

E. M. Stepanova (from Moscow) dealt with a more specialized question: *The Role of Grammar at the Initial Stage of Teaching*. Starting from the already accepted point of view that one of the principal tasks of

foreign language teaching today is to teach the language as a means of communication and not as a special scientific subject, Stepanova adds that this task requires a new approach to the grammar of the language to be studied. It appears that we should distinguish between two grammars: that of the teacher — a means of describing and classifying the subject matter, and that of the student — a means of presenting the grammatical material and methods which contribute to the creation of the system of the studied language in the consciousness of the student. At the initial stage of teaching it is very important to determine the volume of the grammatical subject matter to be studied. Further on Stepanova applies her principles to the teaching of Russian and comes to several conclusions:

1) The teaching of Russian as a foreign language is a relatively young discipline, requiring above all a detailed and consistent description of the system of Russian.

2) The character of the description must be influenced by the basic method defined as being consciously practised.

3) It is indispensable to give a description of the fundamental content of the grammatical system of Russian, to define its active and peripheral parts.

4) The description is at the syntactical level, within which a very clear distinction is made between the sentence and the word group. In every type of sentence first the structural base is exposed, which in certain cases corresponds to the base of the predicate. In the sentence, elements of obligatory and non-obligatory extensions are distinguished; the former are studied at the sentence level, the latter at the word group level. The description of the parts of the sentence at the word group level is based on the functional principle: from the meaning to the formal expression of that meaning. In the description of the type of the sentence the regular realization of the structural base of the sentence, its temporal paradigm, and the interrogative and negative modifications of the various types of sentences are taken into consideration. A solution of model plans of the sentence remains to be found.

5) A description of the grammatical system, whose object is to teach the language as a foreign language, cannot be accomplished without a study of the lexical material which fills its structures. This material will be given in a list containing 3000 words used most frequently.

6) The description must take into consideration the functioning of the language system in speech.

7) At the initial stage of teaching a corpus is chosen, representing all the characteristics of the grammatical system of Russian in their fundamental features. This corpus can serve as the basis of a beginners' course consisting of 80 to 120 hours of teaching.

Denis Girard (from Paris) examines modern methods under the title: *Direct and Audio-Visual Methods*. He begins with answering the question what audio-visual means, by stating that it is necessary to distinguish carefully between the occasional use of the "audio-visual aids", and the permanent use of an "integrated audio-visual method". There is not one audio-visual method. There are "audio-visual methods", i. e. pedagogic units allowing for audio-visual aids and presupposing a methodological conception. It is this audio-visual methodology that he discusses in his paper.

Examining linguistic foundations of teaching methods Girard goes on to say that all the new methods ("The New Key") have in common a better knowledge of the language taught, owing to the contribution of modern linguistics:

1. Scientific description of contemporary language;
2. Comparison of the arbitrary systems governing various languages, in order to point out the differences;

3. Giving prominence to the primordial importance of the oral aspect of every language ("language is speech");
4. Communication is the essential function of language;
5. The utilization of a language is a matter of interest to every individual.

Each of these five points finds its application in the audio-visual method.

Referring to the psychological foundation Girard emphasizes the help psychology offers to linguistics. It helps:

- to describe the phenomenon of linguistic communication
- to describe the process of learning: the mother tongue  
the second language.

"Traditional" pedagogy of living languages (Direct Method) does not pay enough attention to psychological investigation.

"Modern" pedagogy (either audio-visual or not) pays the greatest attention to these facts, its only aim being to *facilitate* by all possible means the processes of teaching any language, and especially a foreign one.

Audio-visual pedagogy provides this conception with a technique that makes the attainment of its declared aims easier and less open to error.

After he has presented the fundamental principles of the audio-visual methodology, Girard attempts to describe the place of the audio-visual methods in teaching. They must play an essential part on the level of beginners (the first two years of secondary teaching, or the first 250 hours). Then, gradually, one must get rid of the constraints of the audio-visual technique.

Girard concludes his paper by saying that there is no contradiction between the most noble goals of traditional secondary teaching, which aims at the knowledge of the culture of the country, or the countries, whose language one studies, and those the audio-visual pedagogy considers as its goal. If these goals appear at first practical, it is because everything is conditioned by the correct handling of the instrument of communication, which is language.

In addition to plenary sessions the Congress worked in sections. There were six sections, each dealing with one particular aspect of modern language teaching. Work in every section was introduced by a main section paper. There were also shorter papers in every section which tried to cover all the stumbling blocks in the work of practical teaching.

In *Section 1* Ivo Škarić (from Zagreb) discussed *The Structure of the Linguistic Situation in Language Learning*. In the structure of a linguistic situation a language appears as a substructure. The essential elements of the linguistic situation are as follows: the language-code, the message, the context (linguistic, psychological, real), the psychological qualities of the speaker and of the listener, the transmission channels of the signals and the sound in the channel. Each of these factors conditions the existence of the linguistic situation viewed as a unit and a change in any of these elements results in the change of all the other elements.

At the beginning of the learning process the linguistic situation is close to an amorphous structure, or more exactly, to a linguistic non-structure; it begins to take form progressively during the learning process. The non-structured linguistic situation is the structure of human communication without symbols. It is based on human ability to perceive sounds, voices and movements; its signals are the cry, the rhythm, the intonation, the gesture, the mimicry, and the real context; it requires an improvement of the conditions in the channels, a fuller perception

(auditive and psychophonetic), a prolonged time, more organized situations (more banal ones), a higher degree of exactness of supposition about the state of the source, the target and the channels.

The learning process can be considered as terminated at the moment when the structure of the linguistic situation in the new language is organized so as to permit normal communication of information in a time unit. But even at that level the structure of human communication without symbols does not disappear completely; it remains in a reduced form as an accompaniment and support of the linguistic structure, and can always resume its form and role of a disorganized linguistic structure (above all in affective expression). Consequently, in the learning process, as in normal communication, we discover a structure consisting of two substructures: (1) a structure of the linguistic situation, (2) a structure of non-linguistic human communication. They complement and oppose each other, and at the same time condition and tolerate each other.

If we are aware of all these structural relations in the learning process we shall be able to deal more easily with the natural forces we have to face in our work.

In *Section 2* Evgenij Novičkov (from Bucharest) discussed *Psycho-Pedagogical Questions of Lexical Programming*.

Parallel with research in the field of programming, a great deal of attention has been paid to teaching in language laboratories. There are cases when the language teaching techniques in these laboratories come very close to programming itself, but there are differences in principle between the two.

While those working in language laboratories are primarily concerned with the development of articulation habits and models of structure, the classical programmers are concerned with lexical and structural models.

The paper deals with psycho-pedagogical questions of lexical programming, based on an analysis of the process of vocabulary learning, which is seen as a process of memorizing and reproduction. Memory and everything connected with it has been the object of intensive study since the end of the 19th century, which has led to the discovery of a whole series of rules governing it.

The material used in these investigations was either linguistic or non-linguistic, either meaningful or meaningless (numbers, syllables, figures, words, etc.). In other words, the learner's memory was confronted with either the kind of material already forming part of his experience or the kind that made no sense to him.

In the actual learning of a foreign language the situation is different: it consists in the acquisition of linguistic material which does not yet form part of the learner's experience. Moreover, the learner is required to absorb both the graphic and/or auditive form of the word in question, as well as its meaning. A foreign word can only be said to have been learned fully when all these three elements have been mastered. One can therefore formulate a hypothesis to the effect that, in developing a programme of vocabulary learning the established rules of memorization (or perhaps some of them) will have to be modified in accordance with the specific features of the material taught.

In *Section 3* Dr. John Macnamara (from Dublin) examined *Some Psychological Aspects of Reading in a Second Language*. Reading weaknesses in a second language are generally ascribed to inadequate knowledge of vocabulary and syntax. The present paper indicates that there are other weaknesses besides which have hitherto passed unnoticed. It is hoped that the analysis of such weaknesses will contribute not only to a better understanding of the reading process, but ultimately to helping

the ever increasing number of students who follow courses in their second language.

A total of 72 French-English bilinguals in Montreal were given a variety of reading tests in each of their languages. The tests were based on 18 familiar nouns and on very simple syntactic structures. Time measures were obtained for each S in each of his languages in the following aspects of reading: (1) perception of words; (2) determining the meaning of words; (3) determining the meaning of sentences of a variety of syntactic structures; (4) silent reading of text; (5) silent reading of scrambled passage; (6) reading of text aloud; (7) reading of scrambled passage aloud.

Statistical analysis revealed that Ss performed significantly better in their stronger language when determining the meaning of individual words and the meaning of sentences. They also pronounced more rapidly, individual words in their native language, and made better use of the transition probabilities. Otherwise the tests revealed no significant differences between performances in the two languages. Some implications are drawn from the findings, and some suggestions made for further research.

In the same section Prof. Derrick Plant (from Trieste) dealt with *Problems of Linguistic Interference in the Education of Bilingual Children*. The children considered in this paper belong to the type known as »home-school« bilinguals. The problems they encounter in learning the languages they must use are often the same as those of monolinguals, multiplied, as it were, by two. In addition, however, they are plagued with problems of interference, especially of the school language with that of the home. This interference concerns above all vocabulary, to a somewhat lesser extent morphology and syntax, and least of all pronunciation.

The remedy lies principally in (1) intensive correction within the family, along the lines employed (often quite unconsciously) by the parents of monolinguals, (ways of preparing parents for this task are discussed); (2) by rigorous exclusion of the school language from the home environment and vice versa; (3) by specially programmed language courses in schools, prepared by experts in both the languages concerned.

In *Section 4* Maurice Antier (from Paris) discussed an interesting question; literature and civilization in foreign language teaching. In his paper *Literature and Civilization: Progression* Antier states that the problem in question is exclusively pedagogic, closely connected with the methods and means used, as well as with the exercises done. Literature is nothing but an aspect of civilization, but it is a privileged aspect for those whose job is teaching a language.

It is possible to distinguish at least three aspects in the choice that presents itself:

- the facts to be taught,
- the intellectual level of the pupil,
- the social, political, religious, moral etc. context no matter what the total duration of the studies, or the level that one places oneself at in the chronological progression.

The choices open to the teacher are limited by the objective conditions of teaching (time-table, programme, text-books). A few examples for the teaching of French and English are given.

Magistral teaching of literature and civilization is becoming less and less conceivable, no matter what the level is. The contribution of modern linguistics, and especially of structuralism, makes it possible to renew the traditional explication of texts, according to the knowledge acquired by the pupils of their needs at successive stages of their learning a foreign language.

We are neither professors of human studies nor professors of literature, but we do not teach only a code. We can surmount this dilemma by means of sociology and linguistics.

In *Section 5*, dealing with technical language in secondary and adult education Prof. Irmgard Schilling (from Berlin) in her paper *Foreign Language Teaching at Universities* refers to problems of specialized language training at Universities in the German Democratic Republic.

Under the conditions of international communication in the twentieth century the objectives of economy, science, engineering and culture can only be fully realized with an adequate command of foreign languages. It is for this reason that more than 15 years ago high schools and universities in the German Democratic Republic introduced the so called technical language training (i. e. specialized language teaching) of Russian, English, French and German for foreigners, for students of all faculties. During the past years it has acquired definite contours both in content and form.

One of the basic experiences in this field of teaching has been the realization that the manifold methodological tasks can be fulfilled only to a limited extent if teaching remains at the level of fixed textbooks. Once the realm of school teaching (in which elementary knowledge of Russian and English is given) has been passed other principles must be adopted, for example a division of the material into parts that can be combined like a mosaic (variety of lexis; a uniformly conceived theoretical part beginning with simple structures and gradually progressing to more complicated ones; intensification by means of passages for independent work with the help of tape-recorders, and the like).

In this professionally orientated foreign language teaching, technical terms are an essential part of the scientific and technical vocabulary. In them lexical and syntactical phenomena are blended in a specific way. Therefore, besides understanding the scientific content, students must be taught the principles of typical term-formation. All research work in this field of teaching must lead in this direction, including a study of the relationship between everyday language and the language of science.

In *Section 6* dealing with contrastive linguistics and its pedagogical implications Dr. James E. Alatis surveyed the work done in this relatively new field of applied linguistics.

Although the pedagogical value of dialinguistic, or contrastive, analysis has been recognized for some time, relatively few substantial studies have been published. In the United States, one of the first practical presentations of the techniques of systematic linguistic-cultural comparisons was Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*, Ann Arbor, 1957. In the summer of 1959 the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D. C. undertook a series of contrastive structure studies designed to describe the similarities and differences between English and each of the five foreign languages most commonly taught in the United States: French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. Each of the five languages was to be represented by two volumes in the series, one on the sound systems and the other on the grammatical systems of English and the language in question. To date only the volumes for German, Italian, and Spanish have appeared. Three by-products of the project have also appeared. One, *Linguistic Reading Lists for Teaching of Modern Languages* (Washington, D. C., 1962) contains a carefully selected list of works which linguist would recommend to the teacher of French, German, Italian, Russian, or Spanish. The other two, W. W. Gage's *Contrastive Studies in Linguistics* (Washington, D. C., 1961) and Hammer and Rice's *Bibliography of Contrastive Linguistics* (Washington, D. C. 1965.), consist of an unannotated listing of all contrastive studies which had come to the attention of the Center, the

former by the summer of 1961 and the latter by the beginning of 1965.

Recently, however, the pedagogical value of dialinguistic, or contrastive, analysis has been challenged by linguists, notably of the generative-transformational persuasion, by psycholinguists, and by methodologists. In order to re-appraise the current status of contrastive studies in relation to pedagogy, therefore, the 19th Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies held at Georgetown University was confined exclusively to discussions on this subject.

Dr. Alatis reported on the conference and its conclusions and paid additional attention to dialinguistic research currently in progress in the United States.

The main characteristic of the work of the Congress was a great number of papers and interesting and constructive discussions. Each section summarized its work in conclusions and made recommendations for future work of the Federation (FIPLV) and its Executive Committee. Two sections particularly produced many papers: *Section 1* and *Section 4*. This fact reflects the two main interests of the majority of the participants: Audio-Visual Aids in modern teaching and the place of literature and civilization in modern language teaching.

*Section 1* had three subsections: a) *Audio-Visual Aids*; b) *Radio and Television*; c) *A—V Courses*. Each of them made its own recommendations. *Subsection A* discussed the use of the laboratory as a central problem and made the following recommendations:

“La section recommande de réunir les moyens financiers et le personnel dans un centre international qui pourrait étudier l'amélioration des méthodes et trouver des conditions optimales d'emploi des moyens techniques dans l'enseignement.

Les exposés ont présenté les résultats des recherches en différents pays ainsi que les résultats des recherches individuelles très intéressantes provenant des Pays-Bas, de la Suède, de l'Allemagne Fédérale, de la Yougoslavie etc.

Le fait est que le laboratoire linguistique ne peut pas être utilisé pour une correction phonétique primaire efficace; il est également vrai que le laboratoire de langues ne peut être qu'un moyen pour le professeur. Pourtant, après le premier degré du cours, quand la perception est élaborée, le laboratoire est un moyen excellent pour la mémorisation et l'automatisation du vocabulaire et de la grammaire ainsi que pour l'auto-contrôle de l'élève”.

*Subsection B* after having examined the possibilities of using Radio and Television in modern language teaching concluded:

“Il est nécessaire, d'un côté, que les auteurs des cours radio-phoniques télévisés et télévisifs soient en contact avec leur élèves spectateurs pour mieux suivre le destin et le succès des cours et, de l'autre côté, que les auteurs des cours en différentes langues et provenant de différents pays aient la possibilité d'échanger leurs opinions afin de profiter réciproquement de leurs expériences”.

*Subsection C* examined a number of A—V courses and their use in classes and came to the following conclusion:

Il serait désirable de pouvoir introduire cette forme d'enseignement, appliquée jusqu'ici surtout dans le domaine extra-scolaire et péri- ou para-scolaire, d'une manière plus intense aussi dans l'enseignement scolaire, ceci à un âge où les habitudes linguistiques des élèves ne créent pas encore une barrière trop résistante à l'introduction d'une deuxième langue”.

The papers read in *Section 2* were in agreement that programmed instruction is a fairly new discipline, still in a state of flux, and despite all the results achieved so far, with many questions yet to be answered. They point out that different groups of workers in different research centres direct their efforts in different directions without co-ordination; frequently they are not aware of each other's existence even though they may be working on the same or similar problems, with the same objectives in mind. The results already achieved point to the need for an early introduction of programmed instruction into schools. For only in this way can optimum results be achieved in learning, especially if this is combined with the use of audio-visual aids.

This section made the following recommendations:

1. A committee for programmed instruction should be set up within the FIPLV.

2. The committee should enable different working centres and groups to establish contact with each other.

3. The committee should set up an information service unit and try to co-ordinate the activities of different groups and centres.

*Section 3* recommends for further discussion and research the following subjects: 1. How much, if at all, is a child handicapped intellectually if he is exposed in school to instruction in two languages? 2. Does study in school through the medium of two languages negatively or positively affect the pupil's personality? 3. It is recommended that a small international colloquium or seminar be organized to deal solely with the problem of teaching special school subjects in a foreign language in schools with a special foreign language bias.

*Section 4* recommends that the study of civilization shall, from the beginning, be as closely as possible associated with the teaching of foreign languages; the teaching of literature shall in no way interfere with the teaching of language proper; there shall be a committee of textbook experts attached to every National Association of Modern Language Teachers. It shall be the task of this committee to examine textbooks in current use in the foreign countries. Seminars in civilization shall be arranged by FIPLV on the basis of the above reports, involving textbook authors, teachers, and other specialists, if possible in close cooperation with local or national education authorities, in order to reach the utmost degree of impartiality in the presentation of a foreign culture through language study.

*Section 5* states that one of the unsolved problems is the disproportion existing at University level between traditional academic teaching and instruction in the practical application of linguistic knowledge. The section recommended that:

1. National Associations, members of FIPLV, should bring to the notice of those concerned, that the provision of training facilities for practical linguists with a background in various technical fields is of no less importance than the training of language teachers and scientific linguists.

2. Linguists should turn their attention, not only to general language problems, but also to those of technical language.

3. A special committee of FIPLV should be formed to co-ordinate the exchange of material on an international level, to review and annotate material, to publish documentation and to take the initiative in co-ordinating work on the publication of multilingual technical glossaries.

*Section 6* made the following recommendations:

Despite the pluralistic state of contemporary linguistic theory, research based on the analytical comparison of the target language and the learner's mother tongue can be extremely valuable as a basis for preparing material and techniques for the more efficient and economic

teaching of a foreign language, and such research should be encouraged and expanded.

Contrastive analyses should not be limited to major world languages, but such analyses should be produced for other languages, whenever any substantial inter-language learning exists. Individual countries should be encouraged to promote the contrastive analyses of their home languages with major world languages.

With regard to language-teaching courses, comparative analysis should be considered just one of the various pedagogical ingredients.

FIPLV should explore the possibility of an international symposium on theoretical and applied contrastive analysis, to be organized in the near future and the results published for world-wide dissemination.

The FIPLV Zagreb Congress with more than 900 participants and more than 100 papers covered a large field of interest to all language instructors on all levels dealing with main world languages. The papers read there, the discussions, the conclusions and recommendations of Sections, prove that such a Congress is an important gathering of teachers of foreign languages.

(R. F.)

## Lo studio dell'italiano alla Facoltà di Lettere dell'Università di Zagabria

L'insegnamento universitario di una lingua straniera si svolge, com'è noto, su due piani distinti: uno pratico e uno scientifico. Generalmente l'introduzione dell'insegnamento pratico precede in ordine di tempo l'organizzazione dello studio scientifico, il che è avvenuto anche nel nostro caso. Infatti, alla Facoltà di Lettere di Zagabria (Zagreb) l'insegnamento pratico dell'italiano fu istituito fin dal 1890/91, e precisamente nel semestre estivo di quell'anno accademico, a sedici anni dalla fondazione della Facoltà stessa, avvenuta nel 1874. Prima dell'italiano era già stato introdotto l'insegnamento del tedesco (1876), del russo (1878), dell'ungherese (1880), del francese (1883) e del ceco (1886), mentre che l'inglese fu introdotto più tardi, e precisamente nel 1898.

Primo lettore d'italiano, col titolo di «maestro di lingue», fu Alojzije (Luigi) Manzoni, professore nel Liceo arcivescovile di Zagabria. Egli per quasi vent'anni tenne alla Facoltà di Lettere corsi di lingua italiana di tre ore settimanali: due di grammatica e un'ora di lettura e commento di opere letterarie.<sup>1</sup> Il semestre invernale era dedicato a un corso inferiore (I parte della grammatica) mentre nel semestre estivo il lettore teneva un corso superiore (seconda parte della grammatica). Non sappiamo quale fosse il testo adottato per questi corsi di lingua, ma possiamo presupporre che si trattasse dell'adattamento croato della «Italienische Sprachlehre» di Adolfo Mussafia. Infatti, l'edizione croata di questo ottimo manuale per lo studio dell'italiano era uscita in prima edizione a Zagabria ancora nel 1877<sup>2</sup> e fu in seguito più volte ristampata.<sup>3</sup> Tuttavia a quell'epoca altri testi per lo studio dell'italiano stavano a disposizione degli interessati di

<sup>1</sup> Nell'anno accademico 1895/96 il lettore Manzoni non tenne lezioni trovandosi in permesso.

<sup>2</sup> Dra Adolfa Mussafia, *Talijanska slovnica za početnike*. Po devetom nje-mačkom izdanju priredio I. Krst. Svrliuga. Zagreb, 1877-78.

<sup>3</sup> Le edizioni che qui maggiormente ci interessano sono: la terza del 1886, la quarta del 1892 e la quinta del 1898.

madrelingua croata.<sup>4</sup> D'altra parte non è escluso che il lettore Manzoni nelle sue lezioni si sia servito di qualche grammatica unilingue stampata in Italia. L'ora destinata alla lettura e all'interpretazione di testi venne dedicata il primo anno a Dante (*Inf.*, c. III—V). Negli anni successivi il lettore interpretò opere del Manzoni, del Tasso e di un autore minore, Antonio Conti.<sup>5</sup>

Nel 1910 finisce l'attività del lettore A. Manzoni e dopo un anno d'interruzione l'insegnamento dell'italiano viene ripreso nel 1911/12 dal «maestro di lingua italiana» Bartol Poparić, professore di liceo, autore egli stesso di un buon manuale per lo studio della lingua insegnata.<sup>6</sup>

L'attività pedagogica di B. Poparić si protrasse fino al 1934. Oltre a due ore settimanali di insegnamento pratico della lingua italiana, anch'egli, come già il suo predecessore, tenne in tutti questi anni un'ora settimanale di lettura e commento di scrittori (Manzoni e altri ottocentisti, Parini, Petrarca, Dante).

Ma passiamo all'aspetto più importante degli studi italianistici alla Facoltà di Lettere di Zagabria: l'insegnamento scientifico della lingua e della letteratura italiana. Come data iniziale di questo insegnamento può essere considerato l'anno 1913 in cui l'allora libero docente dott. Pietro Skok iniziò un corso di grammatica storica delle lingue romanze, italiano compreso. Una data importante a questo riguardo è il 1919, anno in cui viene fondata alla Facoltà di Lettere la Cattedra di Filologia romanza che viene affidata a Petar Skok. Da quell'anno in poi gli studi romanzi prendono a Zagabria uno sviluppo sempre crescente. Il professor Skok dedica un corso speciale alla grammatica storica dell'italiano e tiene nel semestre estivo dell'anno 1919/20 un corso introduttivo allo studio di Dante. Qualche anno più tardi si occuperà anche dell'Ariosto.

Tuttavia, l'impulso decisivo agli studi italianistici nella Facoltà di Lettere di Zagabria si ebbe a cominciare dal 1927, con la nomina di Mirko Deanović, dapprima a lettore, e la contemporanea istituzione del pro-seminario d'italiano con una propria biblioteca. M. Deanović dà inizio subito a corsi regolari di letteratura italiana partendo dal periodo del Risorgimento e passando poi al Pascoli e al Verga. Dopo un periodo di specializzazione trascorso in Italia (anni 1928/29) M. Deanović riprende il suo insegnamento nel semestre invernale dell'anno accademico 1929/30 con un corso sul D'Annunzio e quattro ore dedicate a letture e commento di autori dell'Ottocento. Nominato docente (1930), M. Deanović continua con i suoi corsi di letteratura e inizia in quegli anni un interessante esperimento inteso a insegnare l'italiano partendo da fondamenti latini. Parallelamente a questi corsi, il lettore Poparić, da parte sua, teneva sempre corsi pratici di lingua italiana, aperti anche a studenti di altri gruppi di studio. L'insegnamento della grammatica storica italiana era affidato ancora sempre al prof. P. Skok nell'ambito dei corsi di filologia romanza da lui tenuti.

Con la nomina di M. Deanović a professore straordinario presso la Cattedra di filologia romanza, con speciale riguardo alla lingua e letteratura italiana (1934), gli studi italianistici alla Facoltà di Lettere di Zagabria prendono sviluppi nuovi e importanti. Per due anni consecutivi M. Deanović tiene un corso di grammatica comparata delle lingue romanze su basi storiche. Negli anni successivi egli concentrerà il suo insegnamento storico in campo linguistico all'italiano e ai suoi dialetti dando inizio, nel 1935, anche a un corso sistematico di letteratura italiana,

<sup>4</sup> *Nova slovnica talijanska*, Mostar, 1874<sup>1</sup>, 1877<sup>2</sup>; Antun Vučetić, *Razgovorna slovnica talijanska*, Dubrovnik, 1880; L. C. Pavissich, *Guida alla conversazione italiana e illirica (serbo-croata)*, Zara, 1875; e, in seguito: Josip Kobenzl, *Talijanska palestra ili teoretično-praktična slovnica talijanskog jezika*, Dubrovnik, 1897.

<sup>5</sup> V. gli Annuari della Facoltà di Lettere di Zagabria: *Akademijske oblasti i red predavanja Filozofskog fakulteta u Zagrebu za školsku godinu 1890/91* e segg.

<sup>6</sup> Bare Poparić, *Slovnica i vježbenica talijanskog jezika za srednja, pomorska i trgovačka učilišta*, Zagreb, 1912, pp. VIII + 284.

dagli inizi al secolo XX, corso che egli svilupperà poi in cicli della durata media di dieci anni ciascuno. Va rilevato il costante impegno del prof. Deanović di collegare l'insegnamento della letteratura italiana con riferimenti continui alle risonanze che essa ebbe nella letteratura croata e degli altri popoli iugoslavi: campo di studi in cui egli è specialista e maestro indiscusso e in cui ha pubblicato una serie di saggi del massimo interesse scientifico e culturale in genere.

Nel semestre estivo del 1938 inizia la sua attività d'insegnante il dott. Paolo Mix, primo lettore venuto a Zagabria dall'Italia in base ad accordi culturali. I suoi suggestivi insegnamenti letterari e linguistici lasceranno tracce indelebili. Nella sua quinquennale attività, oltre a corsi dedicati a Pirandello, ai Crepuscolari, al Carducci, al Pascoli e infine al Vico, egli diresse anche corsi pratici di lingua applicando un originale ed efficace metodo diretto d'insegnamento.<sup>7</sup>

Il 1940 segna un'altra data importante in quanto in quell'anno la Cattedra di lingua e letteratura italiana viene organizzata come cattedra autonoma, con un seminario autonomo, tutto sotto la direzione di M. Deanović che in quell'anno viene nominato professore ordinario. Il numero degli studenti iscritti aumenta rapidamente e tocca la cifra di 200, conseguenza anche della specifica, contingente situazione internazionale. Seguendo l'ordinamento degli studi in uso da queste parti, gli studenti prendono l'italiano sia come prima materia di studio (4 anni), sia come seconda materia (3 anni). Nei primi anni del conflitto mondiale vengono istituiti altri due posti di lettore, affidati al dott. Giovanni Ponti e al dott. Eros Sequi. La forzata assenza del prof. Deanović dalla fine del 1941 all'inizio del 1942 provoca un momento di crisi nella vita della nuova cattedra. Questa crisi viene superata col reinsediamento del prof. Deanović al posto di prima. Nella primavera del 1942 Josip Jernej viene nominato assistente alla Cattedra d'italiano. Con la nomina del dott. Mix a professore onorario, il dott. Alfredo Grillo subentra al posto di lettore, rimasto libero. Verso la fine della seconda guerra diminuisce rapidamente il numero degli iscritti ai corsi d'italiano. Tuttavia, anche questa crisi sarà superata con la fine del conflitto mondiale. (*Continua*).

(J. J.)

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<sup>7</sup> Paolo Mix, *Breve corso di lingua italiana ad uso degli stranieri*, Firenze, 1937. — Come aggiunta funzionale a questo testo J. Jernej pubblicò nel 1940 un commento con vocabolario ed esercizi dal titolo *Tumač talijanskoj gramatici P. Mix-a*.