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ABSTRACT

The notion of language training for volunteer services, as contrasted with conventional language instruction in the classroom, is explored in this statement of educational philosophy, goals, and guidelines. The major sections focus on: (1) scope of teacher training programs, (2) curriculum of the language teachers' training workshop, (3) major concepts in language training, including teacher training and testing, and (4) language teaching simulation in working groups. Extensive information is found in the appendixes. Sections cover: (1) schedule of the Furudal training program, (2) list of participants, (3) message to the participants by the Secretary General of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, (4) list of language training materials and technical papers presented at the workshop, (5) the St. Cloud Method, (6) situationally reinforced instruction, (7) intensive language training, (8) teachers' training format, (9) language proficiency testing, (10) fascicles on developing materials for language learning (flexible frame, microwave, microtexts, modular approach, and "routine manipulations"), and (11) report of the working group. (FL)

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Report

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LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING WORKSHOP

June 15th - 29th, 1969, Furudal, Sweden

by
Mr. Allan Kulakow
and Dr. Earl Stevick

INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAT FOR VOLUNTEER SERVICE

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The Furudal Statement represents a consensus of the participants of the ISVS Language Teachers' Training Workshop as to the philosophy, goals and guidelines for language training and trainers for volunteer service organizations. The Statement was drafted by Dr. Earl Stevick, Foreign Service Institute, U.S. Department of State, and Mr. Lennart Öhnell, Language Director, Swedish International Development Authority, at the conclusion of the Workshop, June 28, 1969, in Furudal, Sweden.

THE FURUDAL STATEMENT

(Dr. Earl W. Stevick and Mr. Lennart Öhnell)

Language training for volunteer services differs strikingly from conventional academic language instruction, both in the personnel involved and in the principles which govern it.

Personnel

In conventional instruction, people are of three kinds: textbook writers, teachers and students. A writer has face-to-face contact with few of the teachers who use his book, and with almost none of the students. The teacher sees the writer only on rare occasions, and the students only in class.

In training for volunteer services, these relationships are transformed. The writer is often in close and frequent contact with the teachers who are using his product, and in fact may be on of them. The teacher must be ready to interact with the students not only in the classroom but also in the living quarters, on the sports field, and in the workshop. His role therefore calls for a total commitment of time, energy and personality which is unlike anything required in the usual academic setting.

At the center of this network of human relationships stands a new figure, who in former times did not even exist: the director of language training. This person must of course understand something of the structure of the native and target languages, and he should be a skilled practitioner of language instruction, but his primary role is neither linguist nor teacher. In fact, a mere linguist or a mere pedagogue will fail as a director of language training. His most essential skills are in personal relations and group dynamics.

Principles

The principles which govern language training for volunteer services are two in number.

Leadership

The first principle is that the director of language training must know his own mind. Whatever method he believes in, he must inspire the confidence both of the teaching staff and of the students. Any teacher who feels that he cannot wholeheartedly support the director should not continue as a member of the training team. The value of clear leadership is

recognized in most social undertakings. It is especially important in our work, however, because the programs are so short and intensive, and because success in language learning is so vital to the further progress of volunteers.

Building Self-sufficiency

The second principle is that the skills and attitudes of self-sufficiency in language learning are an essential goal in the training of any volunteer. This is especially true in the study of the less widely spoken languages, where end-of-training proficiency is likely to be relatively low. The importance of self-sufficiency becomes most obvious after the volunteer has arrived in the host country, where his ability to continue learning the language without the support of conventional textbooks and trained teachers may prove to be as crucial as the actual level of language proficiency with which he entered the country.

(a) Attitudes of self-sufficiency.

If the trainees are to develop attitudes of self-sufficiency, they must have some experience of making their own decisions and living with the results. This does not mean that they should be required or allowed to plan their entire language program. It does mean that after they have become familiar with the materials and procedures used by the staff, they should have a voice in selecting among them, emphasizing some and de-emphasizing others. It also means that before the end of the course they should have opportunities to devise and try out some of their own materials and procedures, using the training staff as resource persons. The extent to which this kind of responsibility can be transferred to the students will in part reflect the skill with which the staff has conducted the first part of the program.

(b) Skills of self-sufficiency.

We can teach trainees some of the skills of self-sufficiency if we select 5 or 6 simple formats which they come to understand thoroughly, into which they can adapt existing materials, and within which they can when necessary originate their own simple materials with the help of non-professional language teachers.

The relationship between language study and the total training program.

Language training as a whole should center, not on the language itself, but on the role that the volunteers will be expected to play, both professionally and socially, in the host country. On a smaller scale, it may focus on a series of 'tasks' which the trainee tries to accomplish with speakers of the language. Relevance of materials is therefore more

urgent than in conventional instruction. Teaching staffs will do more adapting of books that already exist, and they are more likely to originate materials of their own, under the supervision of the director of language training.

Finally, relevant materials and role-centered instruction are possible only to the extent that the training staff has a clear idea of just what demands will be placed on the volunteers in the host country. A statement of these demands may be called a 'target profile'. Satisfactory 'target profiles' are impossible without proper, scientific observation and study, in the host country, of the ways in which the four basic skills of hearing, speaking, reading and writing are necessary for successful performance. This observation and study must furthermore be kept up to date.

The goal of language training is then to prepare competent, self-sufficient volunteers who fit the appropriate target profiles. To this enterprise each member of the training staff commits his skill, his peace of mind, and a portion of his life. The volunteer invests even more. It is, however, the receiving country that has most at stake. The sending organizations have therefore the solemn responsibility to provide adequate financial and administrative support for training and to be sure that each volunteer arrives fully qualified to assume his responsibilities in the host country.

1. SCOPE OF THE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING PROGRAMS

1.1 Goals

1.1.1 The original goals of the language teachers' training workshop were:

- a) Primarily to assist language teachers of volunteer service organizations through an intensive practical training program in improving language instruction and in programming language training in the total volunteer training format;
- b) To share information and experience in language training for overseas volunteers and to define needs for improving language instruction; to provide information about new methods, materials, and resources for language training for intensive short-term training;
- c) To examine the problems of self-study, continued language study overseas, in-country language training, and international cooperation in teacher training, literacy training, and the development of host country language resources.

1.1.2 At the end of the first week, the participants of the workshop produced a new and supplementary statement of goals:

- a) For what 'target profiles' are trainees to be prepared?
- b) How can aptitude be ascertained quickly and reliably?
- c) What kinds of material exist or can be devised? To what extent should materials be job-oriented?
- d) What methods are appropriate for these materials?
- e) How can teachers be trained in a short time to use these materials and these methods effectively?
- f) What is the role of the director of language training?
- g) How can audio and visual devices, including the language laboratory, be used efficiently?
- h) How can these methods and materials be used in pre-training courses, at training sites both at home and in host countries, and in subsequent post-training improvement?
- i) How can language proficiency be measured quickly and reliably?
- j) How can adequate feedback be obtained so that present and future programs may benefit by the experience of past ones?
- k) Within this Furudal Workshop:
 1. desire for 'brains trust' panel,
 2. concern for evaluating this workshop,
 3. need to draw up resolutions.

1.2 Participants

(See List in Appendix No. 2)

The members of the Ad Hoc Commission on training suggested that a language teachers' program for all language teachers of volunteer sending organizations would be appropriate, since most of the organizations have no separate planning staffs for language training programs - each teacher is in charge of planning and teaching in his or her respective language. Therefore, the following alternatives were suggested for participation:

- a) As many language teachers as possible of volunteer sending organizations, selected by their organization;

- b) Designated representative language teachers of the sending organizations;

The following organizations sent participants to the workshop:

Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst	(Germany)
Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers	(Netherlands)
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Division of International Cooperation	(Israel)
Norwegian Agency for International Development	(Norway)
Swedish International Development Authority	(Sweden)
Experiment in International Living	(U.S.A. non-governmental)
Institute of Modern Languages	(U.S.A. non-governmental)

All participants had experience with the problems of language training of volunteers, preparing them for their overseas assignments. The language teachers' needs were especially expressed while discussing the "bottlenecks" of language training (see Section 3.). The educational background of the participants varied, and not all of them had had previous training in teaching a foreign language. Most significant with all participants was their high motivation, their personal involvement in volunteer service, and their devotion to the task of providing an efficient language training program for volunteers.

1.3 Training Team

The composition of the training team was in response to the training needs expressed by the various volunteer sending organizations prior to the workshop. The full-time Workshop training team represented experts experienced in short-term intensive language training for volunteer service organizations and consisted of Dr. Earl Stevick, Professor of Linguistics, Foreign Service Institute, Washington, D. C.; Mr. Lennart Önnell, Language Director, Swedish International Development Authority; Mr. Allan M. Kulakow, Language Consultant to iSVS and formerly Language Director, U. S. Peace Corps; and Dr. John Rassias, Professor of Romance Languages, Language Director for Dartmouth College Peace Corps Training Center.

In addition, participants acted as trainers in their respective field of experience (see Section 3.).

2. THE CURRICULUM OF THE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING WORKSHOP

2.1 Methods

- 2.1.1 All activities provided for maximum involvement of and contributions by the participants. The participants expressed their needs for and expectations from the Workshop. Their responses are included verbatim in the Appendix.
- 2.1.2 Presentation of specific topics was oriented toward practice rather than theory.
- 2.1.3 The methods and the trainers were chosen in response to suggestions from the training directors of the member organizations.
- 2.1.4 A Steering Committee was to have been elected, but because of the small number of participants, the entire group voted to serve in this capacity. The Steering Committee also agreed to the following procedures:
- a) The whole group is the planning and evaluation committee.
 - b) The Training Team and observers and visitors are included in the group.
 - c) Each meeting should 1) restate the aims of the workshop, 2) evaluate the day's work, 3) give useful critical feedback information to the Training Team, 4) plan the next day's activities.
 - d) The topics for group work must be clearly defined.
 - e) Chairmen must keep discussions to the point.

2.2 Content

To prepare a training program which would meet the needs of the participants, an inquiry was sent to the volunteer organizations to provide the necessary inputs to design the curriculum. The language teachers participated largely by contributing to various training sections. Topics of training were: (Also see Appendix No. 1.)

- 1) "Disposable Language: Practice for Participants" to provide a shared language learning experience and a starting point for discussions on questions of what is language, what is language learning, what is adequate pedagogy for foreign language learning, what are the requirements and goals for foreign language proficiency in volunteer service organizations.

- 2) "Assumptions and Hypotheses on Effective Language Learning": Participants drafted assumptions on the basis of earlier language learning experiences for the consideration of methods, preparation for, and programming and management of language training programs for volunteer service organizations. Dr. Earl Stevick discussed significant hypotheses on effective language learning as related to the assumptions of the participants.
- 3) "Bottlenecks in Language Training for Volunteer Service Organizations": Participants described the problems in programming and managing effective language training in their respective volunteer organizations.
- 4) "Language Teaching Methodologies": Demonstration and discussion of methodologies currently used in oral language training; audio-lingual (dialogues, pattern drills), audio-visual (St. Cloud), Programmed Self-Instruction (U.S.A., Switzerland), Microwave (U.S.A.), Situationally Reinforced Instruction (U.S.A.).
- 5) "Immersion Language Training Principles and Techniques and Integration of Language Training into a Cross-Cultural Context": Presentation and discussions on the development of a training format in which all activity is carried out in the target language; incorporating cross-cultural training principles, adapting existing methods to the immersion environment, and integrating other training components with language training.
- 6) "Work with the Disposable Language": Practical participation in learning a foreign language; an opportunity to test whatever hypotheses may have grown out of the first week, providing a basis for discussion of practical language training problems.
- 7) "In-country Language Training and the Development of Host-Country Resources": Experiences in pre-service training partially or totally in-country: successes, problems, failures, potential; the need for the development of indigenous language training resources and the possibilities for their development, etc.
- 8) "Continued Language Study on the Job": Problems and possibilities for continued language study once the volunteer arrives at his place of assignment; what possibilities are there for successful language training in the field; how can the volunteer work effectively with unskilled language tutors; what kinds of language programs are available?
- 9) "Materials and Resources": Language training materials were available, and were exhibited and demonstrated. Questions considered included how to deal with the problem of adapting American materials; how to

prepare materials for specific training programs; use of audio-visual aids; and possibilities for international cooperation in material development.

- 10) "Testing and Measurement": Discussion of the need for measurement of language learning aptitude, achievement in training, and language speaking proficiency. What tests are available? What are the problems of the Modern Language Aptitude Test? What are the possibilities and limitations of the FSI oral proficiency testing and rating system?
- 11) "Language Teacher Training": Teacher training formats for volunteer service organizations: how this differs from other training programs; introduction of new techniques in brief training sessions; preparation for training volunteers in contrast to students; preparation for integrating language training into the total volunteer training program, etc.
- 12) "Planning, Programming, and Management of Language Training": The preparations for language training programs: organizational flowchart; teacher hiring, teacher training, materials, development of instructional program, class scheduling, testing, preparation and planning for change during training program.
- 13) "International Cooperation in Language Training for Volunteer Service Organizations": Discussions of the possibilities, problems, and needs for international cooperation in information on language training, pedagogical developments, in-country language training, pre-service and on the job training; materials and expertise; pooling of resources, etc.

The major training topics are described in Chapter 4 and the actual training program is described in Appendix 1.

2.3 Materials

2.3.1 Informational preparation materials were distributed to participants prior to the workshop in order to provide a common basis for the two week teacher training and to stimulate interest in certain problem areas. The following material was provided:

- a) Summary of John Carroll's "A Parametric Study of Language Training in the Peace Corps, June, 1968.
- b) Diagram of Export Volunteer Service Training Programs, ISVS, June, 1969.
- c) Developing Materials for Language Learning, Dr. Earl Stevick, FSI. "Working Assumptions and the Modular Approach": "Microwave", "Microtexts", the "Micro-Kor Plan", the "Flexible Frame" and "Routine Manipulation" (See Appendix)

- d) "A Comparison of Language Achievement for Low Aptitude Trainees in Summer and Fall Agricultural Programs, 1967",
J. Markessinis,
U. S. Peace Corps.
- e) "A Report to the Bureau of the Budget on Increased Language Training Requirements",
J. Francis,
U. S. Peace Corps,
February, 1969.
- f) "In-Country Language Training",
J. Markessinis,
U. S. Peace Corps,
May, 1969.
- g) "A Philosophy of Language Teaching",
J. Rassias,
Dartmouth, 1968.
- h) "Memorandum on High Intensive Language Training"
by Raymond E. Clark,
Experiment for International Living,
Brattleboro, Vermont, U.S.A.

2.3.2 During the teacher training workshop relevant language texts and materials were provided by various language training institutes, volunteer service organizations and commercial publishing companies, and were made available to interested participants. A list of the materials is contained in Appendix 4.

3. MAJOR CONCEPTS IN LANGUAGE TRAINING

3.1 Language Teaching Concepts and Methodologies

The methodologies and language training concepts demonstrated and discussed during the workshop represented the full range of modern practice, including multi-media systems and programmed self-instruction. In general, the trend was away from classical audio-lingual instruction and toward teaching which is clearly job-oriented.

Dr. Stevick was invited to present his principles of language teaching and the "Microwave" and related materials and language training approaches.

3.1.1 Stevick's Statement on Effective Language Training for Volunteer Service:

Stevick believes that the goal of a language training program is not merely that a volunteer shall know the language, but that he shall use it; and not merely that he shall use what he knows, but that he shall continue learning for himself whatever else he needs. Language is normally used by people not just for practice, but for communication, cooperation, and conflict. Methods and materials should therefore allow for conflict, cooperation and communication, as well as for practice. Language training is one aspect of training in interpersonal relations.

He began his presentation by stating five assumptions which are based on his experience in language teaching, and which agree with the principles stated above:

- 1) Usability. 'People learn features of a language best if they use those features in communication immediately, instead of just mimicking, manipulating and memorizing forms.'
- 2) Organization. 'On the elementary level, there must be order in the introduction of new items, and systematic drill on alien mechanical features, and some way of organizing classroom procedures.'
- 3) Responsiveness. 'Individuals, but also groups, vary widely in the content and methods that are appropriate for them. Some of these differences can be predicted in advance and some cannot. A language training program should be able to respond to these differences as they become evident.'
- 4) Responsibility. 'Other things being equal, the program will be more effective if the students and the instructors feel that they have some control over both content and procedure.'

5) Pluralism. 'No one format, and no one system however ingenious, can be sufficient for any one student or group of students. Procedures and systems and approaches supplement one another more than they supersede one another.'

In the light of these principles and these assumptions, the usual published course has serious weaknesses. It is likely to be poor in 'responsiveness', it often fails to provide much user 'responsibility', and it is seldom directly 'usable.' Its one strength (unless it is poorly constructed even by its own standards) is in organization, and superior organization alone will not produce superior results.

Stevick therefore urged that materials for volunteer training be prepared in the form of comparatively small modules, which can be combined in a number of ways according to the needs and the preferences of individual programs. Within the modules each lesson, unit or frame should itself indicate where and in what ways it may be modified by users to fit local needs. The materials-writing team should try to produce, not an inflexible cage, but a flexible frame within which the users can and must exercise their own initiative and carry definite responsibility.

It was objected that drawing on an array of modules and combining them into a successful course places heavy demands on the ingenuity and judgment of the director of language training and his staff. Stevick conceded this, but pointed out that the same is true if one is to teach successfully from a published course.

Stevick has embodied these ideas in a number of formats, some of which he demonstrated in the workshop. Each begins with a small and definite sample of the language, treats it according to some clearly stated procedure, and leads the students to increasingly responsible and communicative use of the new material within half an hour. In 'micro-wave', the basic material is a potentially useful utterance (often a question) and from four to eight potentially useful answers or other rejoinders. In a 'microtext', the basic material is a brief (about 30 sec.) statement by the instructor on some topic of interest to the students.

The 'Micro-Kor Plan', which arose out of his recent visits with Peace Corps language trainers in Micronesia and Korea, is a larger-scale elaboration of the same approach. In it, every day's schedule includes some task which must be accomplished with a speaker of the language who is not familiar with what has been taught in class. The materials writer and the classroom teacher focus their efforts on preparing the student to succeed in these encounters with the 'contact person'.

In one extended problem, Stevick presented the participants with 17 sheets of paper, each of which contained one microwave, or drill, or note, or set of short dialogues, or other material aimed at preparing students to accomplish the 'task' of talking about what they wanted to eat or drink at a coffee or tea break. The participants were asked to place these sheets in the order in which they thought they could best use them. Differences and similarities among solutions to this problem provided a basis for discussion.

3.1.2 Audio-Lingual, Audio-Visual and Multi-Media Language Methodologies

a) Audio-Lingual Demonstration (Mr. Lennart Öhnell)

Mr. Öhnell gave a Swedish lesson to the participants to demonstrate the audio-lingual method of language teaching. He illustrated the use of short dialogues followed by intensive pattern drills using various types of substitution and other types of drills characteristic of the A-L method in which new forms to be learned are manipulated in previously learned frames.

Later, Mr. Öhnell demonstrated his "vocabulary in action" material used to learn the parts of an automobile and their function by the use of sequenced illustrations and recorded taped texts.

b) Audio-Visual Demonstration (Mr. Hans Björkman)

Mr. Björkman introduced and demonstrated the St. Cloud Method of Language Instruction (Voix et Images de France, 1er degre).

Mr. Björkman also told how he had adapted this method to meet the needs of Swedish fishermen going to Tunisia: listing situations most useful to the fishermen, drawing pictures for new slides, using Voix et Images structure, but refocusing the subject matter to Tunisia; also relating the slides and tapes to subjects the fishermen would be able to use when they arrived in Tunisia.

In his presentation Mr. Björkman raised the following questions:

- How do you determine what the essential vocabulary and structures are when planning your language courses?
- Are there any practical (and cheap!) ways in which this could be improved?
- How do you carry out pre-laboratory lessons if you use an audio-visual course?

- Are there any practical (and cheap!) ways in which this could be improved?

A description distributed by Mr. Björkman is included in Appendix 5.

Discussion

The criticism of the basic St. Cloud audio-visual method was that the structure of the system was too fixed and that the teacher could not participate during the film strips.

However, it was felt that Mr. Björkman's kind of adaptation could be made relevant to African languages. One participant felt that the method was situationally oriented and realistic, but not a real situation. It was suggested that the situation was an "external" experience rather than an "internal" experience.

c) Use of Multi-Media in a New Swedish
Audio-Lingual Program
(Mr. Ake Andersson
Consultant to the Swedish National Board of Education)

Mr. Ake Andersson gave a demonstration of the use of multi-media in an experimental intensive language training course. This method included introducing the language to the students through T.V. films, following up with slides, tapes, audio-active equipment and the laboratory.

Mr. Andersson has used this method in a 30-45 day program for new immigrants at Alvesta, Sweden, financed by the National Board of Manpower: classes consisted of 12-20 students, with Swedish being the only language allowed. Due to the students' low educational level, emphasis was placed primarily on pictures. Aims of the program were to enable the students to understand oral Swedish, speak simple Swedish, read a simple text, and achieve a writing level adequate enough to fill in forms.

The target of this program had been to experiment with multi-media, with an eye to its possible future use for intensive language courses in the school system.

d) Spontaneous Conversation Tapes
(Mrs. Carol Knudsen
Head Teacher - English Section
International Summer School, Oslo, Norway)

Mrs. Knudsen has had created a series of tapes in a question-and-answer format dealing with East African cultural topics, and accompanied by relevant written material (See Appendix 4.2.2.). The answers were

given by an East African girl, thus exposing students to the sound of an East African accent in English. The tapes were for intermediate or advanced students, used once or twice a week. In presenting her material, Mrs. Knudsen asked the following questions:

- How should this type of material be used?
- How should it be improved?
- How can we provide self-study materials on an intermediate level with a situation content relevant for our students?
 - a) What is available?
 - b) What is it possible for us to make?
- What should be our guidelines in:
 - a) Preparing new material
 - b) Attempting to adapt material

Discussion

In discussion of the use of impromptu tape recordings, it was suggested that such recordings can have a freshness and a kind of authenticity which is almost impossible in materials that are read from a script. On the other hand, care must be taken lest some of the content be embarrassing to potential listeners, or even to the source himself. Such materials may be too long and/or too complex for any but advanced classes. Extra care must be exercised in the mechanical aspects of making such recordings.

- e) Programmed Self-Instruction
Example: Programmatic Spanish
Foreign Service Institute, Department of State
(Dr. Earl Stevick)

In this program the purpose of the teacher is to elicit the use of the language. Beginners will have little to discuss in the target and will therefore spend less time with the teacher than the advanced student. The aims of programmatic Spanish are to shape the student's pronunciation, to familiarize him with the structure of the language, as well as to give him some experience with a live speaker. In this method the student uses the text and tape recorder on his own and then spends up to 30 minutes to 2 hours daily with a live instructor, depending at which point the student is in the course.

However, one of the problems with any self-instructional language materials is that they are very costly and time consuming to develop. Therefore, practically speaking, they can be prepared only for major languages.

f) Situationally Reinforced Instruction (See Appendix 6)
(Mr. Eugene Hall - Institute of Modern Languages)

'Situational Reinforcement' (SR) as a system of language instruction dates from early 1967. It arose out of a number of weaknesses which Hall found in the use of 'pattern practice' and 'the audio-lingual method' (ALM):

1. In AIM, students often failed to retain the 'patterns' that they had 'practiced'.
2. Because so much of the practice was out of context, students did not carry what they learned into use outside of class.
3. Monotony led to a drop in student interest.
4. Most courses present structures in some sequence that is more influenced by considerations of linguistic analysis than by usefulness for practical communication.
5. There are problems of how much drill to give each pattern.
6. Courses often lump together sentences with identical surface structures but different deep structures.
7. Forms in the target language are related first of all to forms in the native language, rather than to experience.

In SR, structure is presented 'situationally'. A 'situation', in this sense, is one in which the student can participate as himself. Dialogues and role playing are therefore ruled out. Structures are presented in clusters, rather than individually, so that they may be used in communicative exchanges that are long enough to be viable. The time between first presentation and first communicative use is very short. Especially in the early stages, there is much motor activity. The teacher, in addition to serving as model and drill master, must create and take advantage of situations in which the students can use what they have learned. Systematic drills are rejected in favor of continuous review, and frequent opportunities to generate new combinations of old material.

Situational Reinforcement has been demonstrated in two programs. One, in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, has a technical content. The other, for foreign students attending universities in Washington, D. C., is culturally oriented.

3.2 Bottlenecks in Language Training for Volunteer Organizations
(Dr. John Butler, Chairman)

The workshop divided into two groups to name the bottlenecks in language training that exist within their respective organizations. When the group

reunited it constructed the following list of bottlenecks, dividing them into pedagogical or administrative problems:

3.2.1 Pedagogical

a) Teachers

Recruitment of teachers
Varying criteria for qualities of teachers
Lack of time or funds for training teachers
Recruitment of teachers for critical languages
Non-native speaking teachers

b) Materials

Availability of adequate language training materials
Material development, especially for critical languages
Vocationally oriented material usually geared to the country of origin rather than to the host country

c) Students

Low language learning ability
Limited educational background of some volunteers
Limited linguistic background
Low motivation
Difficulty of heterogeneous groups: mixed abilities, levels of education, English language proficiency, different vocations, different target profiles, heterogeneous target learning goals in same class.

d) Problems related to training environment: multi-lingual or bi-lingual environment, training site, classroom facilities, etc. Cultural shock in in-country training.

e) Problems related to programming of training:

Lack of adequate time for planning
Lack of systematization of training coordination
Lack of clarity of target goals
Lack of control of language training by the central language office
Lack of evaluation and implementation of evaluation in programs
Interruption of language training by other activities
Proportion of various learning activities in program.

3.2.2 Administrative

Limited hours of language training
Insufficient funds for language training

Limited influence of the teachers on the administration
Lack of appreciation of the teacher's work.

3.2.3 Discussion

Two evenings were devoted to discussion of bottlenecks in an attempt to find solutions. The two topics discussed were Students and Teachers.

a) Low Language Aptitude Students

The group discussed the cost, in both time and money, of training low-aptitude students, and also considered the problem of mixing such students with those of greater ability in language learning.

Solutions

The group generally agreed that the volunteer organization should accept the low-language aptitude students and put the responsibility on the teacher for finding the methods and resources to train them. The organization should give these students the best teachers and extend the course if necessary or limit the program to the volunteers' specific purposes.

b) Heterogeneous Classes and Target Profiles

The group discussed the problem of making teaching relevant to students with different vocations and different language abilities.

Solutions

The group generally agreed that mixing students of different vocational interests could be positive. However, the need for a target profile was expressed in order to determine the extent of language proficiency the student needs in the field. SIDA has studied a set of jobs and is about to agree on a set of profiles which may be "target" (i.e., desirable) or minimum profiles.

c) Low Motivation of Students

The group distinguished between volunteers with basic low motivation - who enter training to postpone military service or to avoid difficult family situations, etc. - and volunteers who lack motivation due to poor language training or lack of knowledge of their final assignment or destination.

Solutions

These problems were felt to be administrative. They should be handled by better means of recruitment and more knowledge from host countries concerning where and when volunteers are needed.

d) Recruitment of Teachers

Solutions

The emphasis of the discussion was on international cooperation. It was suggested that there were many organizations (including representatives of organizations present) which could send students to Europe to help teach English to European volunteer organizations.

The following contacts were given:

- The Experiment in International Living
Mr. Thomas Todd
- Dartmouth College
Dr. John Rassias
- Peace Corps Language Director
Mr. John Francis
- Friends World College, Long Island, New York.

It was suggested that ISVS could assist by coordinating such programs. At present, however, ISVS was limited by staff and budget restrictions. It was generally felt that the recruitment of teachers could be solved by those present: the subject should be discussed privately and determined later in the workshop.

e) Recruitment of Teachers for Critical Languages

The discussion of the problem of recruiting native speakers focused on the availability of such speakers as well as on the difficulties of obtaining funds to cover the expenses of travel fare, salary, etc.

Solutions

It was generally decided that the problem was to find "warm bodies" or "referents" who speak the critical language; the teacher training could take place later. It was suggested that the Peace Corps directors in target countries should be contacted. It was also suggested that Dr. Rassias could help since he would be going to West Africa to train native teachers this summer.

f) Non-Native Speaking Teachers

The group discussed what could be done if a "warm body" could not be found. SIDA expressed the desire to have one non-native speaking teacher.

But DED had a particular problem as their teaching staff consisted mainly of teachers from their own country who also had to play the role of administrators; thus, there was a tendency for both teachers and students to speak their native German outside the classroom.

Solutions

One suggestion was that there should be strong administrative support for the rule that all staff must be required to speak only the target language in and out of the classroom, perhaps under threat of dismissal if necessary.

The problems of materials and the administrative bottlenecks were not discussed. The list of bottlenecks was too extensive; therefore, they were reselected and redefined as the "real needs" of the participants.

3.3 Teacher Training - Dr. Earl Stevick, Dr. John Rassias

The language coordinator must have the full professional responsibility for the language program and the professional ability to direct it. The language coordinator should give positive direction to the program; the materials should be changed or adapted if necessary. There are countless teaching methodologies, but only a limited number of teaching techniques should be used.

3.3.1 Dr. John Rassias discussed his philosophy of and techniques for effective language teaching in an intensive audio-lingual program based on his experience of four years of directing language training for Peace Corps at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire.

Dr. Rassias described the purpose of language in volunteer service programs as "communication at the level of true understanding, of soul to soul talk, of sensitivity at its most heightened degree...full cognizance of the fact that we are alive and that we share this globe with other people."

He believes that the quality of teaching depends on the sensitivity, love, involvement and suppleness of the teacher. The teacher should always keep the class alive and exciting. The teacher must rid himself of inhibitions and lose himself in the classroom. The essential characteristic for both teacher and student is mental as well as physical suppleness. The teacher must be totally committed to the program, the students, and the teaching techniques. He must be able to move and adjust to the needs of the program and the student and not let the class suffer because he cannot meet the varying requirements day by day of a dynamic language class. Dr. Rassias' many techniques to achieve this

excitement in the classroom are outlined in his booklet "A Philosophy of Language Teaching". The booklet was sent to all participants prior to the Workshop.*

3.3.2 Demonstration

Dr. Rassias demonstrated his teaching methods with participants selected from the Workshop. The language of the lesson was Greek. The emphasis was on alertness, ability to respond quickly, to enunciate loudly and correctly and to participate fully in the class activity. He illustrated the importance of the full involvement of the teacher and how to achieve the interest and full participation of the students. Though language training methodologies vary, all should stress the human aspects of teaching which are too often forgotten, Dr. Rassias noted, but are the very essence of teaching and learning.

3.3.3 Format for Training Language Instructors for Volunteer Service Organizations

Dr. Rassias outlined a format for a one-week program to train language teachers for volunteer service organizations: the program should be well defined to the instructors; a presentation of the model methodology to be employed by the entire staff should be given and discussed; this lesson should be given in a language foreign to the staff; instructors should be told all that will be expected of them - number of teaching hours, amount of outside activities, etc.; those who are not willing to carry out the responsibilities should be eliminated; all materials and texts should be discussed, as should the role of the language laboratory; instructors should make individual teaching demonstrations, and deliver self-criticisms; then, the director should lead the group in criticism of each individual demonstration. A more detailed description of Dr. Rassias' teacher training program can be found in his booklet: "A Philosophy of Language Teaching".

Dr. Rassias also believes in the importance of the rotation of teachers. Rotation exposes the student to various accents and intonations. The teacher operates under new stimuli and the student is made more aware of his various weaknesses.

Discussion

Many organizations (such as DED) felt that they did not have time for teacher training because their volunteer training programs allowed only one week between courses. It was suggested that the teachers could meet

* Additional copies of "A Philosophy of Language Teaching" may be obtained from Dr. Rassias, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

one day a week. SIDA wondered how one could keep communications between teachers from breaking down. Dr. Rassias suggested involving the teachers in evening cultural activities as an aid in avoiding the formation of cliques.

3.3.4 SIDA Six-Day Training Workshop

Mr. Gordon Evans presented the six-day teacher training workshop, held at the SIDA language training center in Vasteros. An outline of the program is included in Appendix 8.

3.4 IN-COUNTRY TRAINING

Dr. John Rassias
Dr. Earl Stevick

Dr. Rassias explained the basic problems of in-country language training by referring to an experiment of Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, U.S.A in Bourges, France.

Although the pilot project was arranged for college sophomores, and not for volunteers, the program, nonetheless, has relevance to in-country language teaching.

The students were beginners, intermediates, and advanced. They studied five hours a day in class. Each student lived with a French family; thus, classroom instruction was reinforced by the home situation. Problems arose in the family situations because conversation was difficult. Students were told to ask the families autobiographical questions, and to establish a real dialogue. The students were encouraged to stay in their homes or neighborhoods, and to avoid their fellow students.

Topics such as the study of contemporary Bourges were introduced in the classroom, leading to further discussion concerning the province, and then to France itself. Local movies and chansons were seen and discussed. Local people - priests, farmers, concierges - gave talks. Subjects in the local newspaper were also covered: for example, a discussion of French individualism was triggered by the fact that there were always two different opinions expressed on the editorial page.

The program lasted from March through June, and was generally considered successful.

3.4.1 In-Country Training - The Ivory Coast

Dr. Rassias presented an in-country Peace Corps training program held in Ivory Coast in 1967.

In contrast to the Bourges program, in-country training of volunteers in a town, two hundred miles outside of Abidjan, presented tremendous difficulties. The basic problems were:

1. Coping with environmental factors
2. Cultural shock which diminished trainee's morals
3. Lack of preparation before arrival
4. Lack of clear understanding of what in-country training would be like.

Some of the volunteers had gone through training in Quebec at a Peace Corps training center, and had been given tasks to increase their self reliance. As they had had a long training period, they were ready for action. Others, however, had experienced only one summer of training. All volunteers know French, the minimum level being S-1+ . But they were on different levels of language proficiency. Those with higher language proficiency could concentrate more on the African language.

There was great difficulty in obtaining African teachers and in training them. In total, there were fifteen teachers coming from Ivory Coast, Gabon, Niger, and Togo - all with different backgrounds and of different ages.

The lack of proper living and studying quarters and the general affect of "culture shock" made the first part of the in-country program very difficult. For example, when they arrived in the country and found no mosquito netting, they were sure that they would get malaria. All fell "sick". Eventually, living arrangements got settled, classes and teachers organized. But the problems were enormous.

Discussion

The Peace Corps has not been generally successful with in-country language training. A paper: Support In-Country for Continued Language Study states:

- a) It is difficult or impossible to get good language instructors to work with individual volunteers at their sites, or to organize linguistically effective workshops.
- b) If a volunteer has received adequate instruction initially, field language programs probably offer no advantage over opportunities for language improvement by natural social interaction.
- c) Therefore, the Peace Corps should direct its resources to improving pre-service language training to assure that the overwhelming majority of trainees attain at least the level of limited working proficiency (S-2).

However, DED stated that they had not had difficulties with their in-country training which had been done in Tunisia, Latin America, and Tanzania.

3.4.2 Continued Study on the Job

In-country language training is unpredictable and difficult. Therefore, it is important to train the volunteer to be self-sufficient, as well as to teach him a language that he can control to some extent and later develop on his own.

Suggested procedures to equip volunteers for the field:

- a) There should be a relationship between the volunteer's training and his life in the host country.
- b) There should be daily training where something really happens that would happen in the host country (microtasks).
- c) There should be a systematic study of the language.
- d) The volunteer should be given more confidence so that he can take care of himself physically in the host country.
- e) The volunteer should have developed enough self-sufficiency so that he can continue language study on his own.

What makes a good volunteer eventually is not proficiency in the language, but the ability to make step-by-step progress in the language as he lives in the country.

3.5 TESTING

- Mr. Sven-Erik Henrikson
- Mr. Allan Kulakow

Language, aptitude and proficiency testing proved to be a crucial question to language teachers in volunteer organizations. Most organizations did not feel that they had adequate testing methods.

Mr. Henrikson, a psychologist from the Swedish Board of Education, discussed some of the problems of testing. He stressed the importance of knowing the objectives in testing: should the test be prognostic or diagnostic; should the test measure ability or proficiency? Ability does not alone determine performance because there are many variables. Henrikson's main concern was that there should be a connection between teaching and testing.

Testing should be used to improve teaching. Most teachers stop after the final testing of a student, but actually, the teacher should examine the test findings and revise his method of instruction accordingly.

- 3.5.1 Mr. Henrikson and Mr. Kulakow discussed the importance of language aptitude testing and particularly the Modern Language Aptitude Test, which is given to all Peace Corps applicants. The MLAT is presently available only in English and German, and the reliability of the German form is questionable.

Mr. Henrikson offered to work with SIDA in the development of a Swedish version if desired.

- 3.5.2 Mr. Kulakow then presented and discussed the Oral Proficiency Testing and rating system developed by the Foreign Service Institute, and used regularly by the U. S. Peace Corps. The test measures actual spoken proficiencies, that is, what the student can do with the language. The test is conducted in the form of an oral interview, usually lasting from 15 to 30 minutes, and administered by a native speaker of the language and a testing specialist trained in the FSI system and having some knowledge of the target language. The ratings are as follows:

ELEMENTARY PROFICIENCY

- S-1 Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.
- S-1+ Exceeds S-1 primarily in vocabulary and thus able to meet more complex travel and courtesy requirements.

LIMITED WORKING PROFICIENCY

- S-2 Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements with confidence but not with facility.
- S-2+ Exceeds S-2 primarily in fluency and in either grammar or vocabulary.

MINIMUM PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

- S-3 Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to satisfy all normal social and work requirements and handle professional discussions within a special field.
- S-3+ Exceeds an S-3 primarily in vocabulary and in fluency or grammar.

FULL PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-4 Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs. Can handle informal interpreting from and into the language.

S-4: Should be considered as just short of an S-5.

NATIVE OR BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

S-5 Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

Peace Corps volunteers are tested:

- a) Upon arrival at training if they offer any proficiency in the target language.
- b) At the mid-point of training (optional).
- c) At the end of training or at the end of stateside training and again at the end of in-country training. After 300 hours of language training, a score of S-2 is desirable.
- d) At the end of 3-6 months service.
- e) At the end of 2 years' service overseas.

Tests should always be given by someone other than the teacher. To have two different testers who agree on the same measurement would give the test more reliability. (See also Appendix 9.)

Demonstrations of the testing process were given using two Swedish girls and two workshop participants.

Discussion

There are many problems concerning testing. The testers must be trained to give ratings attuned to those at the FSI, as well as in the techniques of oral interview testing.

Another problem mentioned in the discussion by participants was that it is usually the administrator who decides if the volunteer is ready to be sent to the field, and often this administrator has little or no comprehension of language proficiency ratings. Also, many organizations do not have standardized testing procedures.

4. WORKING GROUPS

In the second week, the participants split into two working groups to focus on the language training programming and planning. Each group spent most of the first three days of the week seeking a solution for a problem that had been devised by the training team.

4.1 Working Group I

- Dr. Earl Stevick, Moderator

Problem: You will have a group of 14 Volunteers for Agriculture in Tanzania. They will have 160 hours for language instruction. They have had 2-4 years of English already, and are S-1 in general English. There is one native speaker available, and one non-native teacher. Language laboratory facilities are available. Your goal is to produce "good, strong S-2" with emphasis on job-oriented vocabulary.

The working group decided to assume that this program would take place at the Language Training Centre of the DED, 4 hours per day, 5 days a week for eight weeks. Students who reached the desired proficiency in English before the end of the program would be given an opportunity to study Swahili, but the working group confined its attention to the English-teaching phase.

The program at which the working group arrived was divided into three main sections:

- I. A "Flexible Frame" (Appendix 10.1), for introducing immediately needed vocabulary and revision of basic patterns of questions and statements.
- II. General English Instruction: dialogues, "microwaves" (Appendix 10.2), and drills.
- III. Job-oriented Instruction: "microwaves", "microtexts" (Appendix 10.3), and "action chains".

The concrete materials* prepared by this group were related principally to the second of these three sections. At the end of these materials, the student will be given an opportunity to perform the "task" of giving and receiving real street and road directions. Each part of Section II is similarly aimed at helping the student to prepare himself for accomplishing some small and specific "task".

Task: Be able to give and receive directions.

*) For materials also presented at the Workshop, see:
Appendix 10.4 "Working Assumptions and the Modular Approach",
and Appendix 10.5 "Routine Manipulations".

Dialogue I

- A. I'm looking for the training center.
B. Well, I'm going there now, I'll show you.
A. Are you a volunteer?
B. Yes, I am.

Dialogue II

- A. Where is the agricultural class this morning?
B. They are in the repair shop.
C. Can I get there on foot?
D. Yes, you can. It's only two minutes from here. Go through the park. You'll see it on your left.

Microwave I

I'm looking for the training center.

I'm going there now
It's over there
I'm sorry I don't know
It's across the street
It's near the park
It's on your left

Microwave II

Where is the agricultural class now?

It is in the repair shop
They are in their English class
They are in the field
They are in room 10

Microwave III

Can I get there on foot?

Yes, you can, it's only two minutes from here.
No, it's too far
Yes, but it's a twenty minutes walk
Yes, it's near the repair shop

Can I get there by car?

Yes, it's a ten minutes drive
Yes, but the road is very bad
No, it's not on the road

Routine Manipulation (Example)

Command Forms -

Go through the park
Turn left (right)
Cross the street
Go straight ahead
Follow the street

Transformation Drill

Go through the park
Turn left
Turn right
Cross the street

You are going through the park
You are turning left
You are turning right
You are crossing the street

Topics for other Lessons

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| 1. Directions | Task: Ask and give directions |
| 2. Transportation | Task: How to get to Birstein and back
Buying a train ticket
Taking a taxi to and from the station |
| 3. Bank | Task: Open an account
Withdraw and deposit money
Exchange currency |
| 4. Post Office | Task: Send a letter to Tanzania
Send a parcel to Tanzania |
| 5. Purchase | Task: Buy some toilet articles, etc. |
| 6. Food | |
| 7. Telephone | |
| 8. Time | Task: Throughout the whole course |
| 9. Party | |
| 10. Weather | |
| 11. Customs | |

Each group was also asked to show how it would adapt existing published materials to fit its problem. This group chose "Conversation B" from Page 84 of English Conversation Practice, by Grant Taylor. The original conversation was:

I'd like to mail this package
How do you want to send it?
By regular mail
That'll be eighty-nine cents

The adaptation was:

I want to send this letter to East Africa
How do you want to send it?
By air mail
That'll be ninety pfennings

Drills

I. I want to send this letter to East Africa

telegram
parcel
book
postcard
aerogramme
registered letter

II. I want to send it by air mail

by surface mail
by registered mail
by insured mail
special delivery

III. I want to send this letter by air mail

parcel	surface mail
book	special delivery
registered letter	insured mail
letter	registered mail

The last part of the course is to be oriented towards the work of the volunteer and his situation in the new culture.

Both aspects of this section will be approached through microwaves, microtexts and action chain.

An example of the types of tasks with which the volunteer will be concerned during the job oriented phase follows.

Tasks - Students are expected to actually perform these tasks using English language.

Using single bladed plough with an ox

Welding	Operating torch
	Actual welding
	Judging the work

Harvesting	Gathering
	Transporting
	Storing etc.

East African contact person will be brought in to discuss the tasks.

4.2 Working Group II

Eugene Hall, Moderator

Problem: You will have a group of six volunteer mechanics for Zambia. They will have 300 hours of English. They have already studied English for two years, and are S-0+ to S-1. One native speaker is available.

Group II met together to plan the overall program and then the members worked individually on the parts for which they were responsible.

A report of Working Group II is enclosed in Appendix 11.

4.3 International Cooperation in Language Training

The discussion on international cooperation was brief. The essential point was the desire of the participants to know of good programs that might be developed in the future by other groups.

4.3.1 The following suggestions for sources of information were made:

- a) ISVS
- b) UNESCO
- c) ERIC (Educational Resource Information Center), U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.
 - published quarterly journal
 - has unpublished material that can be sent out on microfilm
- d) The Linguistic Newsletter of the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- e) Requests for testing or language training information can be sent directly to John Francis, Peace Corps Language Director, or he may be contacted through ISVS.

4.3.2 Areas of possible international cooperation considered were as follows:

- a) In-country training:

- joint training programs
- use of P.C. trained host country teachers for the volunteer service organizations
- P.C. directors should be contacted
- b) In-country testing:
 - joint volunteer service organization testing programs using P.C. trained testors
 - P.C. directors should be contacted
- c) Development of language training materials
- d) Information on all matters relevant to language training for volunteer service organizations should be provided to all members by iSVS. The urgency of this coordination was stressed by all participants
- e) Exchange of teachers or the routing of host-country teachers brought to the U.S. for P.C. training programs to assist European volunteer service organizations' training programs afterwards
- f) Regular meetings of language training directors and teachers of volunteer service organizations

It was also suggested that communications be continued between the workshop participants in order to exchange information.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Language teachers from six member-countries of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service met in the Language Teachers' Training Workshop in Furudal, Sweden, from June 15 to June 28, 1969. The countries represented were: Germany, Holland, Israel, Norway, Sweden and the United States. The following Recommendations support and supplement the Furudal Statement which was the outcome of the work and discussion of the representatives:

"Recognizing the importance of language instruction for the effective completion of the volunteers' tasks in the host country, the participants made the following recommendations:

1. Program.

- a) A target-profile* for each volunteer's task must be established and enough time allotted in the training programs for the attainment of this goal.

* target-profile: an indication of the levels of proficiency in each of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) which is necessary for the successful completion of the volunteers' tasks. The target-profile will vary according to the language requirements for each job.

- b) All facets of the training program must be integrated, with emphasis on technical training and area studies in the target language.

2. Staffing and Training.

- a) The necessity for appointing a director of language training must be recognized. This individual must have the responsibility for the selection of teachers, teacher training, language program scheduling and classroom supervision.
- b) Time spent on material preparation and teacher training before the course is of utmost importance. Teachers must be allowed a reasonable amount of time for preparation, and regularly scheduled teacher training sessions must be held.
- c) Teachers should be employed for a period which includes teacher training, planning time and post-program evaluation sessions.

3. International Cooperation

- a) ISVS should be the active language, information and training consultancy for all member organizations.
- b) ISVS should encourage the standardization of language testing among the member organizations.
- c) ISVS should aid organizations in establishing realistic minimum language requirements for the various roles which volunteers fulfill.
- d) ISVS should encourage study visits between member organizations and promote more international workshops on specific problem areas in language teaching.
- e) Future language workshops should include participants from the developing countries.

A P P E N D I C E S

1. Schedule of Training Program
2. List of Participants
3. Message to Participants by the Secretary General of iSVS
4. List of Language Training Materials and Technical Papers presented at the Workshop
5. Summary: St. Cloud Method
6. Situationally Re-inforced Instruction
7. High Intensive Language Training
8. Teachers' Training Format
9. Language Proficiency Testing
10. Fascicles on Developing Materials for Language Learning (see also Working Group I - 4.1):
 - 10.1 The 'Flexible Frame'
 - 10.2 'Microwave'
 - 10.3 'Microtexts'
 - 10.4 Working Assumptions and the 'Modular Approach'
 - 10.5 'Routine Manipulations'
11. Report of Working Group II

APPENDIX 1

Schedule of Training Program

Saturday, June 14: Arrival

6:00 p.m. Welcome Dinner on the invitation of SIDA
(Swedish International Development Authority)

Sunday, June 15:

8:30 a.m. Departure for Lövudden, SIDA's Language
Learning Center at Västeras

11:30 a.m. Introduction by Participants
Why we are here?

Discussion with Gordon Evans
(Director Language Learning Center)

12:30 p.m. Lunch with the Teaching Staff of the
Language Learning Center

1:30 p.m. Disposable Language I
Dr. Earl Stevick

5:00 p.m. Dinner

6:00 p.m. Description of Participants' Organizations

Monday, June 16:

8:00 a.m. Description of various learning activities
at Västeras

9:00 a.m. Class Visits

10:00 a.m. Class Visits

11:00 a.m. Press Conference

12:00 noon Lunch

1:00 p.m. Discussion of Classes Observed

3:00 p.m. Departure for Furudal
Picnic en route

8:30 p.m. Arrive Furudal
Supper

Thursday, June 19: 8:00 a.m. Spontaneous Conversation Tapes
10:00 a.m. Demonstration and discussion
Mrs. Carol Knudson, Head Teacher
English Section of the International
Summer School, Oslo, Norway

10:00 a.m. Programmed self-instruction
12:00 noon Dr. Earl Stevick

12:00 noon Lunch
1:00 p.m.

2:00 p.m. Testing and Measurement
Mr. Sven-Erik Henrikson
Swedish Board of Education

6:00 p.m. Dinner
7:00 p.m.

7:00 p.m. Continued Discussion on Bottlenecks
9:00 p.m. Chairman: Dr. John Butler

Excursion

Friday, June 20: 8:00 a.m. Situationally Reinforced Instruction
10:00 a.m. Mr. Eugene Hall
Institute of Modern Languages
Washington, D. C.

10:00 a.m. Microwave Principle
12:00 noon Dr. Earl Stevick

12:00 noon Lunch
1:00 p.m.

1:00 p.m. Preparation hours
3:00 p.m.

3:00 p.m. Sports
5:00 p.m.

6:00 p.m. Dinner
7:00 p.m.

Saturday, June 21: 8:00 a.m. Disposable Language II
12:00 noon Materials and Resources

12:00 noon Lunch
1:00 p.m.

Saturday, June 21:
(cont'd.)

1:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
3:00 p.m.	
3:00 p.m.	Sports
5:00 p.m.	
5:00 p.m.	Training and preparation of language teachers
6:00 p.m.	for teaching in volunteer service organiza-
	tions' training programs
	Dr. John Rassias
6:00 p.m.	Dinner
7:00 p.m.	
7:00 p.m.	Excursion - Midnight Summer's Eve

Sunday, June 22:

9:00 a.m.	Full day excursion
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Monday, June 23:

8:00 a.m.	Working groups
11:00 a.m.	
11:00 a.m.	Working groups/Reports
12:00 noon	
12:00 noon	Lunch
1:00 p.m.	
1:00 p.m.	Preparation Hours
3:00 p.m.	
3:00 p.m.	Sports
5:00 p.m.	
5:00 p.m.	Working groups
6:30 p.m.	
6:30 p.m.	Dinner
7:30 p.m.	
7:30 p.m.	Dr. John Rassias
9:00 p.m.	

Tuesday, June 24:

8:00 a.m.	Working groups
12:00 noon	

Tuesday, June 24:
cont'd

12:00 noon	Lunch
1:00 p.m.	
1:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
3:00 p.m.	
3:00 p.m.	Sports
5:00 p.m.	
5:00 p.m.	Working groups
6:30 p.m.	
7:30 p.m.	English 901
9:00 p.m.	Mr. Richard Evans Collier Macmillan International

Wednesday, June 25:

8:00 a.m.	Working groups
12:00 noon	
12:00 noon	Lunch
1:00 p.m.	
1:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
3:00 p.m.	
3:00 p.m.	Sports
5:00 p.m.	
5:00 p.m.	Reports - Teaching Demonstrations by participants
5:30 p.m.	
7:30 p.m.	Planning, programming, and management of language training
9:00 p.m.	Dr. John Rassias Dr. Earl Stevick

Thursday, June 26:

8:00 a.m.	Testing and Proficiency
12:00 noon	Mr. Allan Kulakow
12:00 noon	Lunch
1:00 p.m.	
1:00 p.m.	Preparation hours
3:00 p.m.	
3:00 p.m.	Sports
5:00 p.m.	
5:00 p.m.	In-Country Training
6:30 p.m.	Continued Study Dr. John Rassias Dr. Earl Stevick

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<u>Thursday, June 26:</u> (cont'd)	6:30 p.m.	Dinner
	7:30 p.m.	
	7:30 p.m.	Brain Trust
	9:00 p.m.	International Cooperation Mr. Allan Kulakow
<u>Friday, June 27:</u>	8:00 a.m.	Furudal Plan - Dr. Earl Stevick Mr. Lennart Ohnell
	12:00 noon	
		Resolutions - Mr. Thomas Todd Evaluations - Mr. Allan Kulakow Mr. Gordon Evans
	12:00 noon 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
	5:00 p.m.	Farewell dinner
<u>Saturday, June 28:</u>	7:00 a.m.	Departure for Stockholm

APPENDIX 2

List of Participants

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------|--|
| 1. Tress <u>Aspeslagh</u> | Netherlands | Royal Tropical Institute
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| 8. Carol <u>Knudsen</u> | Norway | International Summer School
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List of Participants

- 41 -

APPENDIX 2 (cont'd)

- | | | | |
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| 13. | <u>John Rassias</u> | USA | Dartmouth College
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Message to the Language Teachers' Training Workshop

by Dr. Michael U. R. von Schenck, Secretary General of ISVS

People working with people must understand people. Language is a vital element for understanding each other. Language training is thus an essential part in the preparation of volunteers for their work because language is a vital element for volunteers to communicate their skills and ideas.

Not too long ago languages were learned in years of study at school and it was almost impossible to learn any other than the more commonly spoken languages. The needs of volunteers have opened new dimensions in language training. Volunteer organizations have pioneered new methods of training which allow the students to learn a language within a few months.

The developments in intensive short term language teaching have been tremendous. What used to be a daring innovation five years ago, today is already a traditional method. Electronics and technology have contributed new tools in this field. It is the purpose of this workshop to show specialists the newest methods available.

The International Secretariat for Volunteer Service is proud to be able to render to volunteer organizations around the world its services to train volunteers so that they are more able to communicate their skills, experiences and ideas to people for developing a better world for all of us. Feelings can be transmitted without words, ideas and knowledge need language as life needs air.

I am happy that this workshop is taking place in Sweden - a country which is open to new approaches, thus making it very appropriate to meet in Furudal. We are all grateful for the cooperation of SIDA.

While you are specialists in language training, this workshop will also see you as experts in mutual communication. I wish you every success in developing yourselves even more in order to give to volunteers, as agents of development, an even better tool of communication by improving language training. Jag onskar er gott arbete.

List of Language Training Materials and Technical Papers

The following language training materials were presented at the language teachers' workshop. Copies may be obtained by writing the original source:

1. Language Materials Developed by Language Training Institutes
 - 1.1 Foreign Service Institute
 - a. Microwave and related materials and technical paper on: "Explanatory Comments on this Array of Language Modules for Study of the Swahili Language" by Dr. Earl Stevick.
 - b. French Basic Course*
 - c. Programmatic Spanish*
 - d. Amharic Basic Course*
 - e. Swahili Basic Course*
 - f. Hindu Microwave
 - g. Spanish Basic Course*
 - h. Lingala*
 - 1.2 Experiment in International Living (EIL), Brattleboro, Vermont.

Courses available in several languages and can be purchased through EIL.
 - 1.3 Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire, USA

"A Philosophy of Language Teaching" by John Rassias, 1968.
 - 1.4 Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.
 - a. Annotated bibliography of Peace Corps Language Materials
 - b. Information brochures on the activities and programs of the Center
 - 1.5 Summer Institute of Linguistics, Santa Anna, California

"Handbook of Literacy" by S. Gudschinsky, 1965

1.6 Committee on World Literacy and Christian Literature

"World Literacy Manual" by Dr. F. Shacklock, New York

2. Materials developed by Volunteer Service Organizations

- 2.1 Sweden: SIDA - Collected information and training material from the SIDA Language Training Center, Västerås and technical paper on "Total Immersion - A Statement of Principles", SIDA Language Learning Center, Västerås, 1967.
- 2.2 Norway: East African Conversations, Norwegian Peace Corps, Oslo, Norway
- 2.3 Germany: Integration Material and Program, A Programme for English Speakers, March, 1969, DED
- 2.4 U.S.A.: U. S. Peace Corps Materials on Language Training (as of August 30, 1968):

General

1. "To Speak As Equals", Peace Corps Faculty Paper No. 1, Allan Kulakow, May, 1968.

The most up-to-date comprehensive overview of Peace Corps language training, including a comparison of "typical" and high-intensity programs as well as discussion of language testing, research, materials development and language study overseas.

HIGH-INTENSITY LANGUAGE TRAINING

2. "Language Training, Spring, 1968", January 8, 1968.

The Director's initiating policy statement on high-intensity language training.

3. "Suggested Guidelines for Language Instructors: Salaries in High-Intensity Programs", June 1, 1968 (revised).

In answer to compensating language instructors for the overtime high-intensity entails.

4. "Super-Intensive Pre-training as a Language Teaching Approach: Summer 1967" Sharon Van Cleve and A. I. Fiks, December 5, 1967.

Research report on four of the eight experimental programs on which the Director's policy statement about high-intensity language training was based.

5. "Summary and Evaluation of Super-Intensive Pre-training as a Language Teaching Approach: Summer 1967", Allan Kulakow, 1968.
6. "Language Achievement in Fall, 1967 High-Intensity Language Training", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

A report on language achievement in the four Fall 1967 high-intensity programs.
7. "PITILIT at Dartmouth, Final Report", John A. Rassias, August 10, 1967.

Detailed report on Summer 1967's most successful high-intensity program: French.
8. "Swahili/Luganda Intensive Training Camp", Arthur Levi, November 17, 1967.

Another excellent on-the-scene report of successful high-intensity language training.
9. "A Brief Guide to High-Intensity Language Training in the Peace Corps", Sharon Van Cleve, March, 1968.

The first report on pedagogical implementation of high-intensity language training.
10. "A Model for High-Intensity Language Training in the Peace Corps", Marie Gadsden and Joan Markessinis, September, 1968.

The distinguishing characteristics of Peace Corps high-intensity language training as they have evolved since Summer 1967.

RESEARCH

11. "A Quantitative Analysis of Language Training in the Peace Corps", A. I. Fiks, February, 1968.

The first professional description of "typical" Peace Corps language training, pedagogical techniques and trainee aptitudes/perceptions of them; based on approximately 50 Summer 1967 programs.
12. "Summary of John Carroll's A Parametric Study of Language Training in the Peace Corps", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

Until Fiks' report the only definitive analysis of Peace Corps language training; sample of eight Latin America programs.

13. "Summary of John Carroll's The Foreign Language Attainments of Language Majors in the Senior Year", Joan Markessinis, August, 1968.

A survey of United States colleges and universities to assess achievement of foreign language majors; their achievement compared to that of Peace Corps trainees, Carroll's statements on FSI testing, and his opinions on factors promoting high language achievement are relevant and complimentary to Peace Corps language training.

TESTING

14. "Modern Language Aptitude Test", Joan Markessinis, January 4, 1968.

A memo discussing popular misinformation on the aptitude test Peace Corps uses in applicant processing.

15. "Notes from Dr. John Carroll's Colloquium and Later Discussion on the Modern Language Aptitude Test", Joan Markessinis.

Presented in Peace Corps Washington, January 10, 1968; Dr. Carroll devised the test,

16. "A Comparison of Language Achievement for Low and High Aptitude Trainees in Summer and Fall Agricultural Programs, 1967", Joan Markessinis and Pat Byrd, June 14, 1968.

17. "Information on the Implementation and Reporting of Language Testing Conducted During Training", Allan Kulakow and Traer Sunley, January 28, 1968.

The policy statement of Peace Corps' domestic FSI testing.

18. "Peace Corps Language Testing Policy", October 4, 1967.

A clarification of Peace Corps/FSI testing of Volunteers overseas.

19. "Language Proficiency Testing", Claudia Wilds, 1965.

The most clear explanation in writing of FSI testing theory and practice by the Head of Testing, Foreign Service Institute.

20. "On Testing for S-1+ and S-2", Claudia Wilds, Mary 24, 1968.

Detailed procedure for evaluating the proficiency levels most commonly attained by Peace Corps trainees.

21. PC-1004's.

Standard forms for recording trainee language achievement; completed and returned by Language Coordinators to the Division of Language Training, OPR, Peace Corps/Washington.

22. PC-814's.

Standard forms for recording Volunteers language achievement overseas; completed and returned by the Country Language Officer to the Division of Language Training, OPR, Peace Corps/Washington.

23. Language Code Sheet.

Government-wide codes for world languages; used by Peace Corps Language Coordinators on PC-1004 and PC-814 forms.

24. Peace Corps Testing Certificate.

Certificates given to Peace Corps Volunteers by Country Directors indicating end-of-tour language proficiency.

INTEGRATION OF TRAINING COMPONENTS

25. "Language Immersion and Ag-Training", Jack Frankel and Allan Kulakow, January 30, 1968.

A memo on inclusion of minimal agricultural training, when necessary, during the high intensity period.

26. "Integration of Cross-Cultural and Language Components in Peace Corps Training Programs", Jane Coe, May, 1968.

27. "Maximizing Immersion for Support of the Technical Studies Segment--TEFL", Marie Gadsden, March 6, 1968.

Integration of language and TEFL possible through: recognition by TEFL and target Language Coordinators that they are both Language Coordinators; trainee evaluation of pedagogical techniques and teacher performance in their language classes; language and TEFL staff participation in comparative analyses of English and target language.

PEACE CORPS LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES AND MATERIALS

28. "Microwave Format", Joan Markessinis, June, 1968.

An explanation of the microwave materials format and pedagogical technique developed by Dr. Earl Stevick, Foreign Service Institute.

29. "The Flexible Frame", Dr. Earl Stevick, March 10, 1968.

The latest refinement to the microwave technique; allows immediate use of language by immediate introduction of situationally vital vocabulary and structure.

30. "The Modular Mousetrap", Dr. Earl Stevick, April 21, 1967.

A description of application of the "modular principle" to language materials writing: i.e., screening approximately 95% of a language's grammar through short texts on a subject intensely interesting to the learner.

31. "Multi-media Materials", Joan Markessinis, July 10, 1968.

A collation of the best and most recurrent 'beyond-the-text' language learning techniques and activities developed by Peace Corps Language Coordinators.

32. Support In-Country for Continued Language Study, OPR/LT, January, 1969.

33. A Report to the Bureau of the Budget on Increased Language Training Requirements, J. Francis, February, 1969.

34. In-Country Language Training (with questionnaires), J. Markessinis, May, 1969.

APPENDIX 5

Audio-Visual Techniques: St. Cloud Method

The following summary was distributed by Mr. Björkman:

St. Cloud Ecole Normale Supérieure de St. Cloud, where the so called St. Cloud method was elaborated by

CREDEF Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

Français Fondamental

1er degré a vocabulary consisting of 1,475 words published by CREDEF in 1954. The vocabulary is based on spoken French and the words were chosen according to the criteria of either frequency (fréquence) or disposal (disponibilité). The Français Fondamental, 1er degré, also contains a basic grammar partly founded on the recorded conversations which were used for the word list.

Voix et Images de France 1er degré or St. Cloud Course an audio-visual language course completed by CREDEF in 1962 and based on the Français Fondamental, 1er degré. The course is composed of 32 lessons presented on film-strips and tape recordings. Each lesson is divided into a dialogue (sketch), drills (mécanisme) and sound practices (phonétique). The course is intended for adults or High School students and should be used as an intensive training programme for beginners.

Prescriptions for a lesson according to CREDEF.

1. Audio-comprehension

The students look at the film-strip and listen to the tape twice or three times. The teacher must not comment during this part of the lesson. After the students having thus tried to grasp the meaning of the dialogue or drills, the teacher should verify that they really understand, by asking them questions in French.

2. Repetition and memorization

The teacher tells the students to repeat the sentences after the tape recorder, all together and then individually. He has to correct all pronunciation mistakes. The individual repetition could take place in a language laboratory.

3. Conversation

Looking at the film strip the students first try to remember and pronounce each sentence. The teacher should finally stimulate a free conversation departing gradually from the theme of the dialogue but still using its vocabulary and structures.

Bibliography:

Gougenheim, Michéa, Rivenc, Sauvageot - L'Elaboration du Français Fondamental (1er degré), Didier, Paris, new edition in 1964.

Guberina, Rivenc - Voix et Images de France, Didier, Paris, 1962.

Libbich - Advances in the Teaching of Modern Languages, volume one, the Macmillan Company, New York, 1964.

Lowe, Lowe - On teaching Foreign Languages to Adults, Pergamon Press, Oxford, London, Edinburgh, New York, Paris, Frankfurt; 1965.

Situationally Re-inforced Instruction

Eugene Hall

Institute of Modern Languages
Washington, D. C.

Situational Reinforcement is a language teaching system with which the Institute of Modern Languages began experimenting early in 1967. It was first tried out in a program which we are operating in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, and then used in our schools in Washington and Mexico City.

Our desire to experiment arose from a general dissatisfaction with the results that were being obtained with the audio-lingual method, or pattern practice to give it a name which is perhaps a more accurate description. Until 1967, IML had used a rather rigid application of the audio-lingual method almost exclusively in both its in-house and field programs.

Many of the difficulties that we encountered in its use have also been the cause of complaints with other language teaching systems that have been in common use. I would like to indicate the areas in which we found ALM somewhat less than adequate, not for the purpose of criticizing ALM but rather to indicate some of the problems that we have tried to solve.

First of all students often failed to retain the patterns. In proficiency tests, students usually performed well on the most recently taught patterns, whereas those taught earlier would have been at least partially forgotten - this in spite of the "overskill", as it were, which is supposed to be built into the system. There has been a great deal written about the cumulative effect of pattern practice, but in actual classroom use, the emphasis is usually on mastering new patterns. There is pretty generally in audio-lingual tests a lack of material for synthesizing the patterns.

Second, there was usually a lack of carry-over into the real use of language outside the classroom. Often students who could handle all the drills without difficulty in class could not effectively communicate outside of class. I would suggest that this is in part due to the large amount of out-of-context material that is introduced in the drills, and in part due to a lack of practice that would make the students choose among the patterns.

The extensive use of out-of-context material leads, I believe, to two other problems. One of these is a lack of student interest after the novelty of being in a language class has worn off. The min-mem techniques which are commonly used for AIM become monotonous after a while, and sometimes deadening. In our program in Jeddah, when it was being taught with AIM techniques, we had a constant disciplinary problem with students falling asleep in the language lab, which is not an uncommon phenomenon, but in the classes, too. A second difficulty is an inability to comprehend a good many of the sentences that turn up in the drills, or to relate them to anything which has come up before.

I strongly feel that some of these difficulties are caused by the organization of the material. The great majority of language courses, whatever their methodology, follow a linear presentation of structural items based on some kind of analysis of the target language. Very little consideration, if any, is given to the order of presentation of structures in relation to their usefulness for the purposes of communication. For example, the students on IML's intensive English program used to spend more than 80 hours on sentences with be before coming to any more exciting verbs. Needless to say, at the end of that time they could still communicate only at the most minimal level - and felt the frustration of their slow progress. Nor is the experience of IML unusual in this regard.

Because of the linear presentation of structures, the distinction between beginning, intermediate, and advanced students usually comes down to what structures have been covered. In English courses, for example, the passive voice is often not presented until the later stages of the programs in Spanish or French, the subjunctive is apt to be put off till the end of the book.

A structural approach presents other problems. One is the amount of drill to give on any one pattern. We are all acquainted with texts in which a pattern of low frequency receives the same amount of drill as a pattern of high frequency. We are also acquainted with the texts in which structural items with the same surface characteristics but different deep structures are lumped together in one exercise. In fact, as the analysis of a language becomes more sophisticated, as more patterns are isolated and identified, the task of the textbook writer becomes more difficult, if not impossible. What patterns is he to include, and in what order and what amount of drill?

Perhaps even more important, what attempt should he make to relate a description of the features of a structure to a description of its uses? In AIM, the most common way of doing this has been through dialogues; but dialogues, since they can only present a very limited inventory of structures, especially at the beginning level, have very little of the quality of the real use of language about them. In the grammar-translation method, readings are used for the same purpose, but they are

translated from one language to another, as the name of the method of course suggests, rather than being used as a real synthesizing experience in the second language.

The entire problem of "relatedness" has indeed seemed to us to be of major importance, perhaps because our classes in Washington are made up of students with a variety of language backgrounds. In both the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, the student is exposed to what is essentially a contrastive sample of language, with the material in the target language related to material in the student's native language rather than to an experimental frame-of-reference. I would submit that very little real language learning takes place in the classroom under those circumstances; rather the student acquires samples from which he can make a choice, actively when he deals with speakers of the target language and passively when he reads in the target language.

In effect, I am on the shaky ground of saying that language learning is a trial-and-error process.

To summarize, those problems which we have tried to solve include:

- 1) Retention of material
- 2) Carry-over into real communication
- 3) Comprehension
- 4) Motivation and student interest
- 5) Grading into proficiency levels
- 6) Validity of the analysis and the language corpus
- 7) Relatedness of the language corpus to the real use of the language.

Situational Reinforcement is a language-teaching system that is use-oriented rather than structure-oriented. It differs from both audio-lingual and grammar-translation in organization, in classroom techniques, and in content, or at least in the way content is used.

The basic organization for SR is according to proficiency levels. We derived the proficiency levels from the FSI S- rating descriptions. In practice, the S-ratings have been interpreted along rather structural lines, although they are not written that way. For our purposes, we rewrote them slightly to give them a skill orientation. Our version of the S-1 rating, for instance, is:

Can express simple ideas, either within the frame of basic cultural patterns of the language, such as telling time and giving greetings; or within a situational frame where he can react to a direct stimulus; his vocabulary range is limited; he frequently gropes for the word or expression he wants; and he makes mistakes that may sometimes obscure meaning; he can, however, manage travel wants and courtesy requirements; his aural comprehension covers similar areas; he may frequently ask to have questions repeated, or responses re-worded.

Our rendition of the S-2 rating is:

Can respond to a wide range of conversational stimuli so that he can carry on a conversation within the range of his experience and interests; may make a number of mistakes though they do not usually obscure meaning; his confidence often is greater than his facility; his knowledge of the language would be considered to be self-generative if he lived in an environment where the language was spoken; he can understand conversations within the range of his experience and interests and can express himself simply with some circumlocutions.

Finally, our reworking of the S-3 rating is:

Can engage in all general conversation; can discuss particular interests with ease; makes random errors which do not obscure meaning; can put ideas together into connected discourse and, conversely, select out the main ideas from connected discourse; comprehension is quite complete for a normal rate of speed; accent may be obviously foreign.

Certain emphases have been added to the original FSI ratings. At the S-1 level, the idea of responding to a direct stimulus is an addition. At the S-2 level, the conversational ability is stressed, and the idea that language learning should be considered self-generative has been added. At the S-3 level, the ability to produce connected discourse has been added, as has the idea of summarizing information.

In other words, we have organized our course to lead the students to achieve certain proficiency levels which are not directly related to covering a set number of items in a structural inventory. To achieve our redefined S-1 goal we have prepared what we call the Nucleus Course. It emphasizes such cultural sequences as greetings, giving information about oneself, and telling time. It also teaches the student, obviously within a restricted frame-of-reference, to give a linguistic response to a direct stimulus. The Nucleus Course requires 80 to 100 hours of teaching time. In the Nucleus Course in English, most of the major structural items, both syntactic and morphological, are presented. I'll have more to say about the nature of the presentation in a few moments.

At the Nucleus level, the student for the most part is reacting to a stimulus which is physically present: an object which he can see, an action which he can perform or describe. In the next three books of the English program, which together are intended for about 240 hours of instruction, the emphasis changes to a more abstract use of language - reacting to a secondary rather than a primary linguistic stimulus, or, more simply, to conversation. The goal is to achieve our redefined S-2 level, or perhaps a little higher for students with good aptitude and motivation.

We have not placed any particular limits on the structures used at this level, by the way, though there is a certain amount of grading according to the length and complexity of the sentences that are used.

Two out of four advanced texts have been prepared in the English series, with the goal of reaching our definition of the S-3 level or a little better, together with some practice in composition and style, since most of IML's intensive English students are being prepared to go to universities. The practice in conversation continues, but there is a new emphasis on connected discourse, on the one hand, and on summarizing information, on the other. Each level is not just more of the same, with additional vocabulary items. At each level, a different, and more difficult, language skill is demanded from the students.

I have said that Situational Reinforcement is not structure-oriented, but structure must somehow be covered. How then do we present it and order it?

It is presented and ordered according to a situational frame-of-reference. At the Nucleus level, a series of sequences is built up around objects which can usually be found and actions which can usually be performed in a classroom - the immediate environment in which the student finds himself. The items which make up the sequence are controlled by the situation, not by an analysis of structures. And it is performing the sequence as a whole, rather than drilling on its individual parts, to which the teacher is building.

It would be descriptive to say that structures are presented in clusters, rather than individually, in connected patterns of discourse rather than isolated patterns of structure. Because their presentation is controlled by the situation, structures appear over and over again in a variety of different circumstances. A system of continuous review is therefore built into the teaching material. Any given structure is also effectively contrasted with several others, again in a variety of different circumstances.

Each sequence is built up from a series of separate response drills, each of which consists of a question and answer, or a command, question, and answer. Each of them is a genuine communication, a real use of language that is related to a contextual frame. In the manner that we have prescribed for their presentation in the class, the teacher has the students listen while making sure that they understand the response drill. They then repeat the response drill. After this it becomes an exchange between teacher and student, with the teacher asking the question and the student giving the response. Then two students practice the drill between themselves. Another response drill is added to the first with the same procedures, and then the two are practiced together, until finally the students are able to perform the entire sequence. Many of the sequences offer alternate items. A sequence with book, for example, might have notebook as an alternate item. The sequence would be practiced all the way through with book before notebook was introduced into the sequence.

At the Nucleus level particularly, there is a great deal of motor activity involved in performing the response drills. Various studies that have been carried out lead to the conclusion that motor activity is a definite aid in speeding the acquisition of language patterns.

There is a very short cycle between presentation of the material - the original listening and repetition - and its use for the purpose of communication.

From the very beginning, the teachers are encouraged to vary the situations or to create analogous situations. The students are thus compelled to recombine the various patterns which have been presented to them. They are put into situations - controlled situations - where they have to choose the correct patterns; in other words, where they are generating language.

Finally, the Nucleus and its work book and the SR texts on all other levels have more reading and writing practice than has been common with ALM materials. The ALM theory rightly gave priority to developing the aural-oral skills, but often to the extent where any reading other than the drill material and the dialogues was not encouraged. The structural presentation of ALM materials was another barrier to the use of reading, especially at the beginning stages. Readings using nothing but sentence patterns with be present a rather severe limitation on content.

In fact, reading from the earlier stages seems to me to have two distinct advantages, other than the obvious one of reinforcement. One of them is as a synthesizing experience - recombining the structures that have been presented and thereby helping to broaden the students' frame-of-

reference, both linguistically and experientially. Since SR presented a larger number of structures at an earlier stage than ALM or grammar-translation have normally done, we were able to include simple readings in Lesson III of the Nucleus text and Lesson I of the Nucleus workbook. The second purpose for which the readings have been used is to present structural items within a contextual frame which makes clear their function. In the reading for Lesson III of the Nucleus, for example, the expression too meaning also is introduced without having been given previously in the oral material; in the reading for Lesson IV, nouns in sequence are given for the first time; and so on.

Nobody has made a complete structural inventory of our Nucleus text - in part because I have discouraged it - but it does include the major syntactic patterns, the major tenses with the exception of the perfect tenses, some of the modal auxiliaries, a few readily accessible examples of the passive and of verbals - in fact, something that resembles a real mix of language structures. In fact, the attempt throughout has been to present language as a whole rather than little fragments of language which the student would later have to assemble like a jigsaw puzzle.

The teacher plays a very important part in SR. In rigid applications of ALM, the teacher is usually considered to be a model and a drillmaster. With SR he fills these functions, as of course he must, but he must also see that the students relate to the situations; he must be prepared to create situations or to take advantage of those that happen, as when a student drops a book, for example. Above all, he must be prepared to correct and prompt and guide the students in a way that will always help them toward more effective communication.

Parenthetically, teachers who have been trained in ALM - and most of those who work for IML have been - have problems when they first use SR. Almost invariably they feel that they have to stop and drill, to provide some mechanical exercises, on each pattern as it occurs, according to the "overlearning" theory which is so much a part of ALM. In fact, the continuous review and the opportunity to recombine and to generate that is provided by SR has proved in our experience to be a more valuable approach to learning.

I recently came across a listing by E. V. Gatenby of what he considers the ten principal steps by which a child absorbs his native language. They are:

1. New names are learnt in close association with the object, quality, or action named, or with pictures of them. There is nothing corresponding to the conveying of meaning through use of another language.

2. The learning is through aural perception, not through visual symbols for sound.

3. Common groups of sounds rather than single sounds remain in the memory to be treated as units of speech.

4. Speech is learnt to the accompaniment of physical, emotional, and to some extent (as in story-telling) mental activity. Such learning or mental impressions are unconscious; that is, the child centres its attention on the action - its own, or that of others - not on the sounds that accompany it. The retention of the "sound effects" is effortless.

5. Constant correction goes on.

6. Natural compulsion or necessity. The child must use language to satisfy its many wants.

7. Nature supplies the maximum number of teachers and teaching equipment and devotes the maximum amount of time to her task.

8. Constant revision - that is, review in American usage - goes on.

9. The whole process is full of variety and interest.

10. Speech only is taught - not reading or writing.

We feel that we have met most of these criteria in our Nucleus programs. Our greatest variation, of course, is that we use reading and writing to supplement oral-aural procedures; but the age of our students as well as their reason for studying has made this feasible. Second, of course, we cannot devote the same amount of time or the same number of teachers to the task as nature does. Instead we have tried to control the environment and the situations to make them as linguistically universal as we can. And third, nobody learns a second language except voluntarily, so compulsion is necessarily lacking. Again, we have tried to compensate by cutting down early frustration and providing activities that involve and motivate the students.

Our model, in short, for putting together the Nucleus course has not been an analysis of the target language but rather the way in which children learn their native language, as far as we understand it. We have tried to fit it within a classroom situation and to control it, since control, of course, is the essential ingredient of a system.

Above the Nucleus level content and its use assume paramount importance. We have thus far worked on two quite distinct courses above the Nucleus -

a course with technical content for our Jeddah program and a course with general cultural orientation content for Washington. We are also preparing courses for students who wish to learn office skills and for those who wish to learn management practices.

Because of the large inventory of structural items that we introduced in the Nucleus level, we found that we were able to introduce meaningful material - skill-oriented material - at a much earlier level than has been possible in most language courses. In our Jeddah program this was a matter of absolute necessity. Many of the students were going on to take technical training. In the original ALM course, a number of technical words were introduced in the drills, and some readings in science were introduced at the intermediate level. But these were inadequate. Comprehension was a constant problem; and, since the original course was laid out along traditional ALM lines, structures such as the passive voice and causal verbs were not introduced early enough to give any real preparation for the kind of prose style in which technical manuals are written. Furthermore, the students generally had enormous gaps in their education, at least from a Western point-of-view. They were strangers on the whole to even the most basic scientific concepts.

In the SR version of the Jeddah program, the Nucleus was extended to include practice in using English weights and measures and handtools. The basic purpose, of course, was practice in the language, but we took advantage of the needs of the program both for motivation and actually to implant skills. At the upper levels, the material is directed toward practice on mathematical skills and on various scientific concepts. Again, the target is the use of language, but there has been a definite gain in the educational background of the students and in student interest.

Our Washington program differs considerably from the Jeddah program, which is a very specialized one. The majority of the students in Washington are going on to schools and universities; a large proportion of the remainder are people who are going to live in the United States either as members of diplomatic missions or as immigrants. The content of the material for the Washington program, therefore, has been planned around an orientation to American life.

While the material is of some intrinsic interest to the students, the real point is in its organization and use. For the moment I am speaking only about the first three Orientation books - those which are intended to bring the students up to the S-2 level. Each book is intended for approximately 80 hours of instruction.

In a typical lesson there are two separate sequences, each dealing with a different phase of American life and customs. At the beginning of each sequence there is a listening practice which is related to a picture

or to visual aids, such as coins, driver's licenses, credit cards, and so on. The listening practice is given essentially for the purpose of comprehension. Following the listening practice, there is a series of response drills in question and answer form; these include the same information that's given in the listening practice, though not necessarily in the same words. The same steps are used in presenting the response drills as in the Nucleus Course; that is, listening, repeating, teacher-student practice, and student-student practice. Also as in the Nucleus Course, the point is to build the response drills into a sequence.

The material is in no way similar to AIM dialogues. It is a real exchange of information on such subjects as vending machines, renting cars, buying gasoline, sports, credit and banking arrangements. The situations, or topics rather, are graded through the course of the three books from the more concrete - coins, bills, vending machines, for example - to the less concrete - banking and credit arrangements, Immigration and Naturalization Service regulations. The structures that are used are those which are necessary to impart the information. As in the Nucleus, they are presented in clusters, and they occur over and over again so that there is continuous review.

Furthermore, the sequences are not intended to be taught like AIM dialogues; they are not intended to be memorized and acted out like a little play. Teachers are encouraged to be permissive with answers to the questions in the response drills; that is, the exact answer in the text does not need to be memorized and parroted back to the teacher; any structurally and semantically correct answer is acceptable. In fact, we feel that variations from the set responses should be encouraged rather than discouraged.

In the Nucleus Course, the lessons build to a practice of the sequences and situational variations on them. In the Orientation books, the lessons build to a conversation practice. In the texts, this is given as a series of suggested questions that the teachers can ask or use as models for questions of their own. The questions generally divide into two categories: those that deal with the student's own experience with a particular cultural phenomenon; or those that ask him to contrast an American cultural pattern with one in his own country.

These do not serve the same purpose as the comprehension questions with which we are all familiar from a number of language teaching methods. They are instead an attempt to provide controlled conversation from a very early level. The topic is restricted but the structural inventory is not. New patterns and new combinations of patterns are constantly being given; indeed, the response drills and sequences act as patterns of discourse. Language is treated as a whole within the levels of proficiency throughout the SR program.

In practice, this can be carried to a point where it is fair to say that no one lesson, or at least the conversation practice from any lesson, is unique and irreplaceable because it gives practice on one particular structural item. There are obviously topics about which some students will be willing, even anxious, to talk, and other topics in which it is difficult to elicit much interest at all. Rather than pursue a topic in which the students display no interest, it is better to go on to the next lesson. It may well be that a personal experience will revive interest in a topic which was covered some days before.

That remark presupposes that the students are in contact with American behavior patterns, as our students in Washington of course are. However, we also have a school in Mexico City, where the problems are somewhat different. When the teachers first started to use the Orientation texts, they complained that many of the phenomena described were not characteristic of Mexico. Their particular example was that a Mexican man would never take his clothes to the laundry. But of course they were missing the point - that it was an opportunity to talk about the cultural difference. The response drills and the sequences give information about American customs and practices as a background to which the student can relate his own experiences, either within his own culture or as an observer of or participant in American life.

At the Nucleus level, there is a definite attempt to include as many of the basic syntactic and morphological patterns as possible, though not in an order decided in advance. The Orientation I book also deliberately includes a few more patterns that were not covered in the Nucleus.

Other than this, however, the order and choice of pattern is essentially random. They appear - and reappear - according to the necessity of imparting information. I have mentioned before and want to emphasize again that patterns recur over and over again. The process for the student is one of gradual familiarization with the whole rather than the overlearning of individual segments that is prescribed by AIM.

There is another point that I would like to make about our handling of the corpus. I believe that we cover more patterns than most linear language programs. I can, for example, think of about 50 different ways of expressing contrastive and oppositional ideas in English, some of them rather recherché, of course. If these are covered at all in a linear course, they are usually crammed in hastily at the advanced level. We begin exposing the students to these, and to expressions of purpose, result, condition, and so on, from the Orientation I level.

As in the Nucleus Course, readings are also used in the Orientation books. They serve the same purposes of broadening the student's frame-of-reference and introducing and reinforcing structures. They also serve

the purpose of maintaining a structural mix. If, for example, the response drills use the simple present tense extensively, the readings are apt to use the simple past tense extensively.

The teacher's role of course is very important. A weak teacher can reduce the entire system to repetition, memorization, and routine questions. A strong teacher can generate excitement and discussion.

Our advanced material begins with the Orientation IV level, and has not yet been completed. At the Orientation I level, the conversation practices were added to give the students a new challenge. At the Orientation IV level, another type of exercise, called a sequencing practice, has been added as still another challenge. As I said earlier, we felt that one of the features that should distinguish the S-3 level was the ability to produce connected discourse. The sequencing practices are intended to lead to this ability. The student is asked to summarize the response drills, or a subject suggested by them, in two or three connected sentences.

Then, following the readings, instead of the customary comprehension questions, the student is asked to summarize each paragraph in one sentence. He is then asked to expand these sentences into a paragraph without referring to his book.

In the Orientation V book, *Schools and Universities*, the conversation practice is moved to the beginning of the lesson. It was felt that at this level, the students should be able to generate a conversation of their own without the support of the information given in the response drills.

The material at this level has become much more abstract and conceptual. It is presented throughout the book without any pictures or other visual aids. Language has become the sole medium of communication. The readings are also pitched to a much more mature level.

There will eventually be two more books to follow the Orientation V: *Schools and Universities* text. One will deal with American government and will include the same kinds of practices. The second, and the last book in the series, will deal, consciously for the first time, with problems of style and usage. It will be intended primarily for those students who are going on to universities.

In addition to the basic texts, we are also developing a series of supplementary materials which are intended to be used in close connection with the texts. From the Nucleus through the Orientation III level, there are Workbooks which are intended for practice in writing. We have a duty to give our prospective university students in Washington practice in writing as soon as possible. I also believe that written practice fixes a pattern more firmly for many students than any other kind of

exercise. I am not trying to suggest, of course, that writing has priority over oral-aural practice. Rather we are extending the theory of short cycle from presentation to use to include writing too.

The Workbooks have picture cues about which questions are asked, the same or similar to those given in the response drills. They also include additional short readings with comprehension questions.

We are also developing a series of supplementary readers from the Orientation I level through the remainder of the course. They have been put into use so recently that I can only say that it is our hope that they will be an aid in guiding the students toward producing connected discourse at an even earlier level. In the readers for Orientation I and II, there is a picture which illustrates a reading. This is followed by a series of comprehension questions. Some of them can be answered from information given in the text or the illustrations, but others have to be answered out of the student's inferences or imagination.

The students then have to put their answers together into paragraphs. Any short answers have to be added if they are necessary.

We are also preparing tapes and tape books for the entire series. The tape books are similar to the Workbooks, with responses to questions to be given on the basis of picture cues. The further into the Nucleus one goes, the more of these are intended to make the students generate new sentences - that is sentences that have not occurred previously in classroom practice.

Situational Reinforcement is an attempt to create a language learning system built primarily on psychological principles rather than on linguistic principles. This is not a repudiation of linguistics but an effort to put its findings into a different framework. No one at IML would claim that every part of SR is entirely original, or that it is the final answer to language teaching. There are many obvious problems - progress and aptitude testing, for example, or what to do about the student who demands to learn grammar. We do feel, however, that we have broken through one major barrier - the idea that a language course must be organized along the lines of a step-by-step analysis of language. We have gone further and organized a program around a different set of assumptions, and we are surrounded every day by the evidence that so far at least we have been right.

High Intensive Language Training

by

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Brattleboro, Vermont, U. S. A.
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Having now had experience with two high intensity language programs in Peace Corps training, I would like to pass on to interested staff members a few of my observations

I am pleased with the results obtained with this type of program, both from the point of view of language learning and from that of the various extra-linguistic components of the training program which can be subsumed under the name orientation. It seems to me that especially in the area of orientation, there is much that The Experiment could and should use in its own programs.

First, let me describe my observations and evaluations of HILT as a language learning program. (By HILT, I mean a 4 week period of approximately 200 hours, a significant portion of which - at least 100 hours - is total immersion.)

Probably if one compares a HILT-type program where up to 200 hours of language learning is condensed into one month, and a program where 200 hours is spread over a longer period of time, the results, as measured by an FSI proficiency test would not be markedly different. But there are, I feel, certain clear advantages to be gained through a HILT program. They are discussed below.

Grammaticality. Probably, the grammaticality of one's speaking habits is more a function of extensive exposure to a language than it is to intensive exposure. In other words, the development of grammaticality as habitual behavior requires time, and intensive language programs by their very nature cannot provide an extensive exposure to a language.

Pronunciation. I don't see any great difference here, although I do have a feeling that in a HILT program where there is constant exposure to native-speaker pronunciation, there is less danger of incorrect pronunciations becoming established through negative reinforcement.

Comprehension. The HILT language learner's comprehension of the target language is quite definitely superior to that of the trainees in other programs. This is simply and obviously true because the learner hears more of the target language. This is especially true of HILT programs that contain a significant period of immersion. During immersion, the learner simply MUST listen in order to function.

Vocabulary. The HILT learner definitely builds a larger and more functional vocabulary. This is because the vocabulary he acquires is stimulated by the force of his own needs. And, with an immersion component, gaps in vocabulary become immediately apparent because the learner's daily life determines the vocabulary to be learned.

Fluency. HILT learners are very definitely stronger in this area. In fact, I would single this out as the area of greatest strength in HILT programs. The immersion period is especially important here. During immersion a few responses are used so often that they become automatic. I have observed, for example, TEFL trainees using Farsi classroom expressions quite unconsciously while engrossed in teaching English.

Fluency in a language is attained only through a willingness to USE the language; to try to say something and be unafraid of mistakes. HILT, and especially immersion HILT very successfully breaks down the barriers and inhibitions that keep many people from trying to speak the target language. It has been my experience that HILT produces a language learner who babbles - albeit not always grammatically - in the language. Not only does he overcome the inhibitions about using the new language, but he also builds up a very valuable psychological attitude toward the language he is learning. He no longer views the target language as a "foreign" language (a corruption of, or an inaccurate copy of "real" language - his native language) but he begins to accept the target language as a genuine medium of communication in which he can live. In essence, the "foreign" language becomes a "second" language.

Another aspect of fluency needs to be mentioned. By learning circumlocutions and by learning to manipulate quickly a small number of patterns, the learner can become quite fluent in the target language without really being a master of it. The force of necessity generated in a HILT program pushes the learner to learn how to circumlocute and use effectively and efficiently the limited language he knows.

A HILT program is well suited to the aims of Peace Corps because its strongest features are in the area of comprehension, vocabulary, and fluency. The Peace Corps volunteer must be strong in these areas if he is to get things done and survive in another culture. To a certain extent, grammaticality and pronunciation are niceties. This, of course, is not news to EIL, since our aims - survival and functioning in a foreign culture - are essentially the same.

The implementation of a HILT program requires techniques that are basically the same as a more standard audio-lingual intensive language. There are some special and general features of approach and technique in a HILT program which I would like to discuss briefly.

1. HILT should be approached through an orientation period of at least 40 hours. Immersion works better if around 100 hours of warm-up precede it. This is especially true in the case of learners who have no previous knowledge of the language they are learning. During the orientation period emphasis is placed on building a "survival vocabulary" so that one can actually survive during immersion. Essentially, then, for the first 40 hours the learners are engaged in mastering a handful of useful statements, commands, and requests; building "tool questions" which can be used to unlock further language structures and/or words, i.e. "How do you say _____?"

2. A HILT program should use a direct method approach for several reasons. The basic reason, of course, is that during immersion all communication should be in the target language. Thus, the learner must from the very first day of class become accustomed to the fact that the instructor is not going to supply translations or explanations in the native language. It is also psychologically important to remove the crutch of the native language, and to force the learner to start using the target language from the first hour of class. This approach also demands a very active participation on the part of the learner. If he does not attentively listen, watch, ask questions and formulate conjectures on what he sees and hears, he cannot learn the language. The instructors are not forcing the language down the throats of an empty receptacle.

Needless to say, this approach keeps people awake. It also creates discomfort and frustration when meanings are not immediately apparent. But this may not be such a bad thing. One is more apt to retain and value something that is gained through hard work. And one of the few pleasures of being a language student is to discover - by yourself - what's going on. This experience of struggling with the language is also valuable because it better prepares the learner to be his own language analyst once he gets to the country and has no teacher to lean on.

3. As the emphasis in a HILT program is placed on using the language and living in the language, the over-riding concern is acquiring the language is: go ahead and say it, right or wrong. Language classes and drill sessions should reflect this emphasis, and consequently, the program moves as quickly as possible from the repetition stage of language learning to the generation stage. For this reason, more than 4 consecutive repetitions of any one phrase is discouraged, and question and answer drills should be used as quickly as possible. (This approach follows the basic philosophy behind the so-called micro-wave technique.)

4. 8 hours a day of language learning demands that a lot of material and considerable variety of activities be included in each day. It is better to present more material - especially vocabulary - than the student can absorb in any one day. Even if there is only 40% immediate retention of the day's new material, exposure to unretained material is better than no exposure at all - if in the following day (and days) the same structures and words occur again. This re-cycling and review of material is preferable if the repeated items reappear in different contexts. This is not unlike the technique used in programmed textbooks. Above all, variety of classroom activity is essential. For example, I often encourage the teachers to get out of the classroom and conduct a roving language class centered on the vocabulary of the campus, or centered around a conversation topic.

5. The language activities during HILT are the daily culmination of the language learning process. They are designed with two major purposes in mind: 1) to bridge the gap between the classroom mentality established in necessarily controlled drills and conversations, and real-life communication situations. It is my belief that this is the most seriously neglected aspect of most language programs. The classroom is necessarily an artificial situation. There are few distractions (noise) from the communication process. In a real-life communication situation there is considerable "noise", i.e. there are many more things to think about, other than the correctness of one's utterances. And 2) the activities provide a situational stimulus which provokes or elicits the patterns and vocabulary which have been the focus of the classroom drill sessions.

I have concentrated on the HILT program as a language learning program, and although I think there are many many advantages to be gained from the program and approaches described above, the advantages to be gained from the extra-linguistic aspects of a HILT program are, I think, very exciting and very relevant to the Experiment's orientation programs.

Orientation, as I understand it, is aimed at giving the trainee an understanding of what is involved in cross-cultural confrontation; a basic understanding of the culture he is preparing to live in and an increased awareness of himself as a person. In what follows I will describe how the purposes of orientation can be obtained in a HILT language program.

Ideally, of course, the culture of the target country is created on the campus and the student is immersed in that culture. Practically, within the confines of an American context, there are many limitations, but a close approximation can be achieved. This approximation, however, cannot be made only through the extensive use of realia, or even through situations and role plays where the target language is not used. In my opinion, it is not the particular characteristics of scenery, architecture, food, or even social conventions that cause the primary difficulty for the volunteer or experimenter in a foreign land. Culture shock comes not so

much from unfamiliarity (unfamiliar surroundings can be, in fact, stimulating) as it does from the inability to communicate in a satisfying way with the people of the target country. An adult has, after all, an adult's ability to think and feel at a very sophisticated level. And the adult thinks and feels along a culturally (and ultimately linguistically) determined plane. But if the adult foreigner does not speak the language at an adult level, he has no adequate medium with which to share his thoughts and emotions - unless, of course, he seeks out English speakers. The result is isolation.

Isolation with the accompanying feelings of frustration and childishness are the feelings that should be EXPERIENCED in a training program. I would stress the word experience, for descriptions, discussions, observations, and even role-playing in English cannot be a satisfactory experience.

What I am describing, the generation of isolation, frustration, and childishness is obviously best achieved during the immersion segment of HILT. In both of my experiences with HILT, about one week after immersion began, the program apparently broke down. But it was not the program that faltered, but rather the trainees. A gap between staff and trainees developed basically because the staff and trainees, under the structure of HILT were no longer able to communicate and understand each other. In both programs the trainees developed fantastic notions and interpretations of staff conduct. Even the most harmless smile of a staff member was sometimes interpreted as the sinister leer of a sadist. This was a genuine failure in communication brought on by the environment of immersion. Such an experience is a very close parallel to the experience of culture shock.

A few basic features of a HILT program, described below, must be met to create the effects of living in another culture.

1. All communications between staff and trainees must be done in the target language. The staff should not compromise on this.
2. The instructors must be available AND WITH the trainees throughout the day - and night. This creates not only dependency feelings among the trainees, but also brings the trainees into a very close, intimate contact with a native speaker.
3. The evening activities must be planned and structured, but there must also be considerable freedom to allow for spontaneous cross-cultural confrontations. Frustrations do not have to be built into the activity as the activity itself will create frustrating situations. As an example of this, if the trainee is asked to buy a round-trip, second-class bus ticket from Shiraz to Tehran, confusion and frustration arise naturally from the complexity of the task and the inadequacy of the trainee's language. It is worth noting that the trainees often see these activities as "games" or "artificial", but there is nothing artificial about failing to accomplish

something because of poor communication. (And what could be closer to the experience of a fresh volunteer eager to accomplish something in a language he cannot control.)

In addition to being a good language program and a good orientation program, there are other advantages to be gained from HILT.

1. HILT does have the potential to be an effective stimulus to self-selection.
2. The experience itself is a real educational experience, and not just an extension of academia. Intellectual prowess and skillful verbalizations in discussion groups will not be helpful in getting through HILT.
3. HILT can be a confidence builder. By demanding use of the language and giving the trainee the opportunity to accomplish something in the target language, the program helps to overcome the fear of using the language. And by living through psychological conditions similar to those of the stranger in a foreign culture, the trainee can approach his new experience with some confidence that he can live through it. To quote one HILT graduate, now in Iran: "I still feel the cross-cultural aspects of the HILT experience gave me a good psychological preparation for Iran. So far I feel very good about being here. Even the leers in the bazaar haven't bothered me."
4. The experience of HILT is also very useful in giving incidental training in the use of extra-linguistic communication skills.
5. It is my feeling that having participated in HILT, and having struggled with the language, and being forced to figure much of it out for himself, the trainee is better prepared to continue his struggle with the language once he arrives in the country and has no teacher to depend on.

In conclusion, I want to say that by careful integration of language, cross-cultural studies, area studies, and technical studies, HILT can be a very efficient training program.

Teachers' Training Format

by

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Assumptions, aims, principles and timetable for a six day Teachers' Training Workshop.

1. Assumptions.
 - 1) Native speaker or equivalent fluency
 - 2) Some experience of teaching
 - 3) Mixed backgrounds, mixed nationalities
 - 4) Experience of life in a developing country

 2. Aims General.

(a) To produce a well briefed cooperative team of resourceful teachers whose combined skills will together ensure a good volunteer training program and who can teach efficiently from the first day of the course.

 2. Specific Aims

(b) of the Work-shop.

 - 1) To describe and illustrate the pre-entry behavior of the course members
 - 2) To describe and illustrate the target language skills profile or, put another way, the terminal language behavior required of the course members in their various roles in the field
 - 3) To state aims and the philosophy of language learning and practice
 - 4) To introduce and demonstrate the various teaching and learning activities
 - 5) To introduce, demonstrate and practice the various materials, tapes, texts, books, learning models, etc.

 3. The principles of the Teachers' Training Workshop
- O' Objectives must be clear and stated
- P Participation (by the trainees) in the discussions of aims and objectives and in the demonstration and practice provides
- I Information to the trainer or trainers, a continuous
- F Feedback which must ensure
- M Modification of the original aims, objectives and methods. The last step is the
- I Implementation of these modifications which completes the circle and ensures participation.

This is the O'pifmi programme.

The D.S. approach is

do it rather than describe it
show it, don't talk about it.

Day zero: arrival, introductions, dinner together.

<u>Day 1:</u>	8 - 11 Teachers' back-ground and needs. Why are we here? Discussion. Statement of policy and principles. First lesson in Sw.	12 - 3 1) Terminal behavior required of course members. Questions, disc. statement 2) Re-entry level of skills, demonstration, statement, questions 3) Testing and the test battery.	3 - 5 Sport	6 - 10 1) The aims and objectives of language skills courses a) discussion b) questions c) statement of principles.
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<u>Day 2:</u>	A typical timetable, the various learning activities pre-lab, post-lab, practical Engl., topics, the library, the tape library.	Practical admin. details: work permit, bank, police, shopping, etc.		"A log in the machine". The organization of SIDA and our place in it.
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<u>Day 3:</u>	The lab. centered course: a) principles, b) practice. The concept of pre-lab, lab and post-lab work c) materials, the library of tapes. Method: presentation, demonstration, questions and discussion.		Sport	Teaching materials and records search and study
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<u>Day 4:</u>	Class teaching 1) Presentation 2) Demonstration 3) Discussion 4) Practice	Conversation 1) Presentation 2) Demonstration 3) Discussion 4) Practice	Sport	Practical English (as for class teach.) Evening "topics"(as for class teaching)
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<u>Day 5:</u>	Micro-teaching preparation	Micro-teaching discussion	Sport	Week 1 timetable of classes and activities
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Day 6: Preparation of classrooms, materials, lessons.

Day 7: No programme - arrival of course members.

Language Proficiency Testing

by Claudia Wilds
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Department of State

LANGUAGE TESTING IN THE PEACE CORPS

Language testing for the Peace Corps began in June of 1963 when the first Volunteers were ending their service abroad. Examiners from the Foreign Service Institute, the training branch of the Department of State, gave Spanish proficiency tests to some 90 Volunteers in the Chile I and Colombia I groups during their terminal conferences.

Since that time over 2,000 tests have been given overseas, primarily to terminating Volunteers in Latin America and South Asia, and all trainees are rated in speaking proficiency both before and after training. In July, 1965 the testing policy was extended to provide for mid-tour testing in the field wherever possible.

The Testing Procedure

The tests used in the Peace Corps are those developed by the State Department to rate the speaking and reading proficiency of Foreign Service personnel and subsequently applied to personnel of the U.S. Information Agency, the Agency for International Development, and foreign affairs employees of many other Government organizations. They are designed to provide a quick, dependable measure of ability that can be used to determine linguistic qualifications for specific job assignments or need for further training.

A test normally lasts 30-40 minutes; the time is evenly divided between speaking and reading (if there is a writing system and the examinee claims reading proficiency). The examiners are usually a scientific linguist and a native speaker of the language involved.

The speaking part is primarily conducted by the native speaker, with the linguist observing and taking notes on the performance. An experienced testing team will have in mind throughout both the functional skills and the linguistic skills to be measured: the functional skills in the form of topics to be covered, varying from person to person, and the linguistic skills principally in the form of a check-list, mental or written, of phonetic and grammatical features of the language.

The test normally begins with routine greetings, introductions, and other remarks to make the examinee feel at home and give the examiners a sense of whether he is at the top, middle, or bottom of the range.

The next step is usually to ask autobiographical questions about home, family, past and current work, and future plans. If the answers to these questions come painfully or not at all, the rest of the test is conducted at an elementary level. If the answers come with reasonable ease and linguistic accuracy, the questioning usually probes the examinee's field of special interest in more technical detail, explores local current events of all kinds, and may go into quite complex and abstract issues pertinent to the examinee's experience.

In addition to this informal conversation the speaking test may include at least two other features.

The first is a problem given by the linguist (usually in English) in which the examinee and the native speaker play roles. For example, "You have just been stopped by this policeman for having driven unintentionally the wrong way down a one-way street."

The second requires the examinee to serve as an interpreter between the linguist and the native speaker; for example, the linguist may play an American who needs to rent office space and requires special conditions because of certain equipment that must be installed. Such a situation permits elicitation of hard-to-get syntactic patterns, assessment of flexibility of vocabulary, and a precise testing of comprehension.

Through all these interchanges the examiners are constantly alert to the examinee's scope and limitations in the language. The success he has in choosing precise words and structures or in making circumlocutions, the demands he makes on his listener in decoding the message transmitted, the degree to which he understands what he hears.

When they are satisfied with the speech sample collected, the speaking part ends, and they move to the assessment of reading ability, a relatively cut-and-dried procedure.

The reading part requires oral translation into English of passages of varying levels of difficulty, mainly taken unedited from newspapers, magazines, and non-fictional books. Topics are chosen from areas of interest to people in international affairs rather than literary specialists.

The Rating System

Each part of the test yields a score, called respectively an S-Rating and an R-Rating, based on a scale from 0 (no practical proficiency) to 5 (native or bilingual proficiency). Each of the points from 1 to 5 on both S- and R- scales are defined in as much detail as universal applicability permits (see Appendix A), in both linguistic and functional terms. In addition every number except the 5 may be modified upward by a plus (e.g. S-2+), so that there is, effectively, an eleven point scale that can be used.

While the official definitions were developed in terms that could be useful to examiners, examinees, and future employers, assignment boards, universities, etc., supplements to the S-Ratings were written later specifically for language specialists (Factors in Speaking Proficiency, Appendix B) and examinees (Check List for Self-Appraisal, Appendix C). Although these three descriptions have different emphases, they converge in their characterization of behavior at each level.

Because the scales cover the whole range of competence, rather than mastery of a limited body of material as in an academic course, they are especially appropriate for measuring the varied patterns of growth demonstrated by the Peace Corps Volunteer. Here are two typical testing records for PCV's in Latin America:

<u>Pre-training</u>	<u>Post-training</u>	<u>Mid-tour</u>	<u>Final</u>
S-0	S-2	S-2+ R-2	S-3 R-3
S-2	S-3	S-3+ R-3+	S-4 R-4+

Even though the distance from one point to the next on the scale is not equal, all along the range, the ratings can be handled as if that were the case, without serious distortion. Consequently considerable information can be gained from analysis of test scores alone.

Linguistic Characteristics of PCVs

When the testing program first began there was much concern that the Volunteer would be penalized for the brand of the language he spoke. Peace Corps staff members assumed that Volunteers would be very proficient speakers of a highly localized illiterate "dialect." It was suggested that a third rating be established to measure competence in this dialect--a suggestion which turned out to be unwarranted.

In every language tested the mistakes Volunteers make are normally those made by all native speakers of English. While most Volunteers acquire marked regional accents, this fact is of no importance so long as they are intelligible to an educated native speaker of the same region. Otherwise the range of vocabulary and ability to understand normal discourse is in no way exceptional. While fluency tends to be high, control of grammatical structure varies according to training, sensitivity to language, and amount of experience, not according to locale. Again and again two Volunteers working in the same village have come out with ratings as different as S-2 R-1+ and S-4 R-4. The first will deny that many forms of the language are used in the village (e.g. "But nobody ever used the subjunctive"); the other will have observed and mastered the usage of those very forms, will have read as widely as time and resources permit, and as a result will be more useful linguistically not only in that village but everywhere else the language is spoken.

It has become very clear in every group tested that growth in awareness of grammatical structure tends to stop at the end of training. Vocabulary expands and fluency increases, but it is very much the exceptional Volunteer who learns new morphological forms and syntactic patterns of his own. Most Volunteers simply do not hear features that were not pointed out (and, preferably practiced) during training.

One of the consequences of this selective deafness is the inability of most Volunteers to compare themselves accurately on linguistic grounds with their fellows. It is not uncommon for some S-2+ to communicate more effectively than some S-3 for reasons that have nothing to do with language: warmth and attractiveness of personality, imaginativeness in using gestures and props, and general skillfulness in exploiting face-to-face situations.

Getting along with the local citizenry and doing an effective job are not factors which can be taken into account by language specialists, nor should they be. One of the continuing difficulties for examiners lies in convincing the Volunteer that it is reasonable and appropriate to judge his linguistic competence rather than his overall success in communication, and that the two abilities are not identical.

As training programs improve and Volunteers are given opportunity and encouragement to go on studying the language in the field, test scores should rise. The mid-tour tests are most valuable as diagnostic instruments which alert the Volunteer to the faults and gaps in his control of the language and provide data on weaknesses of training. If remedial work can be done before the terminal tests, both awareness and proficiency can be expected to improve.

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SCALE

APPENDIX A

The rating scales described below have been adopted by the Peace Corps from the language rating scales developed by the Foreign Service Institute, Department of State, to provide a meaningful method of characterizing the language skills of Peace Corps Trainees and Volunteers. Unlike academic grades, which measure achievement in mastering the content of a prescribed course, the 5 S-ratings for speaking proficiency are based on the absolute criterion of the verbal command of an educated native speaker of the language.

The definition of each proficiency level has been worked so as to be applicable to every language; obviously the amount of time and training required to reach a certain level will vary widely from language to language as will the specific linguistic features. Nevertheless, a person with S-3s in both French and Chinese, for example, should have approximately equal linguistic competence in the two languages.

As currently used, all the ratings except the S-5 may be modified by a plus (+), indicating that proficiency substantially exceeds the minimum requirements for the level involved but falls short of those for the next higher level.

DEFINITIONS OF ABSOLUTE RATINGS

ELEMENTARY PROFICIENCY

S-1 Short definition: Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.

Amplification: Can ask and answer questions on topics very familiar to him; within the scope of his very limited language experience can understand simple questions and statements if they are repeated at a slower rate than normal speech; speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs; errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak his language; while topics which are "very familiar" and elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at the S-1 level should be able to order a simple meal, ask for a room in a hotel, ask and give street directions, tell time, handle travel requirements and basic courtesy requirements.

S-1+ Exceeds S-1 primarily in vocabulary, and is thus able to meet more complex travel and courtesy requirements. Normally his grammar is so weak that he cannot cope with social conversation. Because he frequently says things he does not intend to say (e.g., he may regularly confuse person, number and tense in verbs.) Pronunciations and comprehension are generally poor. Fluency may vary, but quite voluble speech cannot compensate for all the other serious weaknesses.

LIMITED WORKING PROFICIENCY

S-2 Short definition: Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements.

Amplification: Can handle with confidence but not with facility most social situations including introductions and casual conversations about current events, one's work, family, and autobiographical information, can handle with confidence but not with facility limited on-the-job requirements, e.g., simple instructions to students; simple explanations to co-workers; and descriptions of mechanical equipment; but may need help in handling any complications or difficulties in these situations. Can understand most conversations on non-technical subjects and has a speaking vocabulary sufficient to express himself simply with some circumlocutions (non-technical subjects being understood as topics which require no specialized knowledge); accent, though often quite American, is intelligible; can usually handle elementary construction quite accurately but does not have thorough or confident control of the grammar.

S-2+ Exceeds S-2 primarily in fluency and in either grammar or vocabulary. Blatant deficiencies in one of these latter factors, or general weaknesses in both, usually prevent assignment of an S-3 rating. If a candidate is an S-3+ in vocabulary fluency, and comprehension, and if his grammatical errors do not interfere with understanding, he should be awarded an S-2 not an S-2+

MINIMUM PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-3 Short definition: Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to satisfy all normal social and work requirements and handle professional discussions within a special field.

Amplification: Can participate effectively in all general conversation; can discuss particular interest with reasonable ease; comprehension is quite complete for a normal rate of speech; vocabulary is broad enough that he rarely has to grope for a word; accent may be obviously foreign; control of grammar good; errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker.

S-3+ Exceeds an S-3 primarily in vocabulary and in fluency or grammar. The kind of hesitancy which indicates uncertainty or effort in speech will normally prevent assignment of an S-4, though the candidate's way of speaking his native language should be checked in doubtful cases. Frequent grammatical errors must also limit the rating to an S-3+, no matter how excellent the pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

FULL PROFESSIONAL PROFICIENCY

S-4 Short definition: Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs.

Amplification: Can understand and participate in any conversation within the range of his experience with a high degree of fluency and precision of vocabulary, but would rarely be taken for a native speaker; errors in pronunciation and grammar quite rare; can handle informal interpreting from and into the language, but does not necessarily have the training or experience to handle formal interpreting.

S-4+ Should be considered as just short of an S-5. Examiners should always be prepared to justify the awarding of an S-4+ rather than an S-5 by citing specific weaknesses. Reminder: Native-born and educated Americans can conceivably attain S-5. Performance in the test, not biographical information given, is what determines assignment of a rating.

NATIVE OR BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

S-5 Short definition: Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

Amplification: Has complete fluency in the language practically equivalent to that of an educated native speaker. To attain this rating usually requires extensive residence in an area where the language is spoken, including having received part of his secondary or higher education in the language.

	S-1	S-2	S-3	S-4	S-5
Pronunciation	Often unintelligible	Usually foreign but rarely unintelligible	Sometimes foreign but always intelligible	Always intelligible	Native
Grammar	Accuracy limited to set expressions. almost no control of syntax; often conveys wrong information	Fair control of most basic syntactic patterns; conveys meaning accurately in simple sentences most of the time	Good control of most basic syntactic patterns; always conveys meaning accurately in reasonably complex sentences	Makes only occasional errors, and these show no pattern of deficiency	Control equal to that of an educated native speaker
Vocabulary	Adequate only for survival, travel, and basic courtesy needs	Adequate for simple social conversation and routine job needs	Adequate for participation in all general conversation and for professional discussions in a special field	Professional and general vocabulary broad and precise, appropriate to occasion	Equal to vocabulary of an educated native speaker
Fluency	Except for memorized expressions, every utterance requires enormous obvious effort	Usually hesitant; often forced to silence by limitations of grammar and vocabulary	Rarely hesitant; always able to sustain conversation through circumlocutions	Speech on all professional matters as apparently effortless as in English; always easy to listen to	Speech at least as fluent and effortless as in English on all occasions
Comprehension	May require much repetition, slow rate of speech understands only very simple, short familiar utterances	In general understands non-technical speech directed to him but sometimes misinterprets or needs utterances reworded. Usually cannot follow conversation between native speakers	Understands most of what is said to him; can follow speeches, clear radio broadcasts, and most conversation between native speakers, but not in great detail	Can understand all educated speech in any moderately clear context; occasionally baffled by colloquialisms and regionalisms	Equal to that of the native speaker

THE 'FLEXIBLE FRAME'

by

Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

In a local school system or in a university, the 1
typical language teacher has had some training 2
for his job. This training has left him with a 3
repertoire of techniques — good or bad — 4
which he at least partially understands and be- 5
lieves in. It has also left him with appreciation 6
for at least one kind of textbook. If the depart- 7
mental structure within which he is working allows 8
him to use such a textbook, he is happy. If it 9
prevents him, he at least knows which other text- 10
book they 'ought' to prescribe. After a few years 11
of this kind of life, particularly if he has had 12
some success, he begins to develop 'his own method', 13
and may even begin to approach publishers on behalf 14
of his own little monolith. 15

Most Peace Corps language teachers cannot be like 16
this, and possibly they should not. They are fre- 17
quently chosen because they are available native 18
speakers, to work in a three-month program for 19
which planning was begun less than six months ago. 20
Their preparation for language teaching consists 21

of having observed their own teachers of English 22
or French in secondary school, and may be modified 23
by a few days of orientation just before the start 24
of the training program. They may feel, sometimes 25
correctly, that they are simply replaceable parts 26
in someone else's machine. Even the most skill- 27
fully written 'audio-lingual' or 'microwave' mate- 28
rials will require them to teach in ways that are 29
alien to them, and to adopt a role with which they 30
cannot identify. Teacher-training demonstrations, 31
if brilliantly conducted as they sometimes are, may 32
alleviate matters, and an empathetic language coor- 33
dinator may be able to mollify their discontent, but 34
the problem remains. 35

All of this has its effect on reaction to teaching 36
materials. The course that has been put into the 37
hands of the instructors is sometimes only the first 38
or second course ever written for English-speaking 39
learners of that language. It may have been produced 40
in a very short time by an inexperienced team. Even 41
when this is not so — even when the book has been 42
written by a skilled team with recent, relevant 43
experience — it very frequently meets rejection. 44

Its vocabulary is not quite what this group of stu- 45
dents needs, or the order in which topics are taken 46
up is wrong, or there are too many grammatical ex- 47
planations or too few, or the drills are inadequate 48
or overdone, or the dialogs are too stilted or too 49
slangy or in the wrong dialect. For whatever 50
reason, all that has gone before is nothing; nothing 51
will do but to write our own. 52

Let me emphasize that this reaction is seldom 53
entirely irrational, though as we have seen, it may 54
derive some animus from the emotional hazards of the 55
teaching situation. There is always some factual 56
basis as well. The pity is that, starting from 57
scratch, a language staff with a heavy day-to-day 58
teaching load is seldom able to produce even what 59
its own members want. 60

One answer, from the modular point of view, is to 61
provide a greater and greater proliferation of 62
'modules' from which prospective users can make 63
their own selection. This may help, but an array 64
adequate to satisfy 99% of the clients would be 65
prohibitively vast. Another answer would be to 66

provide at least one module which is very open- 67
ended, in which the language coordinator and his 68
staff are given just enough direction to keep 69
from drifting, and to which they can contribute 70
content according to their own judgment. This is 71
the purpose of the 'flexible frame'. 72

The flexible frame has only two givens: a set of 73
intersecting lines at right angles to one another 74
(Fig. 1) and a format for individual lessons. The 75
format may be microwave, or any other very brief, 76
sharply focussed format. 77

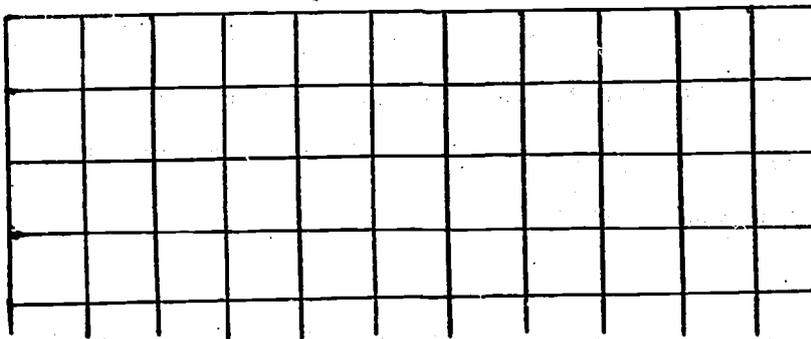


Fig. 1

Notice that the top and left-hand sides of the frame 78
are closed, but the lower and right-hand sides are 79
open. 80

The first point at which the local staff can contribute is in choosing the first few situations in which their students will need to use the language: 'the dining room', 'the football field', 'the classroom', 'public transportation', etc. Each situation is assigned a row on the frame (Fig. 2).

The next step is to select the questions that the trainees will want to ask and answer in these situations. 'Who is that?' will elicit the names of participants: 'a student', 'a teacher', 'the director', 'a visitor' in the classroom; 'the driver', 'the conductor', 'a passenger' on a bus. Other questions may elicit names of objects, locations of objects, locations and destinations of people, and so on. Each question-type is represented by a column (Fig. 2).

	A	B	C	D
	Who is that? What is that? Where is the ___? Where are you g			
1. In class				
2. Dining room				
3. Public transp.				
4. On th				

Fig. 2

The third step is to fill in the boxes one by one. 98
Each stands for at least one microwave cycle or 99
other short lesson. If each is written by a member 100
of the staff and checked with other members, there 101
is a good chance that it will be acceptable to this 102
group of instructors in its dialect and style. 103
Some examples, from Fig. 2, are: 104

- 1A. Who is that? 105
- It's a student. 106
 - It's a teacher. 107
 - It's a visitor. 108
 - It's the director. 109
 - It's the language coordinator. 110
- 1B. What is that? 111
- It's a chair. 112
 - It's a table. 113
 - It's a book. 114
 - It's a piece of chalk. 115
 - etc. 116

1C. Where is the (book)?	117
It's on the table.	118
It's in the drawer.	119
It's on the shelf.	120
It's at home.	121
etc.	122
2B. What is that?	123
It's the salt.	124
It's a fork.	125
It's a plate.	126
It's an egg.	127
etc.	128
The final set of decisions that the staff makes	129
determines the order in which the lessons will be	130
taught. Working within a single column increases	131
vocabulary while holding grammar constant; working	132
within a single row utilizes some of the same	133
vocabulary, while adding other vocabulary and	134
changing the sentence frames. New difficulties	135
can thus be introduced in a planned way, and one	136
can always see how what one is doing is related to	137

what one has already done. Once the frame is well 138
established, the students themselves may want to 139
participate in these decisions, or even to suggest 140
new topics for the left-hand margin and new question- 141
types for the top. 142

It should be emphasized that the flexible frame is 143
not an outline for a complete language course. 144
Greetings and courtesy phrases, for example, can 145
hardly fit into it. Some grammatical features would 146
be very difficult to teach in this way. There is no 147
provision for adequate structure drills. But the 148
frame does provide a way of introducing, very early 149
and in an organized way, just that vocabulary that a 150
particular group can use most really and realistically. 151
That is its only purpose. 152

	Who?	What is that?	Where is it?	What are you doing?	Where are you going?	What is the diff between this and that?	When?	How many? How long? How much?	etc.	?	?	?
In class	1a	2a	3a	4a	5a	6a	7a	8a	9a	10a	11a	12
Dining room	1b	2b	3b	4b	5b	6b	7b	8b	9b	10b	11b	
Public transp	1c		3c	4c	5c	6c	7c	8c	9c			
Sports	1d	2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d		
Future job study	1e	2e	3e	4e	5e	6e	7e	8e	9e	10e	11	
etc.	1f	2f	3f	4f	5f	6f	7f	8f	9f	10f	11'	
	1g	2g										

What is that? **2a**
 It's a table.
 It's a book,
 It's a piece of chalk,
 etc.

Who is that? **1b**
 It's a waiter,
 It's a cook,
 It's a teacher,
 etc.

What are you doing? **4d**
 I'm playing volleyball.
 I'm reading some.
 I'm putting up the tent.
 etc.

What are you doing? **9c**
 I'm buying a ticket.
 I'm putting my luggage on
 the bus.
 I'm

The Flexible Frame

Talk by EWS before PC language coordinators.

10 March 1968

Foreign Service Institute
 DEPARTMENT OF STATE

1. Draw a grid with the right and bottom edges open.
2. Decide on the situations that you want to use. List on the left margin.
3. Decide on the question types. List across top.
4. Decide which 6 or 8 boxes you want to use first (or next). Start anywhere and move in any direction.
5. Write for each box its question and a number of useful answers. (Boxes 1b, 2a, 4c, 4d have been started on this sheet as examples.)
6. Plan how to get the meanings of these Q and A across using little or none of the students' native language.
7. Try to anticipate pronunciation problems and decide on how to deal with them.
8. Teach each box as if it were a microwave cycle. Use enough answers so that the initial presentation of a box will take 15-30 minutes. Do some RM* with each box. Spend the rest of each period reintroducing and recombining old material.

'MICROWAVE'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

'Microwave' is one method, or format, for writing 1
language lessons. By extension, the term may be 2
applied to a module which consists principally of 3
lessons written in this format. It emphatically 4
is not a method for writing complete language 5
courses. Still less is it a method for teaching 6
languages. 7

A lesson written in the 'microwave' format has 8
usually been called a 'cycle', although I would 9
be happy to hear the last of both terms. A 10
'cycle' typically is based on one utterance in the 11
language — most commonly a question. It also con- 12
tains from four to eight potential answers or other 13
rejoinders to its basic utterance. If the basic 14
utterance and the rejoinders are well chosen, they 15
can lead to almost immediate real or realistic 16
conversation in class, and are very likely to find 17
early use in real life outside of class. For best 18
results, all sentences should be fairly short (few 19
with more than 12 syllables), and also fairly simple 20
in their structure. A cycle is easier to learn if 21
all of its rejoinders follow a single grammatical 22

pattern. The writer of the cycle may in fact use 23
() to show those nouns, verbs or adjectives that 24
may be replaced by other words so as to provide 25
still more rejoinders without changing the struc- 26
ture of the sentence. When the users (instructors 27
or students) make these replacements, the cycle is 28
said to have been 'relexicalized'. 29

From this brief description it should be obvious 30
that cycles have potentially very high ratings in 31
usability (Assumption I), responsiveness (Assump- 32
tion III), and user responsibility (Assumption IV). 33
Just how much of this potential is realized for any 34
one program depends on three factors: (1) the in- 35
ternal structure of the individual cycles, (2) the 36
relationship of the cycles to each other, (3) the 37
degree to which the content is pertinent to the 38
interests of the students. The same three factors 39
of course affect the success of textbooks other 40
than microwave. But while an inappropriate micro- 41
wave course is no more unmotivating than an inap- 42
propriate course of some other kind, an appropriate 43
microwave course can go far beyond most other formats 44
at least for young American adults who are about to 45
go abroad. 46

Cycles have been written in three kinds of setting: 47
(1) by individuals in their own private language 48
study with an instructor, (2) by Peace Corps lan- 49
guage coordinators who are providing lessons for 50
current programs, (3) by materials developers who 51
are trying to produce texts that will be useful in 52
a number of future programs. What is true in one 53
of these three settings is not necessarily true in 54
the others. Specifically, individuals may make 55
occasional use of cycles at either the elementary 56
or the intermediate level, but it is doubtful 57
whether classes ought to use them beyond the intro- 58
ductory stage (i.e. the first 150 hours). Again, 59
sequencing of cycles, which will be discussed below, 60
is of very little importance to the individual user, 61
of greater importance in ad hoc materials for on- 62
going programs, and of greatest importance — and 63
difficulty — in preparing a permanent textbook. 64

The writing of individual cycles can best be dis- 65
cussed by reference to a number of examples: 66

Example A (English) 67

Basic utterance: 'What is your name?' 68

Potential rejoinders: My name is Bill Williams.	69
My name is Clyde Bonney.	70
My name is Ethel Redd.	71
My name is Carol Singer.	72
Summary: A. 'What is your name?'	73
B. 'My name is (Bill Williams).'	74
Comments on Example A: The subject matter —	75
getting people's names — is well chosen if the	76
cycle is used by trainees who are still getting	77
acquainted with each other. It is also appropriate,	78
but less so, for groups that have passed that stage,	79
since any trainee can look forward to having to get	80
people's names at some time in the future.	81
The length of the sentences (4-7 syllables) is	82
ideal. The names that are chosen for use in pre-	83
senting the cycle may be chosen either for their	84
phonetic problems or for their lack of phonetic	85
problems. After initial presentation of the cycle,	86
names of real people should be used at the point	87
indicated by ().	88

This cycle has a serious flaw, and it is the kind of flaw that writers of language lessons most easily overlook. The short, uncomplicated sentences and the usefulness of the subject matter should not blind us to the fact that the question simply is not idiomatic. 'What is your name?' is used only to children and to inferiors. If I want to know the name of another adult, I must find it out in some other way. I may volunteer the information that 'My name is _____' and expect him to reciprocate.

Example B (French)		100
Bonjour Monsieur.	Good morning.(said to a man)	101 102
Bonjour Mademoiselle.	Good morning.(said to an unmarried woman)	103 104
Bonjour Madame.	Good morning.(said to a married woman)	105 106
Comment allez-vous?	How are you?	107
Bien, merci. Et vous?	Well, thanks. And you?	108
Très bien, merci. Et vous?	Very well, thanks. And you?	109 110
Pas mal, merci. Et vous?	Not bad, thanks. And you?	111 112

Ça va bien, merci. Et vous?	Fine, thanks. And you?	113 114
Je vais bien, merci. Et vous?	I'm fine, thanks. And you?	115 116
Au revoir.	Good bye.	117
Aur revoir, à bientôt.	Good bye, until later.	118

Summary: A. Bonjour (Monsieur).	119
B. Bonjour (Mademoiselle). Comment allez-vous?	120 121
A. (Très bien), merci. Et vous?	122
B. (Ça va bien), merci.	123
A. Au revoir.	124
B. Au revoir, à bientôt.	125

Comments on Example B:	126
The sentences are of suitable length. The subject	127
matter is appropriate for any group, and the sen-	128
tences are all idiomatic. As shown in the summary,	129
() can be filled in various ways so as to make	130
several different conversations.	131

Example B however departs from strict microwave	132
format in three ways: (1) It is really a composite	133
of three cycles, in which the basic utterances are	134
respectively 'Bonjour, (Monsieur),' 'Comment	135

allez-vous?' and 'Au revoir.'	(2) The rejoinders	136
to 'Comment allez-vous'	are practically synonymous	137
with one another.	(3) There is only one rejoinder	138
for the last basic utterance.		139
Example C (Swahili):		140
Basic utterance:		141
Unatoka mji gani?	What city are you from?	142 143
Unatoka jimbo gani?	What state are you from?	144 145
Unatoka nchi gani?	What country are you from?	146 147
Potential rejoinders:		148
Ninatoka mji wa Topeka.	I'm from (the city of) Topeka.	149 150
Ninatoka jimbo la Kansas.	I'm from (the state of) Kansas.	151 152
Ninatoka nchi ya Amerika.	I'm from (the country of) America.	153 154
Summary:		155
Unatoka (mji) gani?		156
Ninatoka (mji) (w)a (Topeka).		157
Comments on Example C:		158
Suitability of subject matter is as for Example A.		159
Length and complexity of sentences are still within		160

the ability of beginners. This cycle provides a 161
fairly realistic way of learning to choose among 162
wa, la, ya in agreement with mji, jimbo, nchi. 163

Example D (French): 164

Basic utterances: 165

Qu'est-ce que vous faites à 6 heures du matin? 166
What do you do at 6 a.m.? 167
168

Et après qu'est-ce que vous faites? 169
And then what do you do? 170

Potential rejoinders: 171

Je me réveille. 172
I wake up.

Après je me lève. 173
Then I get up.

Après je me lave. 174
Then I wash.

Après je m'habille. 175
Then I get dressed.

Après je vais au réfectoire. 176
Then I go to the dining hall. 177

Après je prends un casse-croûte. 178
Then I have a bit to eat. 179

Après j'étudie le français. 180
Then I study French. 181

Comments on Example D: 182

Experienced language teachers will recognize their 183

ancient and trusty friend, the action chain, dis- 184

guised here as a microwave cycle. The subject matter 185

is appropriate for almost any group, although the 186

Comments on Example E:	209
This is an excellent instance of the standard	210
microwave format. The 'M phase' concentrates	211
on <u>mimicry</u> , <u>manipulation</u> , <u>meaning</u> and <u>memorization</u> .	212
It is divided into M-1 (the potential rejoinders)	213
and M-2 (the basic utterances(s)). The 'C phase'	214
goes on to <u>connected conversation</u> and real or	215
realistic <u>communication</u> . The C phase has sometimes	216
been slighted by writers. Sometimes they have con-	217
tented themselves with a mere summary of the M phase.	218
A good C phase should bring in material from previous	219
cycles (e.g. the yes-no question in C-2 of Example E)	220
and should stimulate the imagination of teacher and	221
student so as to produce varied and lively conversa-	222
tions.	223
The key word in each sentence is reproduced in the	224
left-hand column.	225

Example F (Hindi):

	226
पाठ ८	227
मेरा नाम लाल है।	228
मेरा नाम वर्मा है।	229
मेरी उमर बीस साल है।	230
मेरी उमर तीस साल है।	231
आपका नाम क्या है ?	232
आपकी उमर क्या है ?	233
आपका नाम क्या है ?	234
मेरा नाम मोहन है।	235
और आपकी उमर ?	236
बीस साल है।	237

मेरा नाम	my name	238
आप का नाम	your name	239
मेरी उमर	my age	240
आप को उमर	your age	241
Use your own name and age.		242
With the noun नाम <u>my</u> is expressed by मेरा		243
and <u>your</u> by आप का.		244
With the noun उमर, मेरी and आप को are used.		245
उमर is not a sensitive topic in Hindi.		246
<u>Clichés</u>		247
अच्छा	O.K.	248
तो	well... (use this when hesitating)	249
इजाजत दोजिये।	Please excuse me. (when leaving)	250
फिर आइये।	Please come again.	251
माफ़ कोजिये।	Pardon me.	252
समझाइये।	Please explain.	253
Continue accumulating useful words and phrases like these--		254
conversation openers, fillers, and closers. Vary the greeting		255
ritual (p. 9) with other polite phrases. Different greetings		256
are preferred by people of different religious and regional		257
backgrounds.		258

Comments on Example F:				259
In this book, the student never sees Hindi in roman transcription. The subject matter is name and age.				260
Simple but helpful grammatical comments are included.				261
The section on 'cliches' is not in microwave format.				262
Breaking the succession of cycles in some way such as this is highly desirable. Also desirable is the paragraph at the very end, which nudges the student toward greater independence in the study and use of the language.				263
				264
				265
				266
				267
				268
In Examples A-F our interest has been in the writing of the cycles. Some procedures for using them will be discussed with reference to Example G.				269
				270
				271
<u>Example G (Swahili):</u>				272
M-1				273
A. Repeat each utterance after the instructor.				274
B. Give the complete sentence that includes the cue word that the instructor will give you.				275
				276
C. Be sure you understand the meaning of each sentence.				277
				278
Daudi Mnambi	Jina langu Daudi Mnambi.	Daudi Mnambi	My name is Daudi Mnambi.	279
				280
Ann Fine	Jina langu Ann Fine.	Ann Fine	My name is Ann Fine.	281
				282
John Kanyati	Jina langu John Kanyati.	John Kanyati	My name is John Kanyati.	283
				284

Melanie Phillips	Jina langu Melanie Phillips.	Melanie Phillips	My name is Melanie Phillips.	285 286 287
---------------------	------------------------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------	-------------------

M-2 288

Proceed as for M-1. 289

nani?	Jina lako nani?	what?	What is your name?	290 291
-------	-----------------	-------	-----------------------	------------

lako	Jina lako nani?	your	What is your name?	292 293
------	-----------------	------	-----------------------	------------

C-1 294

The instructor will give you a question and supply
you with the formula for the answer. Add your own
name to the sentence and give the answer. 295
296
297

A: Jina lako nani? A: What is your name? 298

B: Jina langu(Phillips). B: My name is (Phillips). 299

Then ask and answer this question with the other
students in the class, using your own name. 300
301

Apply this activity to a real situation outside of
class by asking the names of other students who are
also working on Swahili. Do this at least 5 times
within the next 24 hours. The thoroughness and
imagination with which you perform these outside
assignments will have a major effect on how much you
learn. 302
303
304
305
306
307
308

TO THE STUDENT:	309
The noun /jina/ means 'name'.	310
The possessive stem /ako/ means 'your' (sg.). The	311
/l/ in /lako/ is a prefix that agrees with /jina/.	312
The matter of agreement will be discussed later in	313
more detail. The same prefix /l/ occurs in this	314
cycle with the possessive stem /angu/ 'my'.	315
The interrogative word /nani/ means 'who?'	316
The literal meaning of the whole sentence /Jina	317
lako nani?/ is then 'Name your, who?' There is	318
no word in this sentence that corresponds to	319
English 'is'.	320
<u>Comments on Example G:</u>	321
The material in boxes is for the student, and is given	322
only with the first cycle in the book. The following	323
directions for the instructor are given in the introduc-	324
tion. Translations in () are for the benefit of	325
readers of this article.	326

<u>Ways of conducting the M phase in each cycle:</u>	327
1. <u>Mimicry of the teacher's pronunciation.</u>	328
a. Say aloud each of the complete sentences.	329
Have the students repeat them after you.	330
Try to talk at a slow <u>normal</u> rate of speed.	331
b. When you hear a wrong pronunciation,	332
correct it by giving the right pronunciation	333
again. For example, if the student says	334
/Manambi/ in Cycle 1, simply say /Mnambi/,	335
and have him say it again after you. Or	336
say 'Si /Manambi/, ni /Mnambi/' and have him	337
repeat the correct pronunciation.	338
When all the students can pronounce all the	339
words and sentences well, teach them the	340
meanings:	341
2. <u>Meanings of the sentences.</u>	342
a. Have the students repeat a whole sentence	343
after you. Then give the English, and have	344
them give the Swahili. For example:	345
T: Jina lako nani? (What is your name?)	346
S: Jina lako nani?	347
T: What's your name?	348
S: Jina lako nani?	349

b.	Give sentences at random in either English	350
	or Swahili. Have the students translate	351
	into the other language. Do this <u>only</u>	352
	<u>long enough</u> so that you are sure the students	353
	know the meanings of the Swahili sentences.	354
	It should not be necessary to spend more than	355
	about three minutes on this.	356
	Some teachers like to avoid all use of the	357
	student's mother tongue. Certainly it is	358
	desirable to plan the cycle so that meanings	359
	are conveyed initially so that little or no	360
	English is used.	361
	When the students know the meanings, go on	362
	to manipulation of the grammatical structures	363
	of the sentences:	364
3.	<u>Manipulation of the structures.</u> Give the students	365
	a key word from the left-hand column. The students	366
	reply with the corresponding complete sentence.	367
	In some cycles, the manipulation involved	368
	is only nominal:	369
T:	Jina langu Daudi (My name is D____.)	370
	Mnambi.	371
S:	Jina langu Daudi	372
	Mnambi.	373

T: Ann Fine.		374
S: Jina langu Ann Fine.		375
T: John Kanyati.		376
S: Jina langu John Kanyati.		377
In this example, from Cycle 1, the student		378
has only to remember and reproduce the		379
constant part of the sentence over and over.		380
Manipulation may also require the student		381
to make grammatical choices. So, in Cycle		382
12:		383
T: Ninatoka mji wa	(I'm from the city	384
Baltimore.	of Baltimore.)	385
S: Ninatoka mji wa		386
Baltimore.		387
T: Maryland.		388
S: Ninatoka jimbo la	(I'm from the state	389
Maryland.	of Maryland.)	390
T: Amerika.		391
S: Ninatoka nchi ya		392
Amerika.		393
The student must choose here among /wa/,		394
/la/, and /ya/.		395

When the students are able to perform well	396
all of the activities outlined above, they	397
are ready for the C phase. Experience has	398
shown that instructors working with classes	399
of 5 - 10 students can complete the average	400
M phase in 10 - 20 minutes.	401
Ways of conducting the C phase of each cycle. The C	402
phase consists of one or more short conversations. For	403
each conversation:	404
a. Take the part of the first speaker	405
in the conversation, and have students	406
take turns as the second speaker.	407
b. Let students take both parts in the	408
conversation.	409
It is important in the C phase to talk about people,	410
places and things that are real, and that are of interest	411
to the students. Substitute other words for the ones	412
that are in (). For example, C-1 of Cycle 18 is:	413
A: Kitabu h(iki) (This book is	414
ni (ch)angu. mine.)	415
H(icho) ni (Whose is that	416
(ch)a nani? one?)	417
B: Ni (ch)a Bw. (It is Mr. _____'s.)	418
(Fulani).	419

This stands of course for the conversation:	420
A: Kitabu hiki ni changu.	421 422
Hicho ni cha nani?	423
B: Ni cha Bw. Fulani.	424
but it also stands for many other conversations,	425
among which are:	426
A: Vitabu hivi ni vyangu. (These books are mine.)	427 428
Hivyo ni vya nani? (Whose are those?)	429 430
B: Ni vya Bw. Smith. (They are Mr. Smith's.)	431 432
A: Nguo hizi ni zangu. (These clothes are mine.)	433 434
Hizo ni za nani? (Whose are those?)	435 436
B: Ni za Bw. Mnambi. (They are Mr. Mnambi's.)	437 438
It does <u>not</u> , however, allow for:	439
A: Hiki ni kitabu chako? (Is this your book?)	440 441
or for:	442
A: Kitabu hiki ni kizuri. (This book is pretty.)	443 444

In many cycles, the teacher or the students may	445
feel it worthwhile to introduce extra vocabulary.	446
They are encouraged to do so, being sure that:	447
a. the new words are of special	448
relevance to the interests of	449
the students, and	450
b. the new words fit into the C	451
phase at one of the points en-	452
closed in ().	453
As soon as the students are able to converse easily,	454
correctly, and informatively using the material in	455
the C phase, the cycle has ended. Go on to the next	456
cycle, or review an earlier cycle. Experience has	457
shown that the average amount of time spent on each	458
of the cycles is about one hour. This includes the	459
first presentation of the cycle, and one or two	460
reviews of it on later days. The first time through	461
a new cycle therefore takes no more than 20 - 30	462
minutes.	463
As much as possible, have the students act as well as	464
talk: pointing to a map, standing up to talk, and	465
other simple activities add meaning to the words.	466
Activities also help to keep the students from getting	467
tired and restless.	468

All that has been said about 'microwave' up to this 469
point applies to single 'cycles'. Certain problems 470
arise when one tries to produce a connected series 471
of cycles. Most obvious is the conflict between 472
structure and content. Each of these realms has its 473
own hierarchy, its own demands for continuity and 474
completeness of coverage. Intertwining the strands 475
of phonology, grammar and content vocabulary so as 476
to produce a viable course requires much patience, 477
some skill, and a little luck. The same is of course 478
true in the writing of any series of language lessons. 479
'Microwave', in fact, because each cycle is very short 480
and concentrates on only one point, is perhaps more 481
manageable in this respect than some other formats 482
are. One way of sequencing the early cycles in a 483
series is called the 'flexible frame'. 484

'THE MICROWAVE PRINCIPLE'

485

At the beginning of this fascicle, we said that 486
'microwave' is a format. As others have written 487
and conducted courses that were supposedly based 488
on this format, however, they have modified it in 489
a number of interesting ways. We have already 490
seen (Examples A-G) some of the variations that 491
are possible. From this experience has emerged 492
what might be called the 'microwave principle': 493
manipulation of a very small amount of new 494
material, followed by immediate (real or realistic) 495
use of that material. 496

CASE STUDY H

497

SPANISH

498

The materials prepared for Spanish in the summer	499
of 1968 provide an unusually full spectrum of	500
variations on the microwave principle, all within	501
a language that is widely known to speakers of	502
English. This course consisted of two series of	503
cycles. First was a series of general-purpose	504
cycles, and then a series that had to do specifically	505
with the work of an urban planner or community	506
developer. As these materials are reproduced here,	507
English translations in () have been added.	508

Spanish Cycle 5 509

M-1 510

yo	Yo hago mi trabajo.	(I	I am doing my	511
			work.)	512
tú	Tú haces tu trabajo.	(you	You are doing	513
			your work.)	514
Juan	Juan hace su trabajo.	(John	John is doing	515
			his work.)	516

M-2 517

yo	Qué hago yo?	(I	What am I doing?)	518
tu	Qué haces tu?	(you	What are you	519
			doing?)	520
Juan	Qué hace Juan?	(John	What is John	521
			doing?)	522

C-1		523
Qué (hace)(Juan)?	(What is John doing?)	524
(Juan)(hace)(su) trabajo.	(John is doing his work.)	525 526
This cycle stands near the beginning of the basic series, and it exemplifies the 'classic' microwave format. The three sentences of the M-1 phase are all answers to the questions in M-2. Within both M-1 and M-2, the sentences are related to one another as lines in a short substitution-correlation drill: changing one of the cue words <u>yo</u> , <u>tu</u> , <u>Juan</u> requires a change in the ending of the verb.		527 528 529 530 531 532 533 534
If the cycle is viewed in isolation, its only weakness is that its subject matter is rather flat, and it does not specifically direct the user to undertake comparable manipulation of other, more demonstrable verbs.		535 536 537 538 539

Spanish Cycle 67		540
M-1		541
Quiero que le digas lo que te pasa.	(I want you to tell him what is happening to you.)	542 543 544
Quiero que vayas a Chile.	(I want you to go to Chile.)	545 546
Quiero ir a Chile.	(I want to go to Chile.)	547
M-2		548
Qué quieres que diga al medico?	(What do you want me to tell the doctor?)	549 550
Adónde quieres que vaya?	(Where do you want me to go?)	551 552
Adónde quieres ir?	(Where do you want to go?)	553 554
C-1		555
Qué quieres que diga al médico?	(What do you want me to tell the doctor?)	556 557
Quiero que le digas lo que te pasa.	(I want you to tell him what is happening to you.)	558 559 560
Adónde quieres que vaya?	(Where do you want me to go?)	561 562
Quiero que vayas a Chile.	(I want you to go to Chile.)	563 564
Adónde quieres ir?	(Where do you want to go?)	565 566
Quiero ir a Chile.	(I want to go to Chile.)	567

This is a composite of three cycles, each of which	568
has been collapsed into a single statement in M-1	569
and a single question in M-2. The sentences	570
illustrate the difference between infinitive (used	571
when the subject of the second verb is the same as	572
the subject of <u>querer</u> 'to want') and the subjunctive	573
(used when the subjects of the two verbs are	574
different). Although the printed materials do not	575
say so, the teacher is presumably expected to go on	576
and lead the students to practice this contrast in	577
(real or realistic) communication.	578

Spanish Cycle 26 (CD)			579
M-1			580
luz eléctrica	Hay que planificar el sistema de luz eléctrica.	(It's necessary to plan the electric light system.)	581 582 583 584 585
servicio de	Hay que planificar el servicio de agua.	(It's necessary to plan the water service.)	586 587 588 589
sistema de alcantarillado	Hay que planificar el sistema de alcantarillado.	(It's necessary to plan the sewage system.)	590 591 592 593 594
sistemas de circulación	Hay que planificar los sistemas de circulación.	(It's necessary to plan the traffic patterns.)	595 596 597 598 599
M-2			600
peatones	El sistema de peatones es deficiente.	(The pedestrian system is deficient.)	601 602 603 604
vehículos	El sistema de circulación de vehículos es deficiente.	(The traffic pattern is deficient.)	605 606 607 608 609 610
aceras	Las aceras para los peatones no están bien asfaltadas.	(The sidewalks are not well paved.)	611 612 613 614 615

calles	Las calles para los vehículos no están asfaltadas.	(The streets are not paved.)	616 617 618 619 620
C-1			621
	¿Quiere usted mejorar el sistema de circulación?	(Do you want to improve the traffic pattern?)	622 623 624
	1. Si, quiero mejorarlo.	(Yes, I want to improve it.)	625 626
	2. No, no quiero mejorarlo.	(No, I don't want to improve it.)	627 628
	¿Por qué quiere mejorarlo?	(Why do you want to improve it?)	629
	Porque no está bien planificado.	(Because it is not well planned.)	630 631 632
	¿Por qué no quiere mejorarlo?	(Why don't you want to improve it?)	633 634
	Porque está bien planificado.	(Because it is well planned.)	635 636
	This cycle displays much greater departure from the usual microwave format. In M-1 all of the sentences are lines in a single substitution table based on the frame <u>Hay que planificar _____</u> . M-2 contains two lines based on <u>_____ es deficiente</u> and two lines based on <u>_____ no están(bien)asfaltadas.</u> The sentences of M-1 are not rejoinders or answers to the sentences of M-2. C-1 contains some of the vocabulary of M-1 and M-2, but the sentence patterns		637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645

are in general quite different. One must again 646
assume that the teacher, either on his own 647
initiative or as a result of staff briefing 648
sessions, will fill in some of the details. One 649
must also remember that since this cycle is well 650
into the second series, students will have addi- 651
tional resources on which to draw. 652

	Cycle 27 (CD)	653
M-1		654
	sistemas básicos (basic systems)	655
	Los sistemas básicos incluyen el alcantarillado. (The basic systems include sewage.)	656 657 658
	Los sistemas básicos incluyen el servicio de agua. (The basic systems include the water service.)	659 660 661
	Los sistemas básicos incluyen las calles y las aceras. (The basic systems include the streets and sidewalks.)	662 663 664
	Las calles y las aceras son sistemas de circulación. (The streets and sidewalks are traffic systems.)	665 666 667
M-2		668
	responder (to answer)	669
	Los sistemas básicos responden a las necesidades básicas de la comunidad. (The basic systems meet the basic needs of the community.)	670 671 672 673
C-1		674
	¿Ha estudiado usted los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad? (Have you studied the basic systems of this community?)	675 676 677
	1. Si, los he estudiado. (1. Yes, I have studied them.)	678 679
	2. No, no los he estudiado. (2. No, I haven't studied them.)	680 681

¿Son los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad deficientes?	(Are the basic systems of this community deficient?)	682 683 684
1. Si, los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad son deficientes.	(1. Yes, the basic systems of this community are deficient.)	685 686 687 688
2. No, los sistemas básicos de esta comunidad no son deficientes.	(2. No, the basic systems of this community are not deficient.)	689 690 691 692
¡Ah! La planificación de esta comunidad ha incluido buenos sistemas básicos, ¿verdad?	(Ah! The planning of this community included good basic systems, didn't it?)	693 694 695 696
Si, es una buena planificación.	(Yes, it is good planning.)	697 698
Entonces usted no propone mejoras de esos sistemas básicos, ¿verdad?	(Then you didn't suggest any improvements in these basic systems, do you?)	699 700 701 702
1. No, yo no propongo mejora.	(1. No, I didn't suggest any improvements.)	703 704 705
2. Si, yo propongo mejoras(en el alcantarillado).	(2. Yes, I propose improvements (in the sewage system).)	706 707 708
(Then follows a note in English to the student, with information about the various forms of some verbs used in this cycle.)		709 710 711

Here, as in the preceding cycle, C-1 suggests ways 712
of starting conversations; M-1 and M-2 provide 713
material which may be worked into those conversations. 714
The reason for the distinction between M-1 and M-2 715
in this cycle is not obvious to me. 716

Cycle 28 (CD)	717	
M-1	718	
La meta del urbanista no es sólo la buena planificación física sino <u>consideraciones de estética urbana.</u>	(The goal of the city planner is not only good physical planning, but also considerations of urban esthetics.)	719 720 721 722 723
M-2	724	
¿Sí, hay que incluir en la planificación urbana un sentido estético.	(Yes, it is necessary to include an esthetic sense in urban planning.)	725 726 727
C-1	728	
¿Es la estética urbana una consideración en la planificación?	(Is beauty a consideration in planning?)	729 730 731
1. Si, es una consideración importante.	(Yes, it is an important consideration.)	732 733
2. No, no es una consideración importante.	(No, it is not an important consideration.)	734 735 736
TO THE TEACHER:	737	
After the students have learned the essential vocabulary of this cycle, have them — under your control and direction — hold a discussion among themselves, something like a stage play, in which they treat the physical problems of community planning and the esthetic problems which must also be considered.	738 739 740 741 742 743	

This, the last of three consecutive cycles quoted here, is still less fully developed than the two that preceded it. It nevertheless illustrates the microwave principle: brief, intensive practice followed by immediate use.

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The same set of Spanish materials contained some cycles that were labelled 'extraordinary.' In some of these, M-1 was a short dialog; M-2 consisted of questions over the dialog; C-1 was questions and answers over the same dialog. The principle still remains, although the format has been completely transmuted.

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CASE STUDY I

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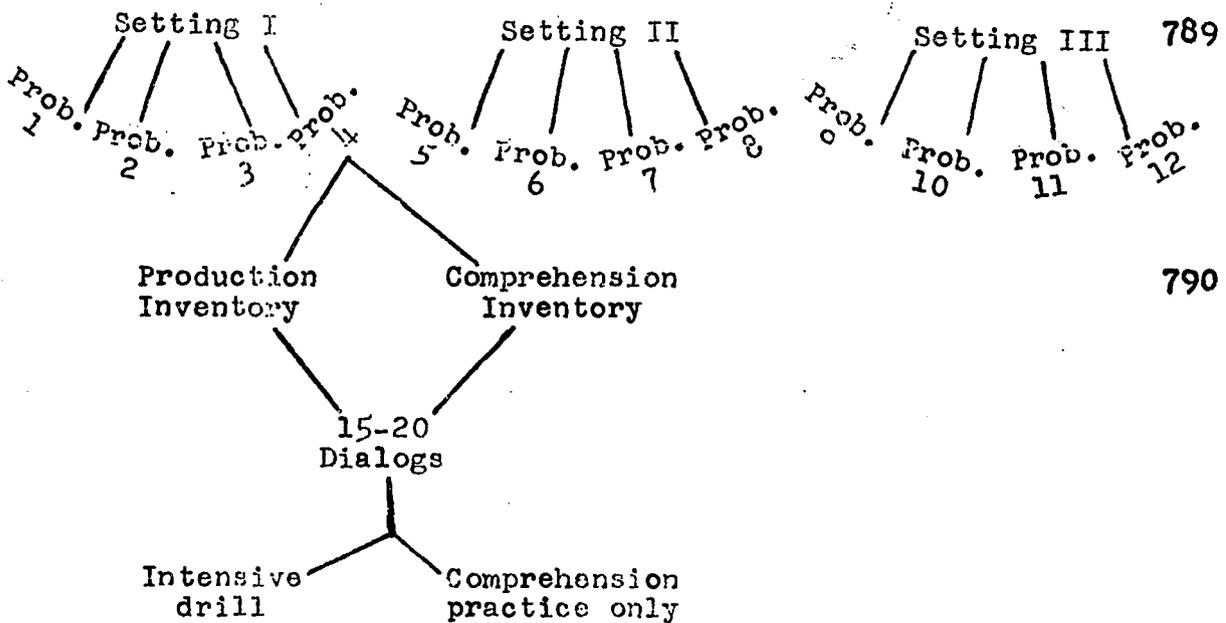
ENGLISH

757

The microwave principle may appear in formats 758
that are quite different from what, with almost 759
a straight face, we may call 'the classical 760
microwave cycle' of M-1, M-2, C-1, C-2. In 1969, 761
FSI was asked to conduct 4-week courses in four 762
languages for Marines who were to serve as security 763
guards in embassies overseas. The content of this 764
course was to be much more sharply defined than is 765
usually practicable for the training of other kinds 766
of trainee. Other than the usual greetings and 767
general phrases, the material was related to only 768
three settings: 'At the Door,' 'On the Telephone,' 769
and 'Dealing with the Clean-up Crew'. Within each 770
of these settings, four problems were selected; in 771
the first setting the problems were 'Checking 772
Identification', 'Giving Information about Embassy 773
Hours', 'Receiving or Refusing a Package', and 774
'Persons Seeking Asylum'. For each of these prob- 775
lems, two lists of sentences were established: a 776
'Production Inventory' which the trainees would be 777
expected to memorize, and a 'Comprehension Inventory' 778
which they would be expected to understand but not 779
memorize. Utilizing these two inventories, a series 780
of 15-20 short (4-6 line) dialogs were next written. 781

Each sentence appeared in from 3-11 different 782
 dialogs. A few of the dialogs for each problem 783
 would later be used for intensive drill in class, 784
 but most would serve as comprehension practice in 785
 the tape lab. 786

A diagram may clarify the relations among the 787
 raw materials of this course. 788



Each problem is developed as shown in the diagram for 791
 Problem 4. The inventories and a few sample dialogs 792
 for Problem 1 were as follows: 793

SETTING: At the door.	794
PROBLEM: Checking identification.	795
PRODUCTION INVENTORY:	796
May I see your (pass, identification)? (18)	797
This pass is (not) valid. (7)	798
This pass has expired. (8)	799
You may (not) enter (without (pass, identification, I.D. card)), (25)	801
I'm sorry. (10)	802
Thank you (sir, madame). (5)	803
Everything is in order. (4)	804
Do you have (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card)? (2)	805
COMPREHENSION INVENTORY:	806
Here is my (pass, identification, I.D. card). (15)	807
Is this (pass, identification, I.D. card) valid? (3)	808
I (don't) have (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card). (9)	809
Would you like to see (other) (pass, identification, I.D. card)? (3)	810
This is the only (pass, identification, I.D. card) I have. (5)	811
Do I need (pass, identification, I.D. card) at this hour? (2)	812
Is this (sufficient, all right)? (3)	813
May I enter? (4)	814
May I go in for just a minute? (6)	815
1. M. May I see your pass, sir?	816
L. Here it is. Is it valid?	817
M. Yes, this pass is valid.	818
You may enter.	819
L. Thank you.	820
2. M. May I see your pass, sir?	821
L. I don't have a pass.	822
M. You may not enter without a pass.	823
L. I have some other identification here.	824
M. I'm sorry. You may not enter without a pass.	

3. L. Would you like to see my pass? 825
M. Thank you, sir. 826
You may enter. 827
L. (It's a nice evening.) 828
M. Yes, sir. 829
4. L. Would you like to see my pass? 830
M. Thank you, sir. 831
I'm sorry. 832
This pass is not valid. 833
L. But it is the only pass I have. 834
*Can't you let me in just this time? 835
M. I'm sorry. You may not enter without a pass. 836
5. M. May I see your pass? 837
L. I'm sorry. I don't have a pass. 838
M. May I see your identification? 839
L. Will this do? 840
M. Thank you, sir. You may enter. 841
6. L. This is the only pass I have. Is it valid? 842
M. I'm sorry. This pass is not valid. 843
May I see your identification? 844
L. Here it is. 845
M. Thank you, sir. 846
L. I have some other identification also. 847
M. Thank you, sir. You may enter. 848

The question, of course, is how to use this mass	849
of material. The microwave principle was applied	850
to the initial presentation of the production	851
inventory. The first half of the treatment of	852
Problem 1 was the following:	853
Lesson 1, Section 1	854
PROPS: Two different passes, two different I.D. cards, two other	855
forms of identification, a "booby prize".	856
PRONUNCIATION: May I see your pass?	857
May I see your identification?	858
May I see your I.D. card?	859
MEANING: Continue mimicry. After each sentence is mimicked, teacher	860
holds up what was asked for.	861
USE: Individual students ask for one of the objects. If they	862
are easily intelligible, teacher holds up the one asked for.	863
If not, holds up booby prize (an autographed picture of	864
Alfred E. Neumann?)	865
Individual students continue to ask for the objects.	866
Other students respond.	867
Lesson 1, Section 2	868
PROPS: As above.	869
PRONUNCIATION: This pass is valid.	870
This pass is not valid.	871
MEANING: One of the passes is defined as valid, the other as not	872
valid. Continue mimicry. After each sentence is mimicked,	873
teacher holds up the appropriate pass. Do same with I.D.	874
cards and other identification.	875
USE: Individual students rule on the validity of the passes held	876
up by the teacher.	877
Individual students rule on the validity of passes offered	878
by other students.	879

CUMULATION: Student asks to see pass, then comments on its validity.	880
Student asks to see I.D. card, then comments on its validity.	881 882
Student asks to see other identification, then comments on its validity.	883 884

Lesson 1, Section 3 885

PROPS: Passes with various expiration dates. 886

PRONUNCIATION: This pass has expired. 887
 This pass is valid. 888

MEANING: Passes in two stacks: expired and valid.. After each sentence is mimicked, teacher holds up an appropriate pass. 889
890

USE: Students are shown a pass. They reply either 'This pass has expired' or 'This pass is valid.' 891
892

CUMULATION: Three kinds of passes. One that was never valid, one that was formerly valid but now expired, and one that is valid. Student asks to see pass, then comments 'This pass is not valid,' 'This pass has expired,' or 'This pass is valid.' 893
894
895
896
897

Lesson 1, Section 4 898

PROPS: As above, plus pictures of men and picture of women. 899

PRONUNCIATION: Thank you, sir. 900
 Thank you, madame. 901
 You may enter. 902

MEANING: Students take turns holding up a valid pass. Repeat after instructor: 'You may enter'. 903
904
 Same, except students repeat after instructor 'Thank you (sir, madame). You may enter.' 905
906

'MICROTEXTS'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

A nineteenth century German, Gabelentz, observed that for
elementary instruction the best language teacher is 'a talkative
person with a limited range of ideas'. If a student meets too many
words and too many new grammar structures too soon, he is over-
whelmed. Yet students are motivated best by genuine use of the new
language, and genuine use, by definition, can place no restrictions
on vocabulary or on grammar. Gabelentz handled this dilemma by the
way he chose teachers. How can his formula be applied to the
development of materials?

First of all, we can notice and exploit the fact that some
parts of life are more repetitions than others. The principal step
is to select short, highly similar texts that have occurred distant
from each other in space or time, and concentrate them into some form
that is convenient for the student. Then, depending on circumstances,
we may go on to arrange the texts in order of relative difficulty.
We may even prepare drills and exercises to accompany them. The
topic of this section, however, is selection.

Monolog texts are readily available either from printed or from
non-printed sources. A graduate student who wants to learn to read
in the field of chemistry can use short definitions of the elements,
taken from a dictionary or a one-volume encyclopedia. A set of
weather forecasts for different parts of the country on the same day,
or for a single area on different days, provides much realistic

practice within a very narrow range of structure and vocabulary. In 24
newspapers, brief notices about meetings consist mostly of time, 25
place, name of organization, and purpose of meeting. Comparable 26
formulae exist for stories about travel of government officials, or 27
automobile accidents, or weddings, or labor disputes. Or the same 28
news story may be taken from several newspapers or several radio 29
stations, and may be followed in this way for several consecutive 30
days. In addition to realistic language practice, all of these 31
texts provide a certain amount of information about the country in 32
which the language is spoken. These then are the basis for what we 33
may call 'microtexts'. Like 'microwaves', they present realistic 34
material in very small doses, and in a format which does not over- 35
whelm the student. First he masters the material from a mechanical 36
point of view, and then he goes on immediately to use the same 37
material responsibly and communicatively. 38

Once a group of prospective microtexts have been assembled, 39
the next step is to pick out the ones that will be easiest to use. 40
There are four criteria, some of which are easier to apply than 41
others: 42

1. Is the text of suitable length? Students should be able 43
to comprehend it, and practice it according to whatever 44
format you are following, within 15-45 minutes. In the 45
early stages, this may mean that a printed text will be 46
50 words or less in length, or that an oral text will 47
not exceed 20-30 seconds. 48

2. Is the text real, in the sense that it conveys information 49
that the students need and want? An example would be the 50
day's menu, or information about a forthcoming field trip. 51
Is it realistic, in that it contains information of a kind 52
that they may need and want in the future? Here the range 53
of topics is broad: descriptions of places and things, 54
games and processes like changing a tire or cooking beans, 55
brief biographical statements about prominent persons, 56
these and many others. The degree to which a given text 57
is realistic of course depends on the students with whom 58
it is to be used. Recipes will be more realistic for 59
girls than for boys; texts on animal husbandry will be 60
very realistic for a few groups of students, but unreal- 61
istic for most. Folk stories are comparatively unreal- 62
istic for everyone, except insofar as listening to and 63
telling such stories constitutes an essential social grace. 64
3. Are the sentences short and uncomplicated? 65
4. How many new words does the text contain? Texts that are 66
on the same topic, such as weather forecasts, may here be 67
considered as a group, since the first such text, which- 68
ever it is, will have a comparatively large number of 69
new words, which will recur in other texts in the same 70
group. 71

Once you have picked out the texts, you may want to tamper 72
with them. You can do so in a number of different ways. From the 73
least to the most drastic, they are: 74

1. Correction of typographical errors. Even this much 75
editing is not always desirable: students must become 76
accustomed sometime to making their own adjustments as 77
they read. 78
2. Partial rewriting of one or two sentences which, though 79
quite correct and idiomatic, nevertheless contain more 80
than their share of difficult constructions. 81
3. Rewriting the entire original, using shorter, simpler 82
sentences but retaining the same vocabulary. 83

Here, for example, is a written source: 84

'In 1919, under the post-World War I Treaty of Saint Germain, 85
the Italian frontier was established along the "natural" and 86
strategic boundary, the Alpine watershed.' 87

This sentence is neither extremely long nor extremely complicated, 88
but it is still too long and complicated to be manageable for any 89
but advanced students. If it is to serve as the basis for drills, 90
it may be broken up into very short, very simple sentences that use 91
the same vocabulary to say the same thing: 92

The nations signed the Treaty of St. Germain. 93

The treaty was signed in 1919. 94

The treaty was signed after World War I. 95

The treaty established the frontier of Italy. 96

The frontier followed a strategic boundary. 97

Some people said the boundary was natural.	98
The boundary was the Alpine watershed.	99
If, on the other hand, the text is to be used only for comprehension and as a general model for writing, these very short sentences may be recombined into a more graceful version which is still much easier than the original:	100 101 102 103
The Treaty of St. Germain, which was signed in 1919 after World War I, established the frontier of Italy. The boundary that the frontier followed was the Alpine watershed. This was a strategic boundary, and some people said that it was also a natural one.	104 105 106 107 108
With each text, the student's goal is to assimilate it, so that its contents -- its words, and the structures that they exemplify -- will be available to him for future use. Before he can assimilate it, he must digest it, and before food can be digested it must be chewed. Just how long digestion will take, and just how much chewing is necessary of course depend on each student's ability and on his prior knowledge of the target language. Nevertheless, with beginning students the materials developer will want to supply a certain amount of 'apparatus', the purpose of which is to chop the text up so that the process of mastication can begin.	109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118
Pedagogical apparatus is obviously related to Assumption II, which calls for systematic drill and organized procedures. It is also related to Assumption V ('Pluralism'), for one of its chief functions is to insure that the student handles each part of the text in two or more ways. Some common kinds of apparatus are:	119 120 121 122 123

1. Questions over the text.	124
2. Partially blanked-out versions which the student can read aloud, supplying prepositions, or articles, or verb endings, or some other component. See Lesson 9 of <u>An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili.</u>	125 126 127 128
3. Lists of words from the texts, with instructions to see each one in certain ways. (Lessons 9 and 18 of <u>An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili.</u>)	129 130 131
4. Manipulative drills, such as those illustrated in Lesson 18 of <u>An Active Introduction to Newspaper Swahili.</u>	132 133
Remember that each kind of apparatus can be modified in hundreds of subtle ways. The following examples should not be adhered to very closely.	134 135 136

SWAHILI: NEWSPAPER READINGS

LESSON 9

Vocabulary Listen to the Swahili sentences, repeat them aloud, and practice until you can give them easily and correctly in response to the English sentences.

Msemaji wa serikali alisema nini?

What did the spokesman for the government say?

Alisema kwamba mkutano utafanywa.

He said that a meeting would be held.

Madiwani wote watahudhuria mkutano.

All the councillors will attend the meeting.

Mkutano uliahirishwa mpaka leo.

The meeting was postponed until today.

Wanachama wote watawachagua viongozi wao.

All the members will choose their leaders.

Ushirika una komiti mbali mbali.

The cooperative has various different committees.

Wajumbe walitayarisha katiba.

The representatives prepared a constitution.

Text Listen to the text, read it aloud, and then check with the English translation.

Kakamega: Msemaji wa Kakamega County Council ametangaza kwamba kutakuwako na mkutano wa madiwani wa konseli hiyo hivi leo leo Ijumaa, Septemba 9 kuanzia saa tatu unusu asubuhi. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa kuwachagua wajumbe wa komiti mbali mbali za konseli hiyo.

Taifaleo, 9 Septemba 1966

Kakamega. A spokesman for the Kakamega County Council has announced that there will be a meeting of the councillors of that council today, Friday, September 9, beginning at 9:30 a.m. The (aforesaid) meeting will be for electing members of various committees of the (aforementioned) council.

Supply concords All blanks are to be filled orally. Writing in the book would spoil it for future practice.

__semaji __a Kakamega County Council __metangaza kwamba __takuwa(-o) na __kutano __a diwani __a konseli h_o hivi leo Ijumaa. __kutano h_o __takuwa __a ku_chagua __jumbe __a komiti mbali mbali __a konseli h_o.

Supply affixes

Msem__ wa Kakamega County Council a__tangaza __amba ku__wa(-) na mkut__o wa konseli Ijumaa __anz__ saa tatu asubuhi. Mkutano __u__wa wa __chagua wajumbe __komiti __ za konseli __.

Questions

1. Mkutano utanza saa tatu unusu usiku?
2. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa kuwachagua wajumbe wa komiti mbali mbali?
3. Mkutano huo utafanyika Kakamega?
4. Mkutano utakuwa lini?
5. Mkutano huo utakuwa wa madiwani wa konseli ya wilaya gani?
6. Mkutano huo utawachagua wajumbe wa komiti gani?
7. Habari za mkutano huo zimetangazwa na nani?

Glossary

msemaji (1,2)	speaker, spokesman
kwamba	that
diwani (1)	councillor
madiwani (2)	
leo	today
-chagua	to select, elect
mjumbe (1,2)	messenger, representative
mbalimbali	various, different
or: mbali mbali	

Use each of these words in a short sentence based on the text. Then, if you have studied Swahili elsewhere, go on and use each word in a short sentence that is not based on the text. Ordinarily, these sentences should be factually true as well as grammatically correct.

LESSON 18

Vocabulary Listen to the Swahili sentences, repeat them aloud, and practice until you can give them easily and correctly in response to the English sentences.

Serikali inatayarisha mpango wa maendeleo.

The government is preparing a for development.

Nambo ya uchumi yalizungumzwa.

Matters of economics were discussed.

Mawaziri wote walifika pamoja.

All the ministers arrived together.

Chama hicho kina mali nyingi.

That organization has much wealth/ many resources.

Bw. Ayodo alikuwa Waziri wa Mali za Asili.

Mr. Ayodo was Minister of Natural Resources.

Wanachama wengi walifika mapema.

Many members arrived early.

Text Listen to the text, read it aloud, and then check with the English translation.

Waziri wa Mipango ya Uchumi na Maendeleo, Bw. T.J. Mboya, jana alisema kwamba yeye pamoja na Waziri wa Mali za Asili, Bw. S.O. Ayodo hawatahudhuria mkutano utakaofanywa South Nyanza Jumapili wiki hii.

Mjumbe wa Homa Bay, Bw. Ngala-Arok, ambaye alitayarisha mkutano huo, alikuwa amesema hapo mapema kwamba Mawaziri hao wawili watahudhuria na msemaji mkuu atakuwa Makamu wa Rais, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga.

Baraza, 20 Januari 1966

The Minister of Economic Planning and Development, Mr. T.J. Mboya, said yesterday that he together with the Minister of Natural Resources would not attend the meeting that will be held in South Nyanza this week.

The representative of Homa Bay, Mr. Ngala-Arok, who arranged the (aforementioned) meeting, had said earlier that the (aforementioned) two ministers would attend and [that] the principal speaker would be the Vice-President, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga.

Practice until you can anticipate the second sentence in each pair after reading or hearing the first.

Mawaziri wamefika.

Mawaziri walikuwa wamefika kabla ya Ijumaa.

The ministers have arrived.

The ministers had arrived before Friday.

Katiba imetayarishwa.

Katiba ilikuwa imetayarishwa kabla ya Ijumaa.

A constitution has been prepared.

A constitution had been prepared before Friday.

Uchaguzi umefanywa.

Uchaguzi ulikuwa umefanywa kabla ya Ijumaa.

An election has been held.

An election had been held before Friday.

Msemaji ametoa tangazo.

Msemaji alikuwa ametoa tangazo kabla ya Ijumaa.

A spokesman has made an announcement.

A spokesman had made an announcement before Friday.

Rais amewachagua mawaziri.

Rais alikuwa amewachagua mawaziri kabla ya Ijumaa.

The President has chosen the ministers.

The President had chosen the minister before Friday.

Questions

1. Bw. T.J. Mboya na Bw. S.O. Ayodo watahudhuria mkutano utakaofanywa South Nyanza?
2. Mjumbe wa Homa Bay alitayarisha mkutano?
3. Msemaji mkuu atakuwa Makamu wa Rais, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga?
4. Bw. Ngala-Arok ni mjumbe wa wapi?
5. Mkutano huo utafanywa siku gani?
6. Bw. T.J. Mboya alisema nini?
7. Msemaji mkuu atakuwa nani?

Glossary

mpango (3,4)	plan
uchumi (14)	economics
pamoja	together, jointly
mali (10)	property, goods
asili (9)	nature
mapema	early, earlier

Use each of these words in a short sentence based on the text. Then, if you have studied Swahili elsewhere, go on and use each word in a short sentence that is not based on the text. Ordinarily, these sentences should be factually true as well as grammatically correct.

What we have said so far applies primarily to texts that have 137
been taken from sources that already existed, such as newspapers, 138
cookbooks, and radio broadcasts. For even greater flexibility, and 139
even greater immediacy, native speakers may also devise texts to 140
order. This may be done in more than one way. 141

The most dramatic way of originating a microtext is to allow 142
the class to suggest a topic at the beginning of the same hour in 143
which the text is to be used. The instructor is asked to speak on 144
this topic, completely impromptu, for about 30 seconds. He is told 145
that someone will signal him at the end of that time. He then 146
begins to speak. There may be a fair number of hesitations and 147
false starts, but most people with whom I have tried this have been 148
able to do it. 149

At the end of 30 seconds, the instructor is stopped, and 150
immediately asked to 'say the same thing, trying not to add any 151
ideas or leave any ideas out, but changing the wording if you like'. 152
Here is his opportunity to smoothe the text out, avoiding the false 153
starts and incomplete sentences of the first version, and perhaps 154
improving its organization at the same time. This should be re- 155
peated until he has produced three or four versions of the text -- 156
a total elapsed time of under 3 minutes. By this time, he will 157
generally have settled on a fairly stable version. This is then 158
available for use according to any of a number of standard procedures. 159

This method of originating microtexts is dramatic, but it does not always work. A few instructors have found that having to improvise aloud in front of a class is too much of a strain on them. Even when this is not so, a group of two or more instructors teaching in the same program cannot make frequent use of impromptu microtexts, since the vocabulary given to one class would soon be quite different from that given to another. Under these circumstances, a committee of instructors can originate a text in written form. The following day, this text is given to all the instructors, who use it in class on the day after that. The purpose of the written text is to keep the instructors more or less together. It should not be distributed to the students. Each instructor should supply his own impromptu oral paraphrases of it in class.

If the students are allowed to suggest topics, microtexts can rate very high in responsiveness (Assumption III) and in user responsibility (Assumption IV).

No matter how a microtext is originated, it should be natural and authentic. Within this general restriction, sentences should be kept rather short. The speaker should attempt to communicate with his hearers, rather than to amaze or baffle them.

After the students have heard a text three or four times, they should work with it according to some well-defined procedure. One such procedure is the following:

1. Students ask questions in the target language, in order to clarify the meanings of new words.

2. Instructor asks questions on the text, trying to ask in such 185
a way that the students will give the right answer on the 186
first try. The first questions may suggest alternative 187
answers, so that the student can reply by simply repeating 188
part of what he has just heard: Q. Did he go home, or to 189
the market? A. (He went) to the market. As the student 190
answers the questions, he is reproducing parts of the 191
original text. 192
3. Students take turns in telling things that they remember 193
from the text. They are still reproducing parts of the 194
text, but now the parts may be longer, and there is no 195
question from the teacher to suggest form or content. 196
4. Students try to retell the entire original in their own 197
words, until one of them can do it with no mistakes. 198
Then they try to tell it in the length of the time that 199
the instructor used, still without mistakes. 200
5. Students write the text down, either by dictation or from 201
memory, and read it back. Now they have a permanent 202
record of the text, for later review. The written version 203
may also be supplemented by the same kinds of apparatus 204
that we discussed about (). 205

WORKING ASSUMPTIONS
AND
THE 'MODULAR APPROACH'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

For eight years, this writer (hereinafter referred to as 'I') 1
has been connected with the teaching of African languages at 2
the Foreign Service Institute and in the Peace Corps. 3
Experience has been a stern teacher, but some of the expedi- 4
ents which have been devised under these circumstances have 5
become objects of comment and even of imitation outside FSI. 6
The present paper is an attempt to summarize this work. 7

Thanks are due to a large number of people, but a preliminary 8
draft is not an appropriate place to list them. The princi- 9
pal authors of the texts from which examples have been taken 10
are Elton Anglada, Ernest Dunn, Arthur Levy, Deoki Sharma, 11
James W. Stone and Lloyd B. Swift. 12

WORKING ASSUMPTIONS

This section states five working assumptions about adult 13
learning of foreign languages. Later sections describe a 14
number of procedures which are consistent with them. Both 15
the assumptions and the procedures have evolved together over 16
the years, but most recently in the context of the Foreign 17
Service Institute and of Peace Corps language training. 18

The assumptions concern respectively 'Usability', 'Organization', 'Responsiveness', 'Responsibility', and 'Pluralism'. 19
20

Assumption I ('Usability'). People learn features of a 21
language best if they use those features immediately, instead 22
of just mimicking, memorizing and manipulating forms. This 23
assumption is contrary to the time-honored practice of delay- 24
ing 'free conversation' until the end of the second semester 25
or the second year. One may also distinguish between 'real' 26
use and 'realistic' use. I really use the question 'What 27
time is it?' only if (a) I don't know what time it is and 28
(b) I want to know what time it is. I may use the same 29
question realistically if I can foresee the time when I 30
might really use it. Some sentences are susceptible of nei- 31
ther real nor realistic use: 'The child sees vegetables in 32
the afternoon.' Others might possibly find real use, but so 33
rarely that planned realistic practice is impossible: 34
'Plumbers never mow hay.' 35

Corollary 1. Each new word and each new grammatical feature 36
should be used (not just practiced), either really or realis- 37
tically, as early as possible. It should be used as often as 38
necessary to integrate it into the student's repertoire and 39
to insure that it will be retained. 40

Corollary 2. Other things being equal, spontaneous material 41
is better than pre-existing printed material. This is because 42
language is really used only as a part of life. Printed 43
materials are at best a record of past life; at worst they 44
have very little relation to life past, present or future. 45

Assumption II ('Organization'). On the elementary level, 46
there must be order in the introduction of new phonological, 47
grammatical and lexical problems, and systematic drill on 48
alien mechanical features, and some way of organizing class- 49
room procedures. 50

Corollary 1. Every teacher needs three qualities: (a) per- 51
spicacity (in order to see what the students need from day 52
to day and from moment to moment); (b) resourcefulness (in 53
order to supply what they need); and (c) memory (in order to 54
insure that what is being done now harmonizes with what has 55
already been done). 56

Corollary 2. Because a teacher's perspicacity and/or resource- 57
fulness and/or memory are more or less limited, order and 58
organization normally require something in the way of printed 59
materials. This is why spontaneous materials (Assumption I, 60
Corollary 2) cannot make up the whole of a course of study. 61

Assumption III ('Responsiveness'). Individuals, but also 62
groups, vary widely not only in general language aptitude and 63
in degree of extrinsic motivation, but also in the lexical 64
content that they can make immediate use of, in the approaches 65
that they will put up with, and in the methods that are appro- 66
priate for them. Some students, but only some, can profit 67
from spending the first 15 hours of class on phonological 68
drills; some students, but only some, want to start out with 69
"What's your name and where are you from?"; some but only 70
some thrive on the memorization of dialogs; one group plans 71
to drill wells for two years, another group plans to teach 72
English, and still another expects to monitor radio broad- 73
casts. Tolerance for one or another approach depends partly 74
on the coordinator or supervisor of the program, partly on 75
the past experience of the students themselves. 76

Assumption IV ('Responsibility'). Other things being equal, 77
the program will be more effective if the students and 78
instructors feel that they have some control over both con- 79
tent and method. Materials ought therefore to provide for 80
transferring to the users as much responsibility as they are 81
prepared to handle. The skills and attitudes of self- 82
sufficiency in language study are in fact an important part 83
of the aims of any well-run language training program. 84

<u>Assumption V ('Pluralism')</u> . No one format, and no one system	85
however ingenious, can be sufficient for any one student or	86
group of students. What is seen only once will not be per-	87
ceived, and what has been perceived from only one point of	88
view will not be assimilated. A student who uses the Swahili	89
word <u>kukaza</u> 'to set, emphasize' authentically has met it more	90
than once. If he has met it five times, some of those	91
instances were in one context, but others were in other con-	92
texts. He has not only met the word in varied contexts.	93
He has also seen that <u>kukaza</u> is related to <u>kukaa</u> 'to stay'	94
as <u>kujaza</u> 'to fill' is related to <u>kujaa</u> 'to become full'.	95
Or again, the student who can really handle the tag questions	96
(<u>can't we?</u> <u>didn't you?</u>) in English has memorized them as	97
parts of dialogs, he has done manipulative drills with them,	98
and he has used them in unstructured conversations. Pro-	99
cedures and systems and approaches supplement one another	100
more than they supersede one another.	101

THE 'MODULAR' APPROACH TO MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

Most language courses violate some or all of these four	102
assumptions. One reason is that they attempt to be too	103
massive and too permanent. Great quantities of curricular	104
concrete and steel are assembled and formed into a mighty	105
bridge across the chasm, in anticipation that the oncoming	106
troops (the students) will want to cross at just the point	107
where the bridge is.	108
This anticipation is often disappointed. When it is, the	109
monolithic-style course fails on responsiveness (Assumption	110
III), it almost always fails to provide for user responsi-	111
bility (Assumption IV), and often it is not directly usable	112
(in the sense of Assumption I). Its one strength (unless it	113
is poorly constructed even by its own standards) is in organ-	114
ization, and superior organization alone will not produce	115
superior results.	116
Most of the courses that I have written or used have tried	117
to be monoliths. The needs and the mood of the students	118
have never been exactly those that the course was written	119
for, but the discrepancies have often been small enough so	120
that some kind of useful result could be achieved. Peace	121
Corps language training has been quite another matter.	122
Students' specialized interests are at the same time more	123

varied and more specialized; trainees are more conscious of	124
their own dissatisfaction with both content and method;	125
instructors are mostly willing but inexperienced, brought up	126
in an educational system that knows nothing of audio-lingual	127
materials. Peace Corps programs have also demonstrated the	128
value of giving to the users -- both the students and the	129
instructors -- a certain amount of leeway for their own	130
creativity. These observations have led me to a new approach	131
to materials development, one which seems more appropriate to	132
Peace Corps needs, but which also seems promising for pro-	133
grams of a more conventional sort.	134
The label that I have applied to this approach is 'modular'.	135
Instead of a single volume, with drills, dialogs, notes, etc.	136
printed in fixed order relative to one another, there are	137
separate fascicles, or 'modules', which can be used individ-	138
ually, or in various combinations with one another. Instead	139
of building a bridge, we supply a set of pontoons. Each major	140
component of the course takes the form of one or more modules.	141
One fascicle may consist of phonological drills; another may	142
be a very brief reference grammar that covers only those	143
matters of high text frequency; another may consist of dialogs,	144
with cross references to the short grammar in lieu of separ-	145
ate grammatical notes. Some new types of module are des-	146
cribed in later sections of this paper. One advantage of	147

modular construction is that it allows for more user responsi- 148
bility (Assumption IV): those who want to spend the first 149
15 hours on phonology can do so, but those who find that kind 150
of activity un motivating can wait until what is for them a 151
more appropriate time. Dialog memorization, newspaper read- 152
ing and study of grammar may proceed in any order, or simul- 153
taneously. A second advantage is that, for example, a set of 154
readings appropriate for well diggers may be replaced by a 155
set appropriate for TB control workers without tearing the 156
whole course apart. One or more modules may even consist of 157
spontaneous materials. In any case, modular construction may 158
lead to greater responsiveness (Assumption III) and hence to 159
greater usability (Assumption I). An incidental advantage 160
for the overworked linguist who is producing materials on 161
marginal time is that one fascicle can be completed and put 162
into use in a small fraction of the time it takes to write a 163
complete course. 164

It may be objected that drawing on an array of modules and 165
combining them into a successful course places heavy demands 166
on the teacher's ingenuity and judgment. That is certainly 167
true. But exactly the same is true if one is to teach 168
successfully from a printed course, bound between covers, 169
conceived and written by strangers who were removed by many 170
months and many hundreds of miles from one's present students. 171

The modular principle is of course not new. It is implied	172
by the existence of alternate, parallel versions of some	173
courses, and by series of optional readers that have been	174
prepared for some of the more widely taught languages. Beyond	175
that, however, it has seldom been followed either consciously	176
or very far. The earliest deliberate attempt to produce an	177
array of modules was by Lloyd B. Swift in his <u>Kituba Basic</u>	178
<u>Course</u> . This was in fact a set of one central and five	179
optional fascicles which were bound in a single volume for	180
reasons of economy. According to Swift's introduction:	181
"This course consists of a 'primer' in the language and five	182
subject-oriented groups of lessons. The primer is intended	183
to introduce the major grammatical structures of the language,	184
to develop in the student an adequate pronunciation, and to	185
present a certain amount of useful vocabulary for a variety	186
of situations. The primer is prerequisite to the rest of the	187
course, and the student is expected to go through it in order,	188
as each unit presupposes the vocabulary and the grammar of	189
the earlier ones.	190
"The subject-oriented lesson groups all presuppose the	191
vocabulary and grammar of the entire primer, and each group	192
is intended to be studied from the beginning --the vocabu-	193
lary within a given group being cumulative. However, no-	194
subject-oriented lesson group depends in any way on any	195
other group so that the student is free to pursue his study	196
of these lesson groups in any order after he has finished	197
the primer.	198
"This arrangement is intended to provide maximum flexibility.	199
The class with only a few hours of time to devote to class-	200
room drill with an instructor may find it possible to cover	201
the primer only. Students with more time will wish to select	202
such of the subject fields covered in the later lessons as	203
are of most interest to them. Students in intensive courses	204
with at least 300 hours of class and laboratory will be able	205
to cover the entire content of the course. An additional	206
element of flexibility is provided in that the primer may be	207

used as an introduction to be followed by more specialized subject-oriented lessons which are not included in this course but which may be constructed by an instructor or a linguist to meet the specialized needs of particular students."	208 209 210 211
The modular principle is exemplified less neatly, but in more variety, by the array of Swahili materials produced by the Foreign Service Institute. Publicly available are <u>Swahili Basic Course</u> , which contains dialogs and manipulative drills;	212 213 214 215
<u>An Active Introduction to Swahili: General Conversation and</u>	216
<u>An Active Introduction to Swahili: Geography</u> which present the rudiments of the language very briefly in terms of two different kinds of subject matter, using the 'microwave' format (see). Not yet published are a <u>Learner's Synopsis of Swahili Structure</u> and a series of newspaper readings. These are discussed in	217 218 219 220 221 222
The Russian section of FSI has also begun an array of modules. One concerns itself with pronunciation and spelling. A second presents rudiments of the morphology in connection with a simplified table-top model of Moscow. A third consists of readings on the geography of the Soviet Union. (None of these is publicly available at present.)	223 224 225 226 227 228

An excellent example of the modular principle is a set of 229
materials for Sinhala, the principal language of Ceylon. One 230
module introduces the writing system. A second is a grammati- 231
cal sketch of Sinhala. The third consists mainly of a series 232
of 'microwave cycles' (see). The series is broken into 233
a subseries on classroom expressions, a subseries on matters 234
of general conversation, and further subseries on specialized 235
topics such as rice growing and the preparation of food. 236
These materials were prepared for the Peach Crops and are 237
unpublished. 238

This paper is itself constructed on the modular principle: 239
after reading this first section, the reader may go on to the 240
remaining sections in any combination and in any order he 241
chooses. 'Microwave' and 'microtexts' are formats for 242
individual lessons; the 'flexible frame' is a strategy for 243
relating lessons to one another; a 'learner's synopsis' is 244
what I consider to be the most basic kind of module; 'routine 245
manipulation' is, as far as I can see, still an indispensable 246
part of any language course. 247

'ROUTINE MANIPULATIONS'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

Negative advertising has been with us at least since the days of 'No
Stoop, No Squat, No Squint,' and purveyors of \$10.98 language courses
have made a fortune from offering 'No Tiresome Drills!' and 'No
Confusing Grammar Rules!' Whether drills are necessarily tiresome
remains to be seen, but there can be little doubt that they are
necessary. The reason is that a language does not consist of sounds
and words alone. It also has its stock of constructions or processes
or rules. Just as a speaker must choose the right words for his pur-
pose, and the right sounds to make them intelligible, so he must
develop facility in putting them into appropriate grammatical settings.
Consider the following English examples, which could be matched from
any other language. The principal words are tank and leak.

Barely intelligible.

Clear and idiomatic.

Tank leak.

The tank leaks.
A tank is leaking.
The tank is leaking.

Tank leak, no?

Is the tank leaking?
The tank is leaking, isn't it?
Does the tank leak?
The tank leaks, doesn't it?

Tank no leak.

The tank doesn't leak.
The tank isn't leaking.
The tank hasn't leaked yet.
The tank won't leak.

As these examples show, grammatical inadequacy not only sounds funny;
it often carries with it a certain amount of ambiguity.

A grammatical construction cannot be mastered by itself. The student 27
may repeat one or more examples of the construction after the teacher, 28
and he may see other examples of it in connected texts, and he still 29
may not comprehend it completely. The study of grammar is the study 30
of relationships, such as the contrast between This tank leaked and 31
This tank has leaked. Any relationship has at least two terms, and 32
the student will not internalize a relationship by practicing only one 33
of its terms. This is why dialogs or microwave cycles or other kinds 34
of basically textual material are by themselves inadequate. This is 35
why we need systematic practice material, both drills and exercises. 36
A 'drill,' as the term is used here, is an activity which allows for 37
only one correct response to a given stimulus: if the student is told 38
to substitute the word pencil for pen in the sentence I forgot my pen, 39
then the only possible correct reply is I lost my pencil. An 'exercise' 40
allows the student some latitude. If the student is instructed to 41
'substitute some other noun for pen' in the above sentence, or if he 42
is asked to reply to the question 'What did you lose?' then he is 43
doing an 'exercise.' The need for texts and drills and exercises is 44
one example of the principle of pluralism (Assumption V). 45

There are two principal kinds of manipulative drill: substitution 46
and transformation. The purpose of a substitution drill is to let 47
the student see and practice a large number of highly similar exam- 48
ples of a single construction: 49

Pattern sentence: I brought my camera.	50
New cue: Expected response:	51
flashlight I brought my flashlight.	52
raincoat I brought my raincoat.	53
gloves I brought my gloves.	54
homework I brought my homework.	55
golf clubs I brought my golf clubs.	56
Even in such a simple drill as this, considerations of realism	57
(Assumption I) will encourage us to avoid such old standby nouns as	58
<u>book</u> , <u>pen</u> , <u>pencil</u> ; the same considerations require us to use <u>golf</u>	59
<u>clubs</u> or <u>homework</u> only with students who are likely to have golf clubs	60
or homework that they sometimes carry around with them.	61
There are many other varieties of substitution drill. This is not the	62
place to catalog them. One is 'substitution-correlation,' in which a	63
change of a major word at one place in the sentence entails a gram-	64
matical change somewhere else.	65
Pattern sentence: I brought my camera.	66
New cue: Expected response:	67
(John) John brought his camera.	68
(Mary) Mary brought her camera	69
everyone Everyone brought his camera.	70
some people Some people brought their cameras.	71
Obviously, <u>John</u> and <u>Mary</u> stand respectively for the names of men and	72
women known to the students.	73
Substitution-correlation drills lend themselves to practice of gender-	74
number concords, as in the above example, to matching tenses of verbs	75
with appropriate time expressions, to matching prepositions with the	76
nouns, verbs or adjectives in a sentence, and so forth. Some important	77

The design of drills is one thing; actually writing them for a permanent 105
set of materials is quite another. What for one user are exactly 106
enough drills on a given point are for a second user too many, and for 107
a third user too few. The materials developer is certain only that 108
he cannot please everybody. To some extent this problem can be eased 109
by transferring to the user the responsibility for deciding how many 110
drills there will be (Assumption IV). To do this, one must first make 111
a very useful but seldom noted distinction between 'routine manipula- 112
tions' and other manipulative drills. This distinction is based 113
simply on the frequency, importance and difficulty of a distinction. 114
These factors vary from language to language. In French, for example, 115
the tag question n'est ce pas? is added to sentences about as often as 116
the corresponding tag questions are used in English. Yet n'est ce pas? 117
requires much less practice than is needed to master English isn't it? 118
won't it? won't they? can't I? haven't you? mustn't she? and so forth. 119
On the other hand, changing from present to past tenses in the best 120
known European languages including English is troublesome: get, got, 121
but set, set; sink, sank, but think, thought. In Swahili this 122
difference is always made by replacing the prefix na by the prefix li. 123
And in some languages, the verb doesn't change to show tense at all. 124
A French speaker, whose definite and indefinite articles work something 125
like the and a in English, will need less drill on these words than 126
will a speaker of Russian, whose language lacks articles altogether. 127
A difficult manipulation which is however infrequent and relatively 128
unimportant is the relationship between: 129
We waited four hours. Seldom have we waited so long. 130
I ate fourteen pancakes. Seldom have I eaten so many. 131

Points like this will not be made the subject of 'routine manipula-	132	
tion.' They are best handled by writing manipulative drills ahead	133	
of time, as is usually done in the preparation of language textbooks.	134	
Here is a three-step outline for conducting routine manipulations.	135	
1. Decide what grammatical points are to be made the subjects of	136	
routine manipulation. In English, for speakers of most other languages,	137	
one might list the following:	138	
a. Tense changes: <u>he goes, he went, he has gone, etc.</u>	139	
b. Relative constructions: <u>the speaker that we listened to most</u>	140	
<u>carefully, etc.</u>	141	
c. Negation: <u>he can't sleep, he doesn't sleep, etc.</u>	142	
d. Tag questions: <u>doesn't he? do they? won't I? etc.</u>	143	
e. Prepositions: <u>in (a city), on (a street), at (an address), etc.</u>	144	
f. Direct & indirect questions: <u>When does he have to leave? Ask</u>	145	
<u>him when he has to leave, etc.</u>	146	
2. Prepare a sample drill for each point in the above list. Some will	147	
require more than one drill, but the total number should not be more	148	
than 20. Three samples for English are:	149	
TENSE DRILL	150	
IN STIMULUS SENTENCE: 'Simple' form of a verb	151	
IN RESPONSE SENTENCE: 'Past participle' of the same verb	152	
When will they go?	Haven't they gone yet?	153
When will they leave here?	Haven't they left here yet?	154
When will they catch the bus?	Haven't they caught the bus yet?	155
When will they get back?	Haven't they gotten back yet?	156
TENSE DRILL	157	
IN STIMULUS SENTENCE: 'Past' form of a verb	158	
IN RESPONSE SENTENCE: 'Simple' form of the same verb	159	
They went yesterday.	When did they go?	160
They left here yesterday.	When did they leave here?	161
They caught the bus yesterday.	When did they catch the bus?	162
They got back.	When did they get back?	163

PREPOSITIONS DRILL	164
AS STIMULUS: An adjective	165
IN THE RESPONSE: The same adjective with an appropriate preposition	166
interested Are you interested in it?	167
dependent Are you dependent on it?	168
independent Are you independent of it?	169
worried Are you worried about it?	170
3. Write a brief reminder of each of the sample drills. This is	171
usually a single line from the drill:	172
When will they go? Haven't they <u>gone</u> yet?	173
They went yesterday. When did they <u>go</u> ?	174
dependent Are you <u>dependent</u> on it?	175
A complete set of these reminders, for all the routine manipulations.	176
Affix a copy of this list to the wall of the classroom, or to the	177
front of the instructor's notebook.	178
With a moderate amount of training, the instructor will be able to	179
make up his own drills on these points, drawing his material from	180
dialogs, stories, and other meaningful use of the language. Suppose	181
for example, that the students have just finished working with a	182
'microtext' like the following:	183
The grocery store we buy groceries from is located about	184
two blocks from our house. It has a well stocked dairy counter	185
and a well stocked delicatessen counter. The food is well	186
displayed, it's a nice bright light store, it has a very large	187
parking lot, there's no trouble finding parking; it's located	188
near other shops so that it makes -- ah -- general shopping	189
easier. It's located in Bailey's Crossroads near the E.J.	190
Korvette store there.	191
The instructor might improvise drills like these:	192
TENSE DRILL: 'simple verb' <u>vs.</u> 'past participle'.	193
When will they buy groceries? Haven't they bought groceries yet?	194
When will they stock the counter? Haven't they stocked it yet?	195
When will they display the food? Haven't they displayed it yet?	196
When will they find parking? Haven't they found it yet?	197

PREPOSITION DRILL:		198
E.J. Korvette Store	It's near the E.J. Korvette Store.	199
Bailey's Crossroads	It's in Bailey's Crossroads.	200
our house	It's two blocks from our house.	201
far	It's far from here.	202
our house and Bailey's C.	It's between our house and Bailey's Crossroads.	203
		204
Drills constructed on this basis are no longer an obstacle course		205
which the student must climb through before he can get to meaningful		206
discourse. Instead, they are offshoots from and buttresses for his		207
experience with real use of the language.		208

THE 'MICRO-KOR PLAN'

by Earl W. Stevick, Foreign Service Institute

Recent discussions with people in Micronesia and Korea have helped to clarify my thinking about how in-country language training might be conducted. The result is the 'Micro-Kor Plan,' which is presented here for your comment. With modifications, I think it may also be applicable to other training situations.

Language training, whether in the United States or in the host country, should probably begin with a brief introductory period (perhaps 75-150 hours) which is devoted to establishing pronunciation and familiarizing the student with the principal structural devices. This is the stage at which intensive audio-visual instruction, perhaps programmed and perhaps even self-instructional, can be dramatically useful, if it is available. Emphasis is quite frankly on manipulation of the mechanics of the language, so that in the stage that follows, these matters will already be partially familiar to the students.

After this introductory phase, each day's work is divided into two parts: an academic 'base' and a non-academic 'application.' The academic base is developed through a continuing relationship with a 'teacher;' the non-academic 'application' is developed through a continuing relationship with a 'host.' The host is an individual or (better) a family that is able and willing to spend at least two or three hours a day with the student. The relationship with the host(s) may or may not include shared residence. The host(s) probably know little or no English.

The idea of having language students live with local people is of course not new. But in both Micronesia and Korea there were reports that "I lived with them, yes, but we never seemed to know what to say to each other." Apparently the full potential of residence with native speakers was hardly being scratched. It is this problem with which the present memorandum is chiefly concerned.

In the Micro-Kor Plan, each day's work is built around a 'micro-task' -- a short, practical assignment which the student hopes to accomplish together with his host(s). Learning to 'say' something is then only a step toward learning to 'do' something. In planning these 'tasks,' one must remember that recurrent work is not necessarily matched by recurrent language: two women who wash clothes together every day probably do not say to one another "Now I am putting the clothes into the water. Now I am adding soap" every time they perform these actions.

Microtasks may be either primarily verbal or primarily physical, and they may center on acquiring information, or on acquiring skills.

	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Physical</u>
<u>Information</u>	Eliciting	Exploring physical environment
<u>Skill</u>	Making culturally useful judgments	Coaching by host(s)

Examples of these four kinds of microtask are given below, in terms of African culture:

1. Eliciting information:

- a) Find out about your host's family; how they are related, what kinship terms they use in referring to one another and in addressing one another.

- b) Find out what kinds of weather you may expect at various times of year.

2. Making culturally useful judgments:

- a) Find out which trees are suitable for cutting as firewood, which are not, and why.
- b) Find out which bananas are suitable for picking, which for eating raw, which for other purposes.

3. Exploring:

- a) For each of the following common articles find out what it is, where it is kept, who uses it, and what it is used for: jembe, panga, mwiko, taa.
- b) Find out the location from which your hosts get each of the following. Be able to tell how to get there from your house: water, firewood, oil.

4. Coaching:

- a) Have your host(s) coach you until you can cultivate maize or water cabbage efficiently.
- b) Have your host(s) coach you in playing a distinctive local game.

In the 'academic' part of the program (say four hours in the morning), the 'teacher' explains the task to the student and teaches him the language and the non-verbal behavior that he thinks the student is likely to need, either for production or for comprehension, in his conversation with the host(s). In the 'non-academic' part (probably the afternoon and/or evening), the student would use what he had learned, and report on it the next day to his teacher. During the afternoon task sessions, the student would be supported 'vertically' by the morning's preparatory session, but also 'horizontally' by the

fact that the hosts have become partially familiar with his strengths and weaknesses. Needless to say, the student and the host(s) will and should interact in other ways as well, but the daily task provides a definite yet shifting focus.

In a program like the one I have described, much of the material to be used in the academic component can be prefabricated. That is to say, such things as dialogs, vocabularies, 'microwaves,' and drills can be prepared for each 'task.' The teacher may add finishing touches, appropriate for what he knows of the actual people and places that will be involved. His goal as he does so is to anticipate, just as closely as he can, exactly what the student will want to ask, and exactly the answers he will get. The prospect of the afternoon's application thus keeps both the teacher and the materials developer on their toes.

The role of the language coordinator is obviously crucial. He must have three kinds of knowledge. He must know the student's language and culture, and the target language and culture, and how they contrast. He must also be familiar with rudimentary techniques of language teaching, and with the materials that are available. Finally, he must know what is going on in class, and what is going on between students and hosts. On the basis of all this knowledge, he will constantly be making decisions of two kinds. First are logistic decisions: who is to be where when and for how long, doing what. Second is choice of microtasks. These must be relevant to the interests of the student, and neither too large nor too small for a day's work.

We have said that the person who makes these decisions is the key figure in any language teaching project. His training is therefore the most crucial step in preparing for such a project. His personality is the most crucial element in establishing and maintaining staff morale. And he is an indispensable participant in the preparation of the language materials themselves.

Although this plan of instruction was worked out originally for in-country training of students who are living with their hosts, it can be modified and used in other programs as well. If there are sufficient native speakers at the training site, one group can play the role of hosts while another group serves as conventional instructors. If there are not that many native speakers, the same person may serve part of the time as instructor for one class, and the rest of the time as host for another.

In summary, then:

1. Peace Corps training should be for life in the host country.
2. Life consists principally of relationships among people.
3. In any training situation, the most important fact is the relationships which exist and which are developing among instructors, among students, and between students and instructors.
4. Language acquisition is one medium in which these relationships may be established and in which they may (or may not) flourish.
5. The purpose of training is not to teach students language (and non-linguistic behavior), but to teach them to use it.

6. 'What happens between learner and teacher (or host) determines what is learned and how well it is learned.' But this statement is either true or false, depending on what we mean by 'happen.' If we mean something that occurs as a result of following a detailed script with complete stage directions, I suggest it is false. It is true if we mean what comes about as a result of the natural interaction of unique individuals. In this sense, the language coordinator lays the fire, provides the spark, and nurses the flame along until it catches; the job of the textbook writer is to provide highly combustible material.

REPORT OF WORKING GROUP II

Task: Group of 6 volunteer car mechanics for Zambia. 300 hours of English. 2 years study and are 0 /1. One native speaker available.

Assumptions:

A number of teachers available including one native English teacher from Zambia.
Groups are of mixed profession.
Teaching groups of 8.
Time to be divided between general and technical English.

Goals: (General Language)

Volunteers have to function successfully in the target language.
(Technical Language)

Volunteer must have the language skill to teach and demonstrate specific technical skills.

(Cross-cultural)

Volunteer should be able to live happily and function successfully in the target culture.

Specific Aims:

1. To raise them to the minimum of S2 as a proficiency rating.
2. Volunteers must be able to understand East African English.
3. Volunteers must be able to write in English in order to compile reports.
4. I.e. S2. Working proficiency - able to perform routine social conversational skill - painful conversation - they tend to circumbende, able to do one's job, perform simple commands and directions but cannot sustain long conversations.

Details of Program:

300 hours of teaching time. 5-1/2 day week in 8 weeks. First week to be given to orientation with the program and the materials. High intensity language training in first four weeks.

Testing for aptitude and proficiency to occur before course.
Groups to be homogeneous - levels of 0 to 1.

Aids available - equipment:

Language laboratory
Library - reference tapes
Library - teachers' reference books
 students' " "

Work Shop
Old car
Field trips/excursions

Program

Phase I - first 4 weeks - see time table I.

- A. General English.
Material to be used: L. G. Alexander - for the controlled 'Lab' centred text. This would be adapted and taken for the first three hours in the morning.
(No second language to be studied).
- B. Directed conversations - one hour - based on materials from Alexander and practical English and using flexible frames.
- C. Practical English - job-orientated - two hours.
No written work until the second week.
- D. Tutorials - private study with teacher present - remedial work - could be taken in classroom or in language lab. (one hour).
- E. Cultural activities - evenings. Volunteers may choose to attend one of the two activities provided or may use time for self-study (two hours).

Example activities:

Introduction of new personalities
Exploitation of classroom situation
Films - relevant and interesting
Brain Trust - panels
Talks from returned volunteers
Acting dialogues - role playing

- F. Social evenings once week eg. films, plays etc.

Phase II - second half of course - see I.I.II

Program to fit into same time schedule. General English to be reduced to 2 hours. Practical English to continue in the afternoon (2 hours).

More time given in topical - cultural English to written work.
Self-study techniques should be developed.

Topic-area - should help to integrate the whole program - with the selected ideas or topics reinforcing structures and expanding the vocabulary - much of the vocabulary to be relevant to the area (2 hours).

Topics/Area Studies to be in forms of

1. Seminars
2. Newspapers dialogues
3. Literature - reference reading
4. Carefully prepared papers on selected subjects
5. Talks

Changes to the program should be somewhat radical - or else the program would become stagnant.

- A. General English.
Alexander to be continued, but particular attention given to Grammar structures.
- B. Directed English - becomes the Area study of topics - as the material or situations presented will be followed with discussion, simultaneous translation work, spontaneous discussion, dramatized situations with original dialogues.
- C. Practical English to continue with more written work and student prepared talks and material (2 hours).
- D. Tutorials - one hour at a time, with particular assistance to weaker students.
- E. Cultural activities - to be dropped. Evenings left free for reading/study and preparation (note - need for training self-study methods - and research).
- F. Cultural program is now incorporated in the morning's work.

General comments on the course:

Feed back from field essential and it must be reviewed.
Weekly oral testing - for proficiency in second half of the course.
Teacher's role?
What should the follow-up be?
How should teachers be prepared?
Essential that trainees become involved in the preparation of materials also.

Rough Draft of 3 major areas of the course:

Phase I.

General Language

1. Break down of program.

8-8.45 Revision

- acting out dialogues
- revising drills

Present the new unit.

9-9.45 30 minutes in lab - for drill work

Post-lab. - grammar structures

10-10.45 Situational dramatization^x or present another unit

^x Note: Students allowed to act situations with props (reality) without sticking to dialogues.

Directed English

Assumptions

1. To proceed from directed (structured) conversation to free spontaneous conversation.
This shift will occur from a structured base to free conversation (i.e. flexible enough to embrace all situations including those which are not job-oriented).
2. With the aid of native teacher - reality will be stressed.
3. To ensure the validity to the lessons, instructors should consult with each other immediately after the conversation period.

Note: Staff meetings are essential. As a time for essential feedback - this directed period - should reinforce the whole program, by utilizing structures and vocabulary introduced in Alexander and the practical English. Teachers must also indicate which areas need to be developed or repeated. It is a time for re-evaluating the program and predicting the work to be accomplished, and also the amount of time in which it should be accomplished.

Role of the Teacher.

- to create situations to animate what has already been learnt
- to expand and reinforce the language work - giving continuity
- to give basic revision
- to involve all students when assigning roles or tasks
- to provide active continuity through the work so that previous lessons are always incorporated in the current lesson
- provide corrections - detecting weaknesses - preparing remedial work for the tutorial period
- attend the class of the other instructors
- better continuity

Role of the Student.

- to be encouraged to manipulate all previous lessons into live situations
- to encourage each other in group effort - maintaining morale.

Method,
step 1. Revision of structures and vocabulary - to reinforce - expand - to give continuity, list structures and vocabulary to be revised but not to be shown to students.
Sample dialogue using props,
Action with commands,
Question, answer, dialogue.

step 2. Introduction of situation.
Native speaker presents the visual impression e.g. slide
The following guide to the teacher in providing the stimulus
Where?
What is it?
Who?

Who will be there?
What is happening?
i.e. Brief description bringing in the vocabulary - Frames
to ensure understanding.

step 3. Instructor states the task.
Native speaker to take key role assuring all students are
involved.
Changing of roles - allowing for more creative behavior.

step 4. Free conversation.
Have you ever lost anything?
Relating of own personal experience
- Free conversation.
Students asking about particular experiences

Practical Language

PHASE I - PROGRAM. Weeks 1 - 4

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 - 8:45			ALEXANDER			
9:00 - 9:45			Coffee Break			
10:00 - 10:45			ALEXANDER			
11:00 - 11:45			DIRECTED ENGLISH			
12:00			LUNCH			
1:15 - 2:00			PRACTICAL ENGLISH			F
2:15 - 3:00			PRACTICAL ENGLISH			R
3:15			Coffee Break			E
			SPORTS			E
5:00 - 6:00			TUTORIALS			T
6:00 - 7:00			DINNER			I
7:00 - 8:00			FREE (Staff Meetings)			M
8:00 - 10:00			Social Night CULTURAL ACTIVITIES			E

PHASE II - PROGRAM. Weeks 5 - 8

8:00 - 8:45			ALEXANDER - Special Grammar			
9:00 - 9:45			Coffee Break			
10:00 - 10:45			TOPICS			
11:00 - 11:45			Cultural Orientation			
12:00			LUNCH			
1:15 - 2:00			PRACTICAL ENGLISH			F
2:15 - 3:00						R
3:15			Coffee Break			E
			SPORTS			E
5:00 - 6:00			TUTORIALS			T
6:00 - 7:00			DINNER			I
7:00 - 8:00			STAFF MEETING			M
						E