Three volumes of the "TESOL Newsletter" from 1975 and November 1975 present articles on different aspects of teaching English as a second language. Many of the articles discuss teaching techniques, including: (1) a discussion of teaching written English through sector analysis, (2) a description of a counseling-learning model for second language learning, (3) a reference list for teaching grammatical structures in situational contexts, (4) ideas for increasing communicative competence of ESL students, (5) a discussion of improving teacher-made language tapes, (6) a discussion of public speaking in the ESL classroom, and (7) a consideration of the "Silent Way" approach to language teaching. Other articles discuss student needs, and the results of a survey that clarifies characteristics of ESL students are presented. Testing is discussed in articles on: (1) the use of the Cottle test to select reading material, and (2) testing adult immigrants in open enrollment programs. Other articles include a description of the Family Language Problem of John Jay High School in Park Slope and reflections in applied linguistics. (NCE)
TESOL Newsletter: Articles from Volume X
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Edited by John F. Haskell

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Edited by John F. Haskell

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ALATIS ON ACRONYMS: PART II

Note: This is part two of an article excerpted from a speech by Jim Alatis, before TESOL. This part is on linguistics, TESOL, bilingualism, bilingual and bicultural education, and ESL. It is a history of the ESL profession in the U.S. It is about national TESOL, its past history, present status, and future prospects, and of the relationships between national TESOL and its affiliates and individual members. In Part I, Dr. Alatis discussed the acronyms which are so much a part of Washington, Education, and English: ESL, TESL, TESOL, etc. This part begins where Part I left off.

In order to combine the concepts of TEFL and TESL, we came up with yet another acronym: TESL, which stands both for the organization and for the profession that it represents. While we were going through the process of deciding what to call this thing, one clever wag thought that we should call it Teachers of English for Linguists of Other Nations. TESL. Punch line: It never sticks!

Pronunciation

It is not surprising, nor should it be, that in a group that has to do with language and language variation, there should be a division of opinion as to pronunciation. There are those who say 'tlaysh' and those who say 'tesh'. I insist it's the former and I claim to have the support of open and checked syllables in the historical development of the phonology of the English language and even in the famous among those who think otherwise. It does us a real disservice and it ruins a lot of kids because these people don't have the kind of attitude and the kind of understanding to say nothing of the skills and knowledge that is required to teach accordingly.

A.P.S.E.

A.P.S.E. I really like acronyms, so I created yet another one: it's my LAISE acronym: L.A.P.S.E. It has nothing to do with linguistic tape, nor slips of the tongue, or lepace lingue, or such phenomena as these. I leave that to our linguistic friends to handle. It's a mnemonic device that I use when people ask me, 'What is it you think every TEFL/TESL ought to know? or do? or have? or be trained in?' courses that he should take?" Of course, I don't mean this to be merely course-counting or credit counting. I mean the kinds of courses, the kind of knowledge that can be acquired which quality a person.

The L in my acronym stands for LINGUISTICS. The kind of knowledge that one gets if he is exposed to a course in introduction to general linguistics. The thing that's important about this is not so much individual facts as the attitudes towards language, toward linguistic change, the distinction between speech and writing, and the acceptance of all languages, cultures, and dialects as important and worthy of study in and of themselves.

I have an L acronym, L stands for language itself, and that is the foreign language the language of the student: no TESL, TESL, TESOL. TEFLON, really does a good job unless he himself has been exposed frequently in a formal way to the study of a foreign language. He'll never appreciate the problems of his students.

The A in my acronym stands for ANTHROPOLOGY. I've already alluded to the anthropological approach of early linguists. I refer here to the notion of cultural anthropology and the notion of cultural relativity, the understanding that other people's cultures are real, too, that there are different ways to do things. I use my acronyms to refer to the different learning styles that people have that one must take into account as he goes through the procedure of teaching them anything.

The P in my acronym stands for PSYCHOLOGY, and more, in CHOLINGUISTICS. The psychologist is one who applies the knowledge from the science of psychology and combines it with knowledge about language and linguistics toward understanding the problems of language acquisition.

The S stands for SOCIOLOGY, or SOCHOLINGUISTICS, and that has to do with the notion of social, regional, functional varieties of the language which, at least historically, refers to such varieties as "Black" English or the English of Appalachian whites. But that's not the exclusive use of course. It also refers to language variety, to linguistic diversity, in India, Africa, and all over the world. It has to do with the "prescribed" vs. "not so pure" languages such as the vulgar language of modern Greek vs. the more popular one, the various dialects, so-called, of Arabic and so on.

The E stands for EDUCATION, which I equate with Pedagogy. And the kinds of things that are involved here are the kinds that one learns in the methodology classes that we take. It includes methods and materials, theory and practice, practice teaching, demonstration, observation, shock language, the exposure to language laboratories.
and philosophy. And corresponding to these, we can find the four orientations to bilingual education, which generate and maintain bilingual education. These orientations are: (1) the language of education, which maintains the language for educational purposes; (2) the content of education, which uses content and teaching methods in one or more languages; (3) the process of education, which combines the language of instruction and content; and (4) the institutional framework, which provides the structure and resources for bilingual education.

Bilingual Education

I want now, though, to get back to the business of bilingual education because it is an important matter. TESOL and bilingual education. With the recent attention to governmental interest and activity in bilingual education, it has often been asked, "What is TESOL?". Although TESOL has always had a role in bilingual education, whether by TESOL we mean simply the discipline of teaching English as a foreign language, or by TESOL we mean the professional organization of teachers of other languages or the professional organization from whose name the acronym derives, TESOL, however, is more accurately defined as bilingual education. The term "bilingual education," as used here, means two languages and a very important role for TAP and all teachers of other languages. And in the area of TAP, there is a recognition of the fact that there are two languages involved. Some people consider the two languages as separate, and this is an important point. It is important to consider the two languages as separate, and this is an important point. It is important to consider the two languages as separate, and this is an important point.
**ACRONYMS**

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Misconception

The next article, also was seeing to us, attacks the TESOL method because that teaching English without regard to the language of the learner. This is all wrong: The four points, it's foundation, it's actually ignorant, it's perspicacious, it's misleading, it's insidious, and it creates a mischievous polarization that doesn't help any of us. TESOL is dead, bilingualism is good. I hear a person who knows the way that you and I do quoted in a newspaper saying, Madame Chatamier just announced in a newspaper that bilingualism is bad, "Clairé. What me they saying about you, Elaine?" I asked, "Now they just said that you don't believe in bilingualism" Well, it depends on how you define it. Bilingualism in Canada, and this is the place that this was a long time had to do with a piece of legislation which said that every civil servant, in order to keep his job, and those people had been in the job for 20, 30 years, you see, has to now learn a foreign language. If he was English-speaking, he had to learn French, otherwise he'd lose his job. Now bilingualism so defined is dead, is that what Elaine Chatamier said and meant when she said bilingualism was bad. It come out in a newspaper, "Mme. Chatamier says bilingualism is bad," So, if we're not careful about our definitions, we're all going to be bad. And we've got to keep these lines straight and keep the people who make our laws and implement them, and interpret them, straight in their thinking.

I am determined to dispell some of these misconceptions that tend to polarize us. We must not lose sight of the fact that among the main characteristics of teaching English as a second language in this country has been the fact that, as I've said before, the field has, from its inception, been inextricably intertwined with the field of linguistics. It is natural, therefore, that following our friends, the linguist, so in the field of English as a second language have placed great importance on the primacy of language and on spoken language at that! We must remember that the first linguists were anthropologists and that they were also interested in the culture of the language that they might be studying. Further, the linguists contributed to our view of language, their system, among, which insisted upon the objective observation of the

Notes of the first paragraph may belong to the discussion of the TESOL method, indicating a need for understanding the method's impact on language learning. The article emphasizes the importance of defining terms clearly and avoiding polarizing language.

**English as an Additive**

In view of statements made by Charles Fries, one of our acknowledged leaders, it's somewhat surprising to hear some of our colleagues in other fields of language and education accept teachers of English as a second language as a language of "linguistic imperialism" and "cultural insensitivity." We've been that route. We've gotten there. When we were teaching English abroad, those were real problems. We haven't solved it. We're still struggling with it. It's a complex issue, but it's important that we address it and work towards a solution that respects the diversity of cultures and languages.

The article discusses the challenges faced by ESL teachers in integrating language education with cultural sensitivity, highlighting the need for a more inclusive approach to teaching English as a second language.
An Annotated Bibliography On ESL At The Elementary Level

By Josefina Vargas O’Keefe

Reading on the elementary level is all too often ignored in the field of English as a second language. At the request of WATESOL, it was suggested that this particular skill area get more recognition within the organization. Josefina Vargas O’Keefe, Head, ESEA—Title I ESOL Program working at the Key School in Arlington, Virginia has offered to share her annotated bibliography of reading texts and materials that she has used in her teaching of reading on the elementary level. These same materials have also been used with native speakers in elementary reading programs. Publishers’ addresses as well as order numbers are included.

1. Motivator Activity Card Kits
   (Singer: SVE—Society for Visual Education, Inc. 1345, Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Illinois 60614)

   Initial Consonants - No. 1005
   Final Consonants - No. 1006
   Long Vowels - No. 1007
   Short Vowels - No. 1008
   Consonant Blends Bingo - No. 1011
   Consonant Digraphs - No. 1012

   I found these kits very useful for beginning students of English with very limited proficiency. It is also most helpful to students who have some English but need reinforcement in correct pronunciation, in simple spelling, and vocabulary. Students in groups of two to eight can use the kit by themselves in the regular classroom with the guidance of a reliable “buddy” as a volunteer aide, or a teacher. Included in the above list are kits that prove helpful to Spanish-speaking students. They are attractive in color and erasable with tissue paper.

2. The Reading Helpers: Levels Two through Seven by Gloria Orlick (The Book-Lab, Inc. 1440 - 37th St, Brooklyn, New York 11218)

   Level 2 - No. 2120  Level 5 - No. 2150
   Level 3 - No. 2130  Level 6 - No. 2160
   Level 4 - No. 2140  Level 7 - No. 2170

   Most useful for classroom teachers of non-English-speaking students with varying levels of proficiency. Conceptual in approach, each lesson teaches basic skills incrementally. A “buddy” or aide can use this easily because there are explicit directions for both the teacher and pupil on the left hand page. Each exercise can be detached and duplicated on dittoes for classwork or homework. Used originally in New York for Puerto Rican students and second dialect students.


   Level 1 - No. 18073 Level 4 - No. 18076
   Level 2 - No. 18074 Level 5 - No. 18077
   Level 3 - No. 18075

   Useful to the student who is taking ESOL classes. He can take the book home for review and reinforcement of grammatical structures and vocabulary already learned. Attractively illustrated, it provides the student with help in reading and writing comprehension.

4. The Miami Linguistic Readers: ESL - The First and Second Level Program twenty-one separate student books and twenty-one separate workbooks (D. C. Heath and Co., P.O. Box 3172, Richmond, Virginia 23220)

   Specially designed for Spanish speakers. Field-tested in Florida and California. Starting one step before the usual reading program, it helps students gain oral/moral mastery of the materials they are expected to read in the regular reading program. It also provides new grammatical patterns and handwriting practice. I found this to be very useful to the Spanish-speaking and Korean students because it concentrates on overcoming the phonological and morphological problems encountered by a majority of these students. The story contents are of interest to varying age levels and are of multi-ethnic orientations.

5. Bill Martin Reading Series: published by Scott Foresman and Company

   For students of varying proficiency levels and for different age levels containing books of different topics and interesting to all ages. An important feature is reading with rhythmic and musical accompaniment. Can be used as a short listening activity as well. There is plenty of vocabulary and grammatical reinforcement. Fifty books with cassette tapes. I found these books very popular among elementary children aged six through twelve; can be used as individual or group work to culminate a TESOL lesson or language arts lesson.


   Thirty books and records are in this set. For elementary grades, but can be used with junior high students. Small, handy books with records in the back pockets. The readings accompanied with music, plus rhymes and poems for supplementary activities. Can be used for short listening activity. About ten of the books are also in Spanish edition. Popular with kindergartens through third grades.


   Used to supplement - the Boumar books and records. Series includes flash cards, tapes, records, reading cards, posters, a teacher’s manual, student books, workbooks, practice pads and test pads. Can be used for junior and senior high students as well as elementary students, depending on the proficiency levels. The posters and flash cards are quite useful, particularly for the teacher who has no time to develop and collect visual aids. The visual materials have been chosen to develop conceptual skills as well as English language skills. However, this huge series and one must pick and choose what would work in a particular program.

8. Learning Basic Skills Through Music by Hap Palmer (Educational Activities, Inc., Freeport, New York 11520)

   A collection of original and simple folk songs and rhythmic movement activities on phonograph records for children in elementary grades. Both fun and educational. Designed for use with Head Start and special education programs, but particularly effective with ESOL young children. Topics include sizes, colors, foods, home activities, etc. I found these records very useful in reinforcement of vocabulary and grammar by means of music and manipulative activities.

9. Capitalization and Punctuation: Programs for Individualized Instruction, A, B, C by Richard Boning (Barnell Loft, Ltd. 958 Church Street, Baldwin, New York 11510)

   I have used these materials with ten and twelve year olds who have been in the United States for a year or so and who need help in the basic mechanics of writing and spelling. The exercises develop the writing composition skills in an incremental way. An important feature is a self-testing exercise at the end of each lesson.

10. The First Talking Story Book; The Second Talking Book published by Scott Foresman

   Excellent source for listening and reading. I use both stories in our “TESOL Library” in the ESOL classrooms. Each series contains twenty-one lively, interesting stories: folk tales of various countries, popular stories of the age of interest for elementary

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tary school children. Attractive illustrations in color; each book with a
33 1/3 record in the back pocket. Giant "library" cards which show all
the titles of the books in the series and
space for the child to check his reading accompanies each series. TESOL
students of varying levels of proficiency can profit from this material.
Those students of extremely limited proficiency can listen to the teacher
or an aide as the story is being read, or if he can decode and understand to
some degree, he can listen and follow
the story on the printed page.

Johanna Guccione from the Prince-George's County Public Schools also
suggests The Jacaranda Individualized Language Arts Program for ESL
in the elementary level. [See ad in
this issue.]
Messages From the Presidents

In setting up this first issue of our Tenth year as a professional organization we asked the past, present, and next presidents to comment, if they would, on two questions which seem to be asked quite often of late to and by members of our organization. The questions were: What is to be our professional position in the seeming conflict between ESL and bilingual/bicultural education? And, given the present criticism of many of the audio-lingual techniques, what should teachers do? The following are the responses which we received. Note that President Galvan covered both of these questions in the last issue of the Newsletter and that Dr. Alatis discusses them in this issue in Part II of his article, The Editor.

Harold B. Allen
President 1966-67

When Silbert Phelps wrote on "English Idiom and English Culture in English Language Teaching" in January, 1949, he, like other teachers of English in non-English-speaking countries, was well aware that ESL does not proceed in a cultural vacuum. In the March, 1950, issue of the same journal A. V. P. Elliott said (p. 164): "One of the greatest benefits to be gained from the study of a foreign language, if it is properly taught, is some imaginative insight into the way of life of the people who speak it." He then explained that "properly taught" means "taught so as to relate the language to the life and activity of its speakers."

When Robert Lado's Linguisitics Across Cultures appeared in 1957, it performed a great service to the profession, not by a sudden revelation of unsuspected truth but by its overt and detailed expression of what experienced teachers had known right along -- that good teaching of a language calls for teaching its culture at the same time. Indeed, in the foreign

field it often was not the teacher at fault when culture was neglected; it was more likely to be governmental policy. When preparing textbooks in Egypt twenty years ago I recall being told by ministry officials that they be used in the schools the textbooks must describe Egyptian life in English, not life in the United States or England.

In this country social and political developments have quite recently put extraordinary emphasis upon what might be called the cultural element of ESL teaching. Understandably, in a situation where the foreign language is spoken within the general American cultural area, this emphasis is necessary. It is also understandable that with this sudden expansion of concern there should appear on the scene a great many Johnny-come-latelies whooping it up for what has become known as bilingual education. With

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many of them I am most sympathetic with those for the non-English culture who feel that to lose their rich cultural identity is being recognized. I am much less sympathetic with others, as in the fields of education and government, who have simply found a new bandwagon for personal aggrandizement and who retain the myth that anyone who speaks English can teach English.

I am not bad-mouthing the Johnny-cone-latiles. We need their drive and enthusiasm. But all Johnny-cone-latiles, no matter how worthy their cause, have an obligation to find out what has gone on before them—in this case, to learn something of the history of ESL and what ESL actually is as a professional discipline. That historical background would reveal to them that any confrontation or split between bilingual education and TESL is serious, and that it can be maintained only out of persistent naivete.

TESOL at this time has an organizational responsibility, and its members have a personal responsibility to publicize in every way, with special concern for reaching key persons in politics and education, the simple fact that teaching English as a second or sixth language is a professional discipline, that by very definition of language incorporates the teaching of the second culture as well as the second language. Let it be known that TESOL has the larger, the all-embracing, circle. We are all in this cause together.

But I am perhaps more concerned about another development, this time a negative one—the failure of the past two national administrations to carry on with adequate support for our ESL responsibilities and opportunities in other countries. The decline in legislative appropriations is particularly shameful at a time when billions of dollars are going to the military but when the overseas demand for English has expanded immeasurably. Here, too, TESOL has an obligation to see that members of the relevant house and senate committees become aware not only that TESOL is a professional discipline calling for professional preparation, not only that federal support for our long-established English teaching programs has either diminished or disappeared, but especially that the renewal of these programs on a massive scale is a better contribution to international unity than whatever military hardware could be bought for an equivalent expenditure. I propose that officially TESOL mount a powerful information campaign to reach members of the several congressional committees on education and foreign affairs. We are not going to get what is needed by bewailing the situation and sitting on our hands.

Mary Finocchiaro
President 1970-71

Your two seemingly simple questions would warrant pages of discussion. Any educational issue, including as it does the interaction of an indefinitely variety of learners, teachers, schools and communities, can never have an "either-or" answer. When, in addition, political or other forces distort the realities of the learning situation without sufficient regard for each pupil's present and future welfare, the answer becomes even more complex.

Let us look at your question re. bilingual-bicultural education. It seems to me that in order to arrive at viable answers, we must:

1. Seek a more exact definition of the terms "bilingual" and "bicultural". For whom is the program intended? What are its developmental and terminal objectives? The fact of having a Spanish or Italian surname or a brown or black skin does not mean that the pupil does not already know standard English. Moreover, we should raise our sights in any discussion of bilingual education. Schools should enable all students to learn one or more foreign languages and to appreciate not only their native culture and one other culture, but a plurality of cultures.

2. Obtain a more specific knowledge of the points on the continuum of native and second language skills on which each learner may be at any particular moment. Oral and/or written tests should be prepared in a variety of languages for learners of different age levels.

3. Consider diverse objectives, curriculum, materials, methods, evaluation procedures and teacher skills (E.g., knowledge of the learners' language) which will be affected by the following minimal variables: a) the age levels of learners (pre-school, six to nine, ten to twelve, thirteen to sixteen, sixteen and above); b) the types of classroom organization available in the community for language learners; c) the number of language learners in the program; d) the variety of language and cultural backgrounds represented; e.g., does the native language have a written form? e) the degree of the learner's literacy in the mother tongue; f) the years of schooling in the native country or in the previous community; g) the years of schooling in the present country; h) the type of community in which the school is located; i) the age of the pupil at entry into school either in the former or the present community; the time of his entry into a class. It should be obvious by now that no easy answer can be forthcoming.

Permit me to make a few comments:

1. Each age level will make different demands on the school and on the community. For example, young children who do not know English should learn concepts in social studies, science and mathematics in their mother tongue for as long as really necessary. They should, however, be programmed for physical education, art, music and recreational activities with English-speaking children from the very first day of school. Instruction in English should take account of the child's social and affective needs and should be based on an interdisciplinary approach. This would make it possible for him or her to be placed in classes with native English speakers of the same age group as quickly as feasible.

2. Older students who may never have been to school or those above sixteen who have particular interests or aspirations will need a special curriculum taught by especially trained teachers. Departments of Education or appropriate organizations working in cooperation with classroom teachers should provide individual study kits for these students.

3. The entire school and community pupils, teachers, parents, members should be helped to develop feelings of mutual acceptance and cooperation.

4. Very frankly, having lived through it as a non-English speaking child of immigrants, I dread the thought that measures being advocated by some people today will plunge us into segregated schooling. I and other teachers and supervisors have been fighting segregation since 1940 because we became painfully aware of two major facts: a) It is very comfortable for some teachers and administrators to protest that pupils with minor linguistic problems are not yet "ready" to enter the mainstream of the school; and b) Retarding the learning of the dominant language of the community makes it extremely difficult for learners to move easily out of a ghetto in
PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES
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which they may be living.

4. Above all, therefore, we must provide and enforce safeguards which will enable all students to learn in the way which is best for them (thus reinforcing their hope that they can learn): to retain pride in their native language and culture (a wonderful way of doing this is to know that others are learning their language): to enter the universities of their choice on a level with their peers; and to become participating members of the community if they so desire.

With relation to your second question, I'd like to mention some aspects of the audio-lingual method which I would delete; e.g., rote memorization of dialogues or model sentences, an overdose of pattern drills for the purpose of 'overlearning', the ban on reading until after a long aural-oral period has elapsed; the ban on keeping the text open as the teacher reads aloud; the ban on verbalizing grammar rules based on teacher or text models; the ban on translation (where such activity would be feasible); the ban on using the student's culture as a point of departure in appropriate teaching presentations.

I would instead like to emphasize the following points, (in addition to the opposites of the above): 1) Both habit formation and cognitive code theories should be used in presentation and practice; 2) The content should include concepts from other school disciplines as well as materials which are relevant to the students themselves because they're related to happenings and places in their community and to their cultural background; 3) Content and methodology should be pragmatic. Moreover they should be modified in harmony with the resources in the community and the students' learning rhythm and styles; 4) Provision should be made for group activities and peer teaching; 5) Linguistic and cultural materials already presented should be consciously reintroduced whenever feasible in more extended contexts and in different socio-cultural situations; 6) Pupils should be helped to recognize and to produce the utterances which speakers need to express the various situations which language serves in real life. The goal should be communicative competence; that is, students should acquire the ability to recognize correct and appropriate language and to use it both correctly and appropriately in the specific socio-cultural situation in which the communication act is taking place; 7) Pupils should be enabled to recognize and to use contextual clues and features of redundancy as well as to anticipate words or structures they are likely to hear and read; that is, they should be helped to internalize a grammar of expectations; 8) Pupils should make their productions correct with common sense and great sensitivity. For example, when students are expressing themselves creatively, errors which do not impede comprehension should be temporarily ignored; 9) Students must be allowed to enjoy many small successes. For example homework assignments should be sampled in class; the content of most tests should be announced in advance; praise should be given whenever possible; students should be encouraged to direct many of the activities in which they will be asked to engage; 10) Tests should measure discrete elements of language for diagnostic purposes but primarily the more motivating integrative skills.

In sum, my dear John, to answer both your questions, teaching should be raised to the level of art. The enthusiastic, empathetic, concerned, well-prepared teacher cannot help but be a consummate artist.

Russell N. Campbell
President 1971-72

In your letter of December 2, 1975, you suggested that there might be some interest, in my opinion, on two general questions that are currently uppermost in the minds of the TESOL membership. These questions have to do with TESOL's role in bilingual education and with teachers' modifications of the audio-lingual approach that might be suggested by recent research in second language acquisition.

Although this is not the forum for a lengthy consideration of the role of ESL in the development of bilingual/bicultural education programs for the youth of our country, a couple of notions do occur to me that might be worth including here for future consideration and argument.

In a sense, those of us in ESL/BFL, from times long before the inception of TESOL, as a professional organization, before the Bilingual Education Act, have worked toward providing people with an opportunity to become bilingual/bicultural. No ESL scholar that I have ever met has included in his/her curricular plans overt suppression of a learner's native language or culture. On the other hand, it has not been an overriding principle held dear by every ESL scholar that in each situation that ESL has been taught that there should be evidence of 'equal time' for the development or maintenance of the learners' native language and culture. Rather, the ESL scholar has limited his/her attention to the development of theories of second language teaching and learning that might provide theoretical underpinnings for making decisions in the design and implementation of English language programs. The 'theories' of second language learning have been the subject of constant experimentation over the centuries (i.e., E. Kelly: Twenty-five Centuries of Language Teaching). In this generation we have modified our collective assumptions (to use Ed. Anthony's term) again and again as we have enlarged our frame of reference to include not only the contributions of Linguistics to our theory building, but of Sociology, Psychology, Anthropology and Education as well. Among the most significant gains that have been made toward a synthesis of knowledge from these disciplines, and the only significant research in developing a viable theory of second language acquisition have come from those scholars who are most closely associated with TESOL.

There is a difference between bilingualism and bilingual education. The first usually has to do with the definition of processes and conditions which result in some degree of linguistic competence in two languages; the latter with the implementation of scholastic programs that are designed to provide opportunities for students' acquisition of a second language and the maintenance and normal development of a home language. It seems eminently clear to me that scholars, past, present and future, that pertain to bilingualism carried out by TESOL, scholars should be carefully, considered by educators who wish to establish bilingual education programs. There should be no conflict of interests here.

On the question of recent research, and the implications for modification of courses based upon the audio-lingual approach, two points need to be made at the outset. (1) Classroom teachers are in fact quite capable of grasping the import of the humanization movement suggested by recent research in Second Language Acquisition. (2) Few classroom teachers have ever completely sold their souls to a strict mechanical interpretation of language teaching as some have interpreted the techniques of the A-L method. I dare say that there has been a huge collective sigh of relief as teachers have been informed that
their concern for the student's self-esteem; his attitudes, his ability to think and reason, his motivation, his patience, his goals, etc., etc., are vital elements in the teaching-learning paradigm; something that they have in some way known all along. Perhaps we should be assured that there is nothing inherently dangerous in the tenets of the audio-lingual approach as they are reflected in our classroom behavior as long as we are sensitive to these characteristics of the learner and teacher, listed above. For if we are sensitive to them, and respond to them, then, no matter the method, we have a good chance of becoming successful teachers.

It seems to me that teachers and curriculum developers should not look for new dogma from experts to replace those of the A-L method. They would do well to trust their intuitions as to the appropriateness of course content and classroom procedures as they relate to the observed needs and interests of their students.

Al Ramirez
President 1972 73

Before Bilingual/Bicultural Education (B/BE) entered the scene in the late sixties, the only professional organization specializing in the needs of teachers of the non-English speaking was TESOL. As I recall, TESOL went on record in New Orleans, endorsing bilingual education for TESOL students when the concept was not yet in vogue.

Now that B/BE is in full swing and that there are enough practitioners to form another professional organization, we have another club to join. I see it as a natural development in the propagation of the species. Someday there may even be a need for an organization called TETSE-Teachers of English to Speakers of English.

I see no conflict between TESOL and B/BE, and certainly no need for TESOL to be defensive about charges of "inappropriateness." We cannot all B/BE teachers and administrators what they need. As far as competing for membership, we're not even reaching our potential membership in non-B/BE schools in the country to say nothing of the thousands of ESL teachers abroad.

I do not feel that TESOL needs to do anything except keep serving its membership in more and better ways. We need to identify exemplary programs in various parts of the country that can be visited by teachers and administrators seeking improvements in their ESL classes.

We need more experimentation in the measurement of progress in language acquisition, particularly in large group testing techniques. Without adequate assessment instruments schools lose valuable time before making necessary changes in methods, materials and personnel.

And finally, I feel that we need to support and encourage continuous development of alternative approaches to second language teaching especially as we employ film or videotape to elicit spoken communication and to make the learning process more stimulating.

Have ten years really gone by? It seems that we just began. That now, at last, we're ready to start rolling and there's so much to be done.

Betty Wallace Robinett
President 1973 74

The attached is my response to your request for statements from former TESOL presidents. I did not really answer your two questions but I think that if what I have written is correctly interpreted, it is an answer to the first question. The answer to your second question is a matter of good teaching and estimation. Teachers who are vitally interested in students will always consider the affective and cognitive aspects of the learning process and, as a consequence, will tailor their teaching to the class. That is why a good teacher never teaches the same subject in exactly the same way to different groups of students. It is an impossibility to do so if the teacher is sensitive to the needs and the learning problems of students as individuals and as a group.

One of the most important tasks before our profession at this moment is to find a way of ensuring that only qualified persons be appointed to perform ESL tasks. This includes administrators as well as teachers, and applies to every level of education, from kindergarten up to and including college and university programs.

One way to be sure that ESL positions at the public school level are filled with competent ESL personnel is through certification programs. At the college and university level this insurance can probably be provided through the dissemination of detailed descriptions of what our profession considers appropriately trained staff and adequately designed programs.

Because of the recent rapid influx of non-English speakers into our various educational systems, the need for qualified teachers has become crucial.

However, the only way to be sure that trained ESL persons are hired is by placing the same restrictions on ESL positions as are placed on positions for teachers of reading, social studies, or home economics at the public school level, and for instructors of history, Spanish, or mathematics at the collegiate level. Specific qualifications are needed in the form of degree requirements or certificates, and experience in teaching ESL. This is not asking any more or any less than is required for filling positions in other disciplines.

Members of our profession in states where ESL certification is not yet available should work toward this end. Furthermore, we need to disseminate among institutions of higher learning in our area's information about the qualifications which enable a person to be considered a legitimate member of the ESL profession.

We have been busy doing just this in Minnesota. Unlikely as it may seem, our cold northland state is one of the five or six in the United States with the largest number of Vietnamese refugees, and we are capitalizing upon the reaction of administrators and teachers, some of whom have, for the first time, become fully aware of the need for qualified ESL personnel. Obviously the need has been here for some time among other non-English-speaking groups; we are simply grateful that the impact made by this latest group has alerted school personnel and the general public to the need for special attention for the non-English speakers.

Along with representatives from other institutions and agencies in the state, I am personally involved in drawing up ESL certification requirements at the elementary, secondary, and adult education levels. I also take every possible opportunity to disseminate to colleges and universities in our area involved in teaching ESL the following two documents which outline specific qualifications for teachers and for programs in ESL:


*"Guideline for Intensive English Programs" and "Guidelines for Semi-intensive English Programs" available from ATESL.

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PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES

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glish as a Second Language) of NAFSA (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs).

It will require the concerted effort of the individual members of our profession to ensure at all educational levels the placement of qualified ESL personnel and the development of adequate ESL programs.
IS ESL APPROPRIATE?

The Continuing Case of Miscommunication

Thomas Buckingham and John Haskell

It is a curious and disturbing fact that the Supreme Court's decision in the now famous Lau vs. Nichols case has resulted not in improvement of educational opportunity for the disenfranchised minorities it was intended to help, but in confusion, anger, frustration and continued disappointment. Justice Douglas, writing for the Court, stated "... there is no equality of treatment by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education ... Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program, he must already have acquired those basic (English) skills is to make a mockery of public education."

Justice Douglas quotes the 1970 HEW guidelines: "Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students."

It is a tragic compounding of injustice that a decision with such well-intentioned goals and such well-defined purpose could result in a continuous backlash of reaction, counterreaction, misunderstanding, suspicion, defensiveness and confusion which has been characteristic of nearly everything written on or as a result of the Lau decision, over the past year. In all of the accusations and rebuttals which have found their way to print, no one has questioned the rights of the affected minorities, the justice of the law, or the need for action. The focus of the differences on this question appears to be the appropriateness of ESL programs as remedies for the inequalities which the law is intended to rectify.

The reason for the misunderstanding and the resulting cross-accusations appears to be in large part, the result of the publication of the Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful under Lau v. Nichols. These were a set of "guidelines" prepared by a task force appointed by the

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IS ESL APPROPRIATE?

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Center for Applied Linguistics for the Office of Civil Rights in the summer of 1975. Inherent in this document are the seeds of dissatisfaction which have borne such bitter fruit in the ensuing year. The document is very explicit in its conception of what ESL is, stating; "Because an ESL program does not consider the affective nor cognitive development of students in this category (elementary school) and time and maturation variables are different here than for students at the secondary level, an ESL program is not appropriate." This statement, more than anything else in the Remedies exposes the serious misconception of the members of the task force about what ESL is. It states that the end result of BL/BC Programs is students who "can function, totally, in both languages and can test in both languages," without pointing out that the end product of an ESL program is exactly the same and that an ESL program, too, concerns itself with cultural factors in instruction.

Bilingual educators seem to believe that ESL is an "alternative" to a bilingual education program for a bilingual child. They have confused subject matter with a way to organize a curriculum. This is a serious confusion, indeed. ESL is not an approach to education; it is a component of a total educational program. It is a course with a content, like French, or mathematics, or earth science. Like all courses, it has a specified content with concepts and skills to be learned. Bilingual education is not a course; it has no content. One doesn't learn Bilingual Education in the way one learns French, for example. BE is an approach to education, a way to organize a total curriculum, much as "the open classroom" or "elective courses" are ways to organize learning so as to present subject matter most effectively to students.

As a course, ESL can be seen in its proper perspective in a Bilingual Education Program. It is a set of skills and concepts organized in such a way as to relate to other components of the program so that the student receives the maximum benefit from his educational opportunity. Even the Remedies, somewhat contradictorily, acknowledge that ESL is an essential component of all BE Programs. The effect of the strong statement on the inappropriateness of ESL, however, has created what amounts, to educational malpractice by eliminating an essential component from some programs and support activities.

That ESL ignores affective goals in teaching is easily disproved. A visit to any current ESL class at any level will more than abundantly illustrate in texts, materials, procedures, and techniques the inclusion of references to the home culture of the students; I have never seen an ESL teacher attempt to denigrate the culture of his students. Furthermore, the first issue of the first volume of the TESOL Quarterly carries at least one article emphasizing the importance of the culture of the students predating the Lau decision by nearly ten years--as have innumerable articles since. Current methodology encourages the use of specific subject matter areas in teaching ESL and is considered pedagogically sound practice.

The latest development in this wrangle is a memorandum issued in April to regional HEW officials which affirms in part that "it is not mandatory for school districts to provide bilingual education to children whose primary language is not English."

Responses to the HEW memorandum were immediate. The Washington Post of April 19, 1976 printed the following:

Washington—The Health, Education and Welfare Department, seeking to clear up a growing U.S. education issue, has quietly affirmed that it is not mandatory for school districts to provide bilingual education to children whose primary language is not English. The memorandum sent April 8 to regional HEW officials, is intended to "clarify" the "misunderstandings" by some of the government's own civil rights enforcers about a sensitive policy...


"The Lau Remedies are very specific that bilingual education be used," said NABE President Albert Pena, a professor at the University of Texas at San Antonio. "While bilingual education is preferred it isn't mandated," he added.

Pena—and other members of NABE executive committee—said misinterpretation of the memorandum had upset bilingual educators over the future of bilingual education. This interpretation can be used as a vehicle for doing nothing," said Maria Medina Swanson, President-elect of NABE.

It is clear that the Washington Post, Wilmington Evening Journal, and the San Antonio Express articles have merely added to the kind of confusion, misinterpretation, and fear which has abounded over the past year. The effect of these kinds of statements will be that effective programs will be delayed, and appropriate solutions overlooked until the misconceptions are cleared up.

In the most recent TESOL publication entitled ESL in Bilingual Education, the Executive Secretary of TESOL clearly makes the kind of statement that opens the door for the kind of communication and clarification heeded when he states, "What we need is more cooperation between, and a coalition of, teachers of ESL and specialists in bilingual education who can work together toward a common purpose, and that purpose is to help thousands of children throughout the United States to reach their full potential as citizens of our increasingly complex and troubled society."

He further makes a call for the kind of action that a continuingly unilateral stance cannot hope to achieve when he states, "It is not uncommon for two fields such as TESOL and bilingual education to have a common, stated goal but, because of the professional anarchy which prevails, for one group to neutralize the other. The proliferation, duplication, and internecine conflict among organizations consumes energy and displaces constructive programs needed for development of an effective profession. We need planned integration of interrelated language groups, ATESL, TESOL, NABE, LSA, ACTFL, NCTE, MLA, and CAL, each with specialized functions, all directed toward common purposes."

This is a call, clearly to those professionals in both, in all these organizations, to communicate as professionals, and cooperatively support effective and honest solutions to the problem.

CONVENTION REPORT

Teaching English as an Alien Language

This article was put together from reflections and recollections made by Cathy Day and Charles Blatchford and includes interview material gathered by Diana Berkowitz, Editor.

Earl Stevick's talk was a moving account and recapitulation of his odyssey seeking his solution to the riddle of language teaching. He talked about how he has changed over the years—from being a language teacher to a linguist to a language teacher—which is what he wants to be. It was very exciting to be led into new realms of human integration, into one man's settling into his own style of teaching, consistent with his whole being.

Dr. Stevick feels that the designation of the study of language teaching is a branch of applied linguistics may have the deleterious effect of distracting the teachers attention away from other things, namely the personal dynamics in the classroom. An over-emphasis on linguistic analysis may make the teacher overly concerned about such things as contrastive analysis or applications of transformational grammar to language teaching. As a result of having such a perspective, the teacher may neglect the affective domains of the learning situation.

He mentioned that he had changed in his belief of how to teach language, saying he was, in a way, a bit puzzled by his own earlier insistence on "drill" and quoted his own quote, re: drill being the keystone in the arch. It is difficult to criticize his talk because of its personal nature, but his hallmark was humility in his quest. His presentation was a documented, carefully reasoned, and unassuming statement in which he was not seeking agreement but affirming his reconciliation of theory and practice. It was easy to identify with his talk as we search for harmony between our personal and professional lives, between in- and out-of-the-classroom personalities.

Dr. Stevick discussed barriers in the classroom, alienation, from the student's point of view: the barriers between the student and the new culture he is learning, between the student and the teacher, between the student and other students, and between the student and his self. Stevick not only pointed out how students may surmount these barriers by acts of psychological or physical withdrawal and aggression, but it suggested what the teacher could do to minimize the height of these barriers. Specifically, he felt that the student could learn more when the student feels secure when the student is allowed to learn from himself and his peers. The realization of these three conditions depends on a very large degree upon the willingness of the teacher to let them exist, and just how the teacher can provide for the emergence of a conducive atmosphere is the challenge that each of us faces in our classrooms. Stevick can do it, but many of us cannot until we are of a mind to want to give up something of our position and share it with the student.

He now believes in a humanistic approach to language learning and teaching—giving credit to Curran/Counseling-Learning for most of his concepts. For him, he believes, great deal to the Silent Way. He finds the underlying principles of the Silent Way approach sufficiently compatible with those of CL so that it is not a matter of having to choose between them.

He is currently concerned for the students' ego, and for not invading the students' space nor alienating him. He believes that the student needs to do the initiating or the teacher) and that practices (drills) can be developed after the student initiates. The teacher's role is therefore changed and it becomes very uncomfortable at first to not be the one directing or initiating—but that students may learn more quickly and eagerly with this methodology.

In answer to a question about the differences between the psychologists and linguists, the questioners claim that people tend to perform best when they are a little bit tense and the fact that in CL the learner is constantly reassured and made to feel as relaxed as possible, he said that he has found that better learning takes place when tension is reduced. However, tension and pressure are not completely gotten rid of in CL. Furthermore, he agrees that if you put people under some pressure, you get better results than if you completely eliminate all pressure. It is a matter of quality as well as quantity. It is important to realize that there are different kinds of tension. One might be termed intellectual tension, i.e., frustration which can occur when the learner is having trouble working something out. This kind of tension can spur the learner on to try to increase his learning. On the other hand, tension which is caused by threats to one's self-concept, i.e., feeling of being evaluated or ordered around, leads to defensive learning.

Dr. Stevick believes that students learn better from themselves than from someone who is in a position of authority. In the latter case, things may "go in one ear and out the other." In contrast, when students work on themselves, they tend to better internalize the knowledge gained from this kind of activity. In addition, the knowledge comes in terms they can understand and at a time they are ready for it. One important point is that students put up no resistance when they are learning from themselves, but they may resist getting information from someone in authority, i.e., defensive learning.

The students, this way, become independent of the teacher, and more dependent on each other for help in their language learning—they develop into a community of language learners.

Stevick went on to say that he was not issuing a clarion call for all language teachers to follow him along this path—first because he didn't think there were any more clarion calls in him; secondly because he wasn't at all sure that this approach was for everyone (he said all language teachers—but I would question all language students as well). He said that he thought there might be some good language teachers who for one reason or another couldn't use this methodology, but that he was going ahead with it himself.
In the social realm, the learned language has a context as well as a structure. As the students develop their interlanguage, they will begin to function as a small speech community, and here the social aspect again becomes important. There is nothing so stifling to a language being learned as when the student cannot get a feeling that the language is a living system used by real people.

In some cases, children have grown up with two languages—where the father speaks one and the mother another, or a mixed community where two or more languages are spoken, usually one language is dominant—one may be a school language and the other a home language. One may be the language of the country and the other a minority language spoken by a smaller group of people, either a certain region or a certain class, such as an immigrant group. In some cases this may be a psychological block to a child for he may learn both languages but not as well as he would one language that he concentrates on. One study showed that this was true with very young children but if they continued to use and study both, it was possible to become proficient in both and compete successfully with other children in the national language.

In this study, social and psychological factors were very important. The degree of learning varied with the motivation. Perhaps the fastest learning took place when a person coming into a country learned to use only the new language and he was not among speakers of his language at all. In time such persons might lose their own language entirely, especially children. On the other hand with the encouragement of parents, children can easily separate the language of the home and the school.

There must be constant attention given to social and psychological factors, since the speaker of an immigrant language is often stigmatized for speaking it. Some parents take the easy way out and opt for the new language entirely and their children never learn their parent’s language. Those who encourage the learning of both languages have the chance to have their child learn two languages equally well.

This concept of interlanguage can extend to the bidialectical area too, except that in this case the non-standard dialect is usually the first language and the standard is one being learned. The interlanguage of a minority dialect of the standard, such as Black English is an approximation of standard English and the school tries to modify the learned patterns of the English dialect spoken at home. Doubtless this would be true for Scotch, Irish, mountain people, rural dialects etc., where the schools feel it is desirable to teach one standard through the whole country. German dialects illustrate this aptly where in many cases one dialect is spoken at home, whole another is taught at school.

There are of course many areas where people speak several versions of the same language with ease. In a sense everyone does this in different contexts—slang at work or in recreation, even rough talk or profanity, a colloquial standard at home, an educated standard at school, and a formal standard while writing.

The emphasis should be on real situations. One great criticism of language programs is that they are too mechanical and that the situations are too artificial. This conference made that criticism more than once and individuals made some rather negative comments on machines for teaching language. It was thought that electronic equipment, while it may be a help, worked only on repetition of fixed phrases and took the language out of a real communication situation. The same might be said for many language texts which stress repetition and structural patterns, often at the expense of natural discourse. No one opposes the use of repetition and reinforcement in teaching any subject. But in dealing with human beings we have the opportunity of teaching them to use logic, analogy, association and many other devices available to the human mind. Our speakers noted that memorizing texts in languages could have a negative effect, since in some cultures memorization is developed to such a fine degree that whole textbooks are memorized in order to pass an examination. If memory is used in language teaching to too great a degree it may become repetition without thinking and therefore meaningless as a means of communication.

The important point of the conference seems to me to be the emphasis on the learner of the language rather than the teacher or the method. It is the student who has to learn it, so it would seem best to start with him and start him where he is. If he knows nothing of the new language, the pronunciation, structure and vocabulary have to be given to him. If he knows it imperfectly, the teacher has to take him from there and in the language of the conference, to help him make his approximate system approach the standard.
UPDATING
A STEREOTYPE
Bruce Coleman
Alemany Adult School,
San Francisco

What does the layman ask when he meets an English as a second language (ESL) instructor from an adult school program for the first time?

"You work at night, don't you?"
"Aren't most of your students old, poor, and uneducated?"

"Do you teach Mexicans (or Puerto Ricans) mostly?" No?" "Well, how many languages do you speak?" And, "How can you teach foreigners if you don't speak all of their languages?"

Like a lot of stereotypes, these deserve to be questioned and perhaps buried. But, if nothing more, they should at least be updated to 1976.

Such an updating has just been accomplished in a revealing survey by Donna Ilyin in a nation-wide questionnaire and student population survey.

One hundred and twenty-six persons, or 36 per cent, responded to the two-page survey sent to 333 TESOL members of the Adult Special Interest Group.

Responses came from large cities such as New York and Detroit and small towns such as Escondido, California, and Rock Springs, Wyoming, as well as from Canada, Hawaii and Japan.

Findings that appear to break stereotypes are:

1. Instead of students being mostly in the over 55 age group, the survey indicated that most students are in an 18 to 29-year-old group. Most teachers reported, however, that they also had students in the same class aged 30 to 35 and some older.

2. Another typical stereotype is that adult students are slow learners, uneducated, come from disadvantaged backgrounds and 'don't really know how or want to learn English. They'd rather just socialize in their own language with people from their home land. On the contrary, over half the teachers in the survey indicated that most of the students in their classes had completed high school in another country; six responded that most had completed college or university while four stated that most of their students had started college. (Again, however, teachers reported that, in the same class, there were some students with little education and some that had finished colleges and universities.) Survery results showed that most of the ESL students in adult classes are "young, well-educated and underemployed," and not in school as a stepping stone to a college or university.

Most of the teachers questioned said their students are trying to get enough English to enter the fields in which they have already been trained.

3. Most ESL adult students go to school at night is another stereotype. Again—not true. The tally shows that more teachers reported teaching classes during the day than at night. Sixty-six teachers said they teach during the day while 52 said they teach in the evening.

4. Most ESL adult students are Spanish-speak ing—runs another popular stereotype. This is correct in a sense but it is not at all true when you consider the overall class makeup. Surveyed teachers reported having predominantly "mixed language groups." That is, 110 teachers said they teach mixed language groups while 11 teachers said they have Spanish-speaking students only, two Japanese speakers only, one Chinese and one French only. In the mixed language groups where dominant languages were represented, 88 teachers reported that most of their mixed students were Spanish speaking, 13 reported that most were Chinese speaking, five said Japanese, five Korean, four Vietnamese, four Arabic, three French, two Persian, two Italian, two Polish, one Russian, one Greek, one Filipino and one Punjabi.

5. Another stereotype is that adult ESL students are often middle class foreigners and they do not work. Adult classes used to have numbers of students who were, for the most part, supported by their relatives either here or in their home countries, but the Ilyin survey figures point out that teachers estimate over 50 percent of the students work either part or full-time. Are they in consulate or embassy situations where they might not need to improve their English? No. Although a few are visiting or on diplomatic visas, most students do menial, low-paying jobs such as that of dishwasher, baby-sitter, kitchen helper, seamstress or some type of housework.

Other aspects of the survey show that, in the teaching situation, teachers do not find any simple stereotypes but, instead, are confronted with something some liken to a "moveable circus." For example, some classes are set up in store fronts, in churches, in school rooms with chairs designed for children and wherever space can be found. Then—to juggle the different proficiency levels, age groups, language groups and cultures—many teachers use tapes, slides, movies, flash cards and realia to hold everything together. A Canadian teacher illustrates the kind of predicaments teachers must handle in an open enrollment class setting when she wrote:

"I teach any one of six various levels to any adult from any country—some having lived in Canada any where from less than a week to 20 or more years. Ninety per cent of the students have come to live here to improve their quality of life. There are anywhere from 15-72 in a class at various times."

Teachers were asked to tell their greatest successes and greatest problems in teaching.

The greatest problem was the wide diversity of a class with the lack of ready-made, individualized instruction materials which meant the problem of finding enough time to prepare all the materials needed.

Along with this problem were the related problems of having students illiterate in their own language in the same class as those who had academic habits and reading skills, and of having students with nil proficiency entering after a course was well under way.

Teachers reported in the survey that most of their classes have from 11 to 25 students at a session for two to three hours a day anywhere from four to 30 hours a week.

The majority of the teachers reported that most of the students fell into levels 100 to 200 where students had some English skills.

Forty-four teachers estimated that up to 10 per cent of their class was functionally illiterate in their own languages.

Literacy in the non-Roman alphabet was reported upon by 83 teachers. Of those teachers, only 18 said that over 75 percent of their students were literate in the non-Roman alphabet.

"Teachers were asked to report what most of their students' aspirations were. The main aspirations were: Literacy in English (the amount necessary to find a job in their present field), (33 teachers reporting); to upgrade their job, (32); to obtain any job, (17); to enter college or university, (15). Aspirations also included: Conversation skills, cultural reasons, survival English and to obtain U.S. citizenship.

More than half of the schools and institutions covered in the survey give students certificates of attendance or course completion authentication.

Teachers said that programs are usually financed by a combination of two or more federal, state or local agencies.
Bilingual Education: For the Melting Pot or for a New American Pluralism

by Allan Wiener
Human Resources Division
National Puerto Rican Forum

Bilingual education has existed since the founding of this nation. However, as a formal recognized response to a perceived educational need, it is recent. The recent proliferation of Bilingual Programs has been spurred by Title VII, of the ESEA, which for the first time provides funds for the implementation of such programs.

This legislation came into being based on two major observations: that there were certain groups in this country that were not performing in school as they should have been, and the dissemination of information based on linguistics, specifically, that reading and writing in elementary stages were extensions of already internalized structures in a students' vernacular. The humaneness and economy of providing instruction in certain areas such as mathematics in the students' vernacular was also apparent.

Before we proceed into the two main thrusts of what bilingual education is or could be, it might be wise to discuss what bilingual education is not. Bilingual Education is not ESL. Though a strong ESL program is part of any bilingual program, it is, but one of its constituents. Another myth that should be laid to rest is that bilingual staff does not automatically guarantee the existence of bilingual program. What is most important is that teachers involved perceive of themselves in their bilingual roles and subscribe to the philosophy of what a bilingual program is.

Most current bilingual programs appear to subscribe to the traditional goals of American education. That is, the domination of the various curricular areas and skills, ultimately in English. What is not apparent in this is that Bilingual Education is looked upon in these programs as a technique to achieve ultimate English dominance over the students' vernacular. There is a planned phasing out of the students' native language until, if its study is pursued, it is phased into the area of Foreign language instruction. This is a narrow and ultimately a self-defeating approach to bilingualism.

There is a more ample approach to bilingual education, one which per-

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receives of pluralism as a positive aspect of American society and views bilingualism and multilingualism as a great national resource. The awareness that occurred with the outbreak of WW II should have taught the Educational Community that we were in the wrong direction when we interpreted Americanization, in a narrow sense, as a goal of our system. We are now, though grudgingly, being given the opportunity to develop the linguistic and cultural resources of this nation. If we continue to interpret our bilingual mandate of just a technique to provide ultimate English dominance, we once again will have missed our opportunity. If, on the other hand, we attempt to develop bilingual capacities in all areas, we will have done our nation a tremendous

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Are We Meeting the Needs of Foreign Students?

By Maria Luz Urban
Great Neck Public Schools

Often because of the anxieties and pressures of daily life, we lose sight of the fact that children, too, are human beings subject to emotional problems created at home or in school. The teachers function is therefore not only to develop a child into a knowledgeable and responsible individual; but also, to meet his basic emotional needs, if we are to make him a happy, successful and well adjusted person. This requires that teachers develop the sensitivity and skill to detect and alleviate such problems.

Through work with foreign students, I have noticed that learning English as a second language is not their only problem. “Here is a definite need for acculturation to our American way of life. Although we know that children tend to adapt to change more rapidly than adults; we also know that, where possible, extensive change should be effected gradually, keeping in mind the personality of the child, his social environment, and his cultural heritage— if we are to keep intact his sense of security and well being.

Teaching a newly arrived foreign student presents a number of special problems not present in teaching the average student.

Most foreign students come from a traditional school where rigid structure, discipline, and obedience are basic stressed values. For these students, entry into a progressive system can be an unsettling and confusing experience which requires substantial change in their educational, social, and moral values. Without the help of a trained, perceptive, and understanding teacher, an immature child freed from traditional values may take the path towards radical behavior. But given the needed help, most will quickly come to realize that though the progressive school does not place as great an emphasis on discipline, obedience and formality, it is not lacking in values. Its just that the values may not be so obvious.

During their period of transition, each child must be shown that values relate to environment, culture and religious beliefs, and that their own values need not be thrown away to embrace the new. Instead, they should be encouraged to develop their personal values by selecting the best of old and new. In this way we may be able to lessen the impact of value change on their sense of security. We must guard against the situations where children blinded by their desire to “belong” (to some group) adapt a false set of values which eventually lead to emotional disturbances.

As teachers, we also have the responsibility to help parents to understand the problems which their children are experiencing, and of the important need for parental love, guidance, and support which they must provide during this adjustment period. In many cases this will involve the education of the child’s parents to the fact that adaptation to a new culture does not mean a complete value change. Parents would naturally resist a complete change which is foreign to their personal philosophy.

It is unfortunate that many parents take a passive role in the education of their children; some because they do not wish to interfere in school philosophy; others because they fear their children will be penalized if they criticize or question current school practice. In some cases, the parents themselves are so overwhelmed and preoccupied with their own problems that they neglect the needs of their children. It is evident that these parents do not fully appreciate the important contribution that they could be making to the education of their young.

In conclusion, it is my belief that teachers must become more concerned and involved in the fulfillment of their students emotional needs, and that parents should have available to them a complementary course in adult education designed to show them how they may best contribute to the educational process. For only when both family and school are united in purpose can we design the far reaching programs that will effectively deal with the emotional side of child development.
ESL and ESD: Some Similarities and Differences

by Carletta Hartsough
Alemany Community College Center,
San Francisco

Dr. Kenneth Johnson's presentation at the CATESOL Conference on the similarities and differences in teaching Standard American English (SAE) to foreigners and to speakers of Black dialect was both a delightful and informative insight into Black English and Black culture. Pointing out that language is a reflection of culture, Dr. Johnson stressed the importance of clear definitions of Black People and Black dialect.

A Black person, an American Negro, is "someone who says he's one." He asserted that Black persons can only be defined "in terms of cultural characteristics, a shared experience by 20,000,000 people." One of these experiences is language. Since sub-cultures, such as the Black culture, overlap with the dominant culture, it is these areas of difference which create the identity of the members of that sub-culture. One of these differences, again, is language.

If the goal of integration is assimilation, as it seems to be, achievement of that goal means the loss of sub-cultural differences and therefore the loss of identity. It means the loss of a viable linguistic system which differs from SAE in its grammar, its phonology, its intonation patterns, and somewhat in its lexicon. In defining dialect, Dr. Johnson rejects the term social dialect because it implies that only lower classes of Black people communicate in or are familiar with this dialect.

Black dialect is, he says, a cultural dialect, a variety of English spoken by all classes of Black people. According to Johnson, the class differences are that the lower class Black speaks only the dialect while the middle class Black speaks SAE also.

Given, the importance of Black dialect in all segments of the Black culture, it becomes apparent that SAE must be taught to speakers of Black dialect as an alternate, rather than a replacement dialect as it has been, and is being, taught in our schools today.

Dr. Johnson presented and countered some false assumptions about Black dialect and its speakers:

1. Blacks are non-verbal.

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2. Blacks have poor auditory discrimination skills.
3. Black dialect is incapable of expressing abstract concepts.
4. Black dialect speakers don’t even understand one another.
5. Blacks have “lazy lips and lazy tongues”—they are physiologically incapable of speaking “correct” English.

He also gave samples of some of the ways in which Black dialect differs from SAE:

**Intonation:** How intonation patterns in greeting convey greatly differing emotions.

**Grammar:** The omission of the copula which communicates “how.” The insertion of “be” which communicates habitual activity. The three past tenses of Black dialect.

**Phonological:** One of the rules for consonant reduction: if a word ends in two voiceless consonants, the last of which is a stop, the last consonant is eliminated. (With the above rule, one can then understand the systematic plural formation for words like desk—desks, tests—tests/ and the oral non-existence of the past tense marker, in many words.

In practice, speakers of Black dialect and speakers of foreign languages do the same thing. They impose the phonology of their own linguistic systems on that of SAE. The most important similarity in approach to these two groups is the need to recognize the differing discrimination skills, to focus on areas of interference and conflict points, to identify them and then to work on them. Other similarities are that language is identity and any new linguistic system must be an alternate and not a replacement. A third similarity is that both groups need practice.

The major difference is that the Black dialect speaker already speaks and understands English. He can also understand but can’t reproduce SAE. Second language techniques can only be used in very short, intense doses. The best approach, Dr. Johnson feels, is to put the Black child in a situation where SAE is required and the child will learn it.

He insists that children who speak other languages and those who speak Black dialect do not have the same problems. They cannot be lumped into a single group and treated in the same manner. Black dialect children cannot be shoved into the same language programs with the same methods and approaches.
Teaching Written English Through Sector Analysis

by David E. E. Skene and Eleanor Frørup, Medgar Evers College, CUNY

Teachers have needed for sometime a vehicle for systematic attempts at focusing student interest on sentence structure. In some places, informal grammatical instruction has filled the vacuum in writing instruction left by the collapse of confidence in the old fashioned Reed and Kellogg sentence diagramming. Typically, teachers of English as a second language have more pragmatically than both conventional and transformational schools. Working heavily with language markers and positional relationships, Sector Analysis should prove a valuable tool in this area. Developed originally to teach English sentence structure to twelve-year-olds in Turkey, it has proved adaptable to ESL as well as to remedial language instruction in writing in open enrollment situations; a number of instructors in public schools have reported success with it, and controlled experiments are soon to be set in motion in Ontario and Baltimore County, Maryland. Nevertheless, with one or two major exceptions, Sector Analysis as a potential tool for teachers of "edited" American English remains a well-kept secret. Robert L. Allen, of Columbia Teachers College in New York City, developed Sector Analysis at about the same time that Kenneth Pike established Taunton's slot-and-filler grammar as a system of linguistic analysis. Since the two systems are similar, this may account for the relative obscurity of Sector Analysis with the publication of a work-text, Word and Sentences, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1955 (with much of which is chiefly Allen's), Sector Analysis now becomes generally available for teaching written English and its popularity should increase.

Sector Analysis is called "X-Word Grammar" by many of its users because of its emphasis on the function of twenty or so modal auxiliaries which are used in the formation of question and answer patterns in English. English, and particularly written English, is approached from a linguistic perspective as a slot-and-filler or position-and-construction language. Sector Analysis is defined, therefore, as a practical linguistically-oriented grammar which describes the "edited" American English sentence as a sequence of positions "subject, predicate, adverbial, etc." which may be filled by various construction types (noun clusters, clauses, phrases, half-sentences, etc.). One of the most useful aspects of this grammar is that it is regularity with which certain constructions fill certain positions in English opens the way for pattern analysis, drill, diagrammatic analysis, and even more comprehensive stylistic studies through a wide range of instructional programs in language development; identification of determiners, language ties between subjects and verbs, and related pattern keys can be advantages to both the ESL, FL, and remedial learner.

Dr. Allen's approach actually emphasizes a consciousness of language patterns that is best used as a form of editing. Traditional grammar tends to obscure the lines between spoken English and the standards of "edited" American English; Sector Analysis depends on patterns acquired through the spoken-language experience of learners, but its orientation fosters an awareness of the slighter differences between conventional written English. As such, "Working Sentences" and the accompanying teacher's guide stress the use of students' editing ability through the recognition of units of language anticipated by native speakers in expository writing (as opposed to drama or other forms of transcribed speech). Language "chunking," the ability to recognize constructions and word clusters as conveyors of meaning, is as important as individual word recognition. Consequently, students who have some vocabulary problems may still advance rapidly in the recognition of meaningful word units. One of the techniques in remedial instruction has been to offer sentence-composed of X-Words which he begins question patterns, to which the student responds. The movement of the X-Word serves to identify the subject of the sentence regardless of whether it is filled by a single word or a number of words which together function as a nominal construction and the predicate in the basic English trunk the first five units of the text cover this material. The linguistic tides governing subject-verb agreement in number and verb tense formation, crucial features of English, are dealt with in units three and four. Unit five introduces the basic positions of the predicate and establishes the main grammatical sections for the following eight units, which deal with various techniques for embedding information and for packing sentence trunks with additional information. In later units, the student is introduced to optional sentence sectors through a few simple sentence patterns, such as "shifters" and "inserts," which identify their most obvious characteristics. Included clauses and half-sentences (one of Dr. Allen's most useful concepts for teachers working with secondary predications and substitutions of verbal phrases) are identified as important construction types. Charts covering (1) X-Word/verb combinations for verb phrases, (2) forms of irregular verbs, (3) includes the words which signal the beginning of included clauses, or subordinate clauses in traditional

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The format of the text is particularly worthy of note. Working Sentences employs brief sub-sections composed of explanations followed by examples. A practice exercise follows each subsection and calls for diagramming or closing to complete a structural requirement. Units are concluded by controlled tasks using the new techniques to encourage the student to manipulate sentence parts and finally generate his own sentences on a given topic. Brief concluding essay assignments call for the constructions and sentence patterns of the unit. Because of this approach, punctuation is subordinated to the development of structure, and as the student masters the repertoire of sentence sectors and appropriate construction fills, he discovers that punctuation rules are reduced to a minimum. We have felt that this subordination of marking conventions to structural logic is a major advantage of Sector Analysis.

The Instructor's Manual to Working Sentences is helpful to the teacher who has not taken formal courses in Sector Analysis. Explanatory notes take up the conventions of written English and offer more detailed explanations of the theory than would have been appropriate in the worktext itself. Suggestions are given for dealing with specific student questions likely to occur as well as for the development of additional practice exercises. "A Final Word to the Instructor" makes the mind-set of the authors particularly clear: focus on the baseline and ignore peripheral areas, do not inhibit with excessive red penciling, use the book as a tool for the student to develop his own writing rather than as an end in itself.

The chief application of Sector Analysis for the purposes of this commentary are seen to lie in the area of remediation, particularly in the first semester college freshman in the CUNY open admission environment. Initial writing samples show fragments to be one of the most persistent problems in this area. Usually, the student has been told that he has a major problem, and "fr.," or "fragment" is well-known to him as an identification of his error, but the student has no concept of what fragment means and has no possible way to identify or correct it. Sector Analysis offers such means: first, after working with yes-no questions to identify subjects and predicates, the student learns how to identify the omission of verbs, X-Words, or subject sectors; second, as the student goes deeper into Sector Analysis, learning to identify construction types such as clauses or half-sentences, and learning the optional sectors (e.g., front and end positions for secondary predications, which if filled add a new fill element to the clause), he learns why a clause punctuated as a sentence is a fragment, and moreover, how to incorporate this clause into the preceding or following sentence. Even before the student covers this step, if he applies the yes-no question strategy—and tries to turn his clause into a yes-no question—then can identify the fragment because the question sentence cannot be formed.

Editing is very important in this process; simply learning sectors and construction types may not be enough. Students often need coaxing to actually test the interchange. One successful exercise uses a student writing sample which is reasonably connected discourse with all the errors, except fragments, corrected. Students are told how many fragments appear and are asked to find them one by one, rewriting the passages and comparing the two writing samples as they proceed. Numbering the sentences in the exercise prevents the student from being overwhelmed and helps him to limit his focus; word groups punctuated as sentences can be treated one at a time. The rewriting practice is beneficial by itself, and the comparison of the two samples clearly delineates sectors and constructions, completing the lesson. The structured approach to editing seems to the student for longer as.

Another important application of Sector Analysis is in the development of sentence variety. One of our colleagues at Hunter College, teaching bilinguals and native speakers, uses color-coded algebraics, identifying a different construction type with each color, with one color for single words, varying colors are used to build sentences. Students learn to construct sentences by visual dictation. Sophistication and clarity both increase. Even in cases of the Black English language population, analysis of constructions indicates that new areas of the sentence are used and there is an increase of correct constructions which is striking and these changes begin taking place even before the casual reader and sometimes casual grader is aware of writing improvement. Still, the teacher is cautioned that practice and time are essential; they may well be laps in affective growth and we do not yet know to what extent regression occurs with this approach.

The behavioral effects of a program based on Sector Analysis are worthy of special note. Self-confidence is radically expanded through experience with the system of X-Word Grammar. In one graduate program for minorities, instructors who were educational psychologists made special note of the growth in volume of writing, increased personal self-confidence, and of some students' use of sentence diagrams in their actual log-writing. The same educational psychologists noted a second significant feature of X-Word Grammar; it allows teacher and student to focus writing instruction on the needs of the reader—his expectations for conventional sentence patterns and the inability of many readers to resolve departures from those types. Refocusing instruction toward reader needs makes the learning environment less threatening to the student.

Sector Analysis, because it offers a systematic language structure perhaps, seems to be a much freer body of material in the classroom. Dr. Allen spends time with his own students on "Boing", which uses the word "boing" in place of content words—nouns, verbs, and adjectives, with "boingly" in place of -ly adverbs. A sample sentence might be "Boing can boing the bying." With such sentences, students can be introduced rapidly to the common markers in English and be convinced of their importance; and even without technical knowledge, most readers will admit that they can identify the subject sector of such a sentence, the object (a noun cluster), and the predicate. It is even possible to demand of students: "Don't think", thereby stressing the positions and patterns which they already recognize unconsciously if native speakers of the language. Soon students can neither be defeated by Boing, other nonsense sentences, or English sentences in which the vocabulary is foreign to their experience; reading and writing skills are both developed in this case. There is a distinct advantage to the teacher in separating closed lists of structure words, which can be memorized, from the unwieldy list of content words which frequently confuse the grammar lesson.

The use of Sector Analysis in the teaching of reading is of major importance and teaching across the entire spectrum of the English curriculum may respond positively to the potential which Sector Analysis holds.
A Counseling-Learning Model for Second Language Learning

by Jenny Rardin, Counseling-Learning Institute

The Counseling-Learning model of education, developed by Dr. Charles A. Curran of Loyola University, Chicago and his associates, has been receiving much attention recently from educators and particularly from the language teaching profession. Much of this interest is due to Earl W. Stievick, who reviewed Curran's book in 1975 and Carol and Nobuo Akiyama, who generated interest in the Peace Corps which resulted in several Community Language Learning Teacher Training Programs.

"Community Language Learning" is the name given to the application of this model to language learning since it results in a special kind of learning community.

Original Research

The original research which began in the late fifties, was designed to study the psychological dynamics involved in adult learning, specifically, foreign language learning, rather than to develop a methodology of language teaching. Foreign languages were chosen as the learning task. As a result, students in the research classes assume using four languages simultaneously, one at a time - achieved varying levels of confidence and "communicative competence" in one or more foreign languages.

One of the questions that was raised at the outset of the research was whether awarenesses from counseling and psychotherapy could facilitate the learning process by becoming an integral part of that process. Since many of the blockings that language learners expressed were quite similar to those expressed by persons coming for psychotherapy or psychological counseling, it was theorized that if language experts were also trained in counseling sensitivities and skills, this double expertise would bring about significant changes in the quality of the learning relationship between teacher and learners and among learners themselves.

Curran's book, "Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education" (1972) presented the findings from over twelve years of research in this model of "creative affiliation between teacher and learners." The findings and model itself are as Earl Stievick puts it, "infinitely rich in subtleties" and a process of study and experience with it in learning situations, re-study and re-experience can yield an increasing grasp of its complexities.

The five following statements while not exhaustive are basic to an understanding of the Counseling-Learning model: 1) All final human learning is value learning; 2) Resistance is inherent in any adult learning situation; 3) Human learning is whole-person learning; 4) Human learning is personal; 5) Human learning moves through a five-stage process of internalization.

Value Learning

A basic concept underlying the Counseling-Learning model is that all whole-person, human learning is, in fact, value learning. This concept is treated by Curran in his book, "Counseling and Psychotherapy: The Pursuit of Values" (1968). By "values," Curran means conscious or unconscious self-investments - that is, such self-investments are either determined by oneself or pre-determined by the cultural, family, religious neighborhood, etc., values one is born into.

In other words, if we as teachers see ourselves as the cause of a learning conflict within the student, simply because we represent a certain body of knowledge which the student wishes to learn, then we will be more understanding about the kind of struggle that we have created in the student. That this struggle is not just intellectual is especially evident in the area of foreign language learning whenever "communicative competence" is stressed. The whole-person of the learner is especially involved if he or she aims at a speaking ability rather than simply grammar, vocabulary and reading.

Many students in a language class at first "get butterflies" just thinking about having to pronounce the foreign language in front of the class, let alone trying to carry on a conversation. This would be one level of struggle. But suppose, for example, the Spanish speaking student is consciously or unconsciously aware that by learning English he/she is in a complicated way alienating himself/herself from the parents who speak no English, it is obvious that we are at another level of struggle.

What the Counseling-Learning model offers therefore, is a means of understanding these personal learning conflicts in such a way that learners as well as teachers may deal constructively with negative as well as positive feelings. As a result, both can make genuine investments in the learning relationship and so experience less discouragement with one another and the material to be internalized or learned. Personal learning conflicts and confrontation, then, in this sense, can always have a positive tone because the student's anger, anxiety and similar psychological disturbances understood and responded to by the teacher's counseling sensitivity are indicators of deep personal investment. Even indifference, seen this way, proves often to be a form of defense against anxiety and fear of failure rather than resistance to learning.

D. D. Trainell talks about teaching as "not just an intellectual encounter with the student but as a psychological encounter."

Hoghin, found that in the human learning situation, students are "appraisers." Curran originally treated this under the concept of "values" for meaning and as "Man: The 'Why' Animal." Just as a client seeks to understand himself and his relationship with others in the counseling process so a student is consciously or unconsciously seeking a satisfactory "why" for his/her studies. This is fundamental to and prior to any adequate self-investment. Such evaluation is needed to arrive at values and decision making. But misunderstood and misinterpreted it can throw the learning exchange between knower and learner into a "game we play" routine of questions and answers which avoid personal engagement in the real learning experience.

The course content in most universities and colleges, is usually described in abstract and impersonal terms. The student, however, at a more personal level of inward direction, is most likely trying to evaluate the "why" in some relation to his own life goals. Curran's contrast of traditional British and European upper-class education for the few, which presumes an established value system, with an American democratic education for all, resulting in a confusion or decrease of accepted values, is helpful here. It helps illuminate why so much of the value confusion and struggle may not be going on in our classrooms known or unknown to us as teachers.

So under the surface of the learning that is apparent to us in our classrooms, may be not only the "questioning" of "Why am I learning this?" but also "Who am I?" and "How does what I am learning, relate to who I am and where I am going in life?" This makes the teaching/learning relationship immeasurably more complex and challenging but, at the same time, more humanly satisfying. It also suggests...
COUNSELING-LEARNING

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the necessity of additional teacher awarenesses and skills beyond any classroom techniques.

Adult Resistance

Another basic concept of the Counseling-Learning model is that in most adolescent or adult learning there is an inherent resistance to the new knowledge being presented. This results from the developmental process that produces self-awareness or self-consciousness after twelve or so. The learner’s need for personal self-assertion often begins to show itself against the knower—seemingly impeding the acceptance of and submission to, the learning process. This is an additional cause of “clash” in any learning situation. This resistance is generally not conscious or at least not always made evident to the teacher—particularly as we move into adult learning but rather is often disguised in the form of “questions” or similar tactics.

Applied to the language learning experience, we have, for example, often seen groups of students who came together for the purpose of speaking a second language, suddenly find themselves asking questions about the language, the culture, the country in their native tongue—rather than personally engaging in the struggle to communicate in the second language. From the point of view of their ego-assertion need, such submission to the handicapped state of a second language is too humiliating.

But, if the learner is to make the second language his own and so make it operational he be able to speak French, say—there must be an acceptance of an initial state of ignorance and, in this sense, “humiliation.” This is difficult for adults to do. This does not mean total helplessness but rather a kind of dependency on another with which adolescents and adults are generally not comfortable. This is why, in the Counseling-Learning modality, native experts were trained in counseling sensibilities. This then provided the necessary security at the beginning of the learning process which enabled adolescents or adult learners to progress to a childlike but childless trust in the language-counselor-expert. As a result, they could, with less anxiety and resistance, accept and submit to strange language sounds and structures and to the process of learning. This produced too, a growing closeness to and deep sense of supportive community from the other learners the opposite of our usual classroom competitive individualism.

Whole-Person Learning

Once this trust has been established in the Community Language Learning setting, it becomes clear how human learning is whole-person learning. As adults, we are extremely skilled at masking our feelings. But once we are free to “feel about” the language learning experience and are understood in our feelings, we are free to “know-feel” the language. It is in proportion as teachers are skilled in an ability both to understand these feelings and to “re-cognize” them that is, adequately cognize them in their responses—that learners in the Counseling-Learning modality are able to assimilate or internalize the second language in an authentic total-person way. In other words, they can “invest” in it and so make it a personal value goal. Such investment is basic to the growth of a new “language-self.”

Current literature is concerned with this when it talks about having “real” communication in the classroom. Real learning, in Counseling-Learning terms, means learning that is brought about by an “interaction between the knower and the learner in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness.” In the first stages of the learning process, for example, this can mean that the material to be internalized is generated by the learners in a “childlike” but real conversation, limited only in the extent of words used. Such conversation, however, demands the aid and support of the language expert. Both learner and knower are therefore deeply engaged: the learner willingly accepts his need for help; the knower gives this help in such a way that it can be easily utilized. Such a mutual process gradually frees the learner from his dependency on the knower. The teacher, in this sense, willingly strives for and accepts the final goal of being no longer needed by the learner.

It is this engagement that makes possible a “whole-person” entry into the language.

Learning Is Persons

We come then to the notion of learning as an intensely personal experience. This resulted in Curran’s expression, “learning is persons.” As students in such research groups came together, for example, their central purpose was to share and communicate as persons, much as they would in an ordinary conversation. The difference, however, was that they did so in a foreign language, through their “other self,” which at first was the language-counselor-expert. Each student’s natural urge for independence soon produced a slow emergence of a new inner language self as words and phrases were picked up and so internalized. This arrangement also created a strong sense of support, responsibility, and belonging from all members of the group. Such a secure and deeply personal engagement and commitment together, came to be called “community language learning.”

Five Stage Process

Learning in this modality moves through a five-stage process from dependency to a basic independence. This five-stage process can be seen from varying points of view such as the gradual growth from dependency on the expert to the learner’s independence of linguistic competence; the personal learning group process as it moves toward a deep sense of community; the changing functional relationships between knower and learner; and other aspects of the five stages.

To go into detail about each is beyond the scope of this article. But the footnotes lead to the original sources where the reader can find extended explanations and illustrations of these stages.

A Multi-Faceted Model

From what has been said of Counseling-Learning, it becomes clear that this is a model rich in subtopics. It has, therefore, a wide variety of applications. These applications involve such areas as the group process in foreign language learning; evaluative and emotional factors in foreign language learning; the process of education in general and its effects at the elementary; high school and university levels; the acquisition of two foreign languages simultaneously and finally, intensive adult learning. Some common conclusions emerge. Through Counseling-Learning, learners begin to understand themselves better as persons while, at the same time, they increasingly make a part of themselves an area of knowledge outside themselves. Such results, as we see, combine aims shared by both counseling therapy and education.

We are treating here, therefore, a multi-faceted model rather than a simple technique. From the underlying concepts of this model various techniques can be developed, depending upon the needs of different learning situations.

Curran has said:

“In order to unify and bring together the whole person in the learning process, we have to do more than merely label it whole-person learning. We must basically restructure our approach.”

REFERENCES

ENGLISH THE FAMILY WAY

by Thomas Raftery

The Family Language Program of John Jay High School in Park Slope is the only one of its kind in the city. Not only does it bring the classroom to students in their own homes, it includes their entire families.

For one hour a week, 22 teachers go into the homes of 60 selected students, who speak virtually no English. There, usually in the warmth and security of the family kitchen, the students learn to cope with a strange language, to better enable them to go on to graduation.

Enrolled in the program are 40 Spanish-speaking students who come from either Puerto Rico, Ecuador, El Salvador or the Dominican Republic; 13 French-speaking students from Haiti; four Italian students; one Chinese student from Hong Kong; one Ibo-speaking student from Nigeria and one Portuguese speaking student from Brazil.

To qualify for the program, a student must be registered at the high school; must have migrated here within the last year; be from a non-English-speaking background; be from a poverty income family and have a minimum of five persons in the family participating in the classes.

Mrs. Maureen Sloan, teacher-in-charge, said that about 400 students at the 2,500-student high school speak virtually no English. The school draws from areas affected since 1965 by increased immigration.

"Things would be a lot easier if the students all spoke one foreign language, the way they do in some Chinese or Puerto Rican areas," said Mrs. Sloan. "Because there are so many different languages and backgrounds, we decided to try the individual approach."

Because there is such a demand for the program at the school, students considered for it must not be transient. The program, which enrolls a student for a year, also takes into consideration attendance records and whether the student is a disciplinary problem.

"We are trying to cushion students from cultural shock," said Mrs. Sloan. "We figure that if we can get the family to speak English, we can get the student to speak it."

A typical student enrolled in the program is Nilsa Lugo, 15. A high school freshman, she spent most of her life in Villa-íba, Puerto Rico, before coming to the city last year.

Living in a three-room apartment with her mother, grandmother, cousin and two younger sisters, Nilsa said that she likes the program because she is with her family while she is learning.

Her teacher, Robert Villanella, said that Nilsa attends bilingual classes at John Jay. However, after two years of bilingual classes, she will be expected to move into regular English-speaking classes. Thus, the program helps her prepare for the transition.

The weekly lessons, emphasize repetition of dialogue used in practical, everyday situations. "This way, it is hoped that family members will be able immediately to use the English they learn and thus be encouraged to speak the language."

"You really begin to see the people you teach as a family unit," Villanella said. "Before long you begin to take a real interest in the family members."

Mrs. Sloan credits the bond between teachers and families as helping to make the program a success. She noted, "The program is so much more than teaching. Everyone comes away from it with a mutual respect for the others."
THE SILENT WAY

(In the last issue of the Newsletter, Jenny Brander talked about the CI approach to language-learning teaching developed by Dr. Charles Curran. We also mentioned other approaches to language teaching such as that of Lazarov and the "Silent Way" of Dr. Cuth Gattegno. In this issue, there was an in-depth article on Robert Alls's "Sector Analysis" especially as it was used in the teaching of writing. In this issue, both Earl Stevick and LINC are quoted as having been greatly influenced by the Silent Way and as it seems appropriate that should be written about it. In 1973, I wrote a short article for the NY TESOL Newsletter (Idiom) to which Dr. Gattegno responded. This article takes note of that response and other more recent remarks about the Silent Way. The Editor.)

Earl Stevick says it has influenced him, Charles Blatchford says his teaching has been changed by it, the LINC people have put much of it into practice, and at the recent TESOL Convention in New York City, teachers thronged to the workshops of Dr. Gattegno as he demonstrated and talked about his Silent Way of teaching.

The Silent Way is not a new idea. The philosophy of the Silent Way, as proposed by Dr. Gattegno, has been around for 22 years, according to Shelley Kuo, the director of the Gattegno Language Schools. Originally, it was used as a math teaching device, but in the past few years it has been "discovered" by language teachers, and is now widely touted as a method or approach for the teaching of reading and language. Elements of the Silent Way have always been present in our traditional approaches. For example, teachers and student teachers have been admonished for years to reduce their own speaking time and give more opportunity for the student to speak.

To quote the Silent Way materials, "as a general technique, the Silent Way is a way of teaching that liberates students systematically." It is an attempt to approach language learning by having the learner acquire as a primary step in language learning, a "feeling" for language. It aims at putting the learner into a situation where he is challenged to use his powers of thinking and his ability to analyze and experiment; it demands that students test hypotheses about the languages he is learning, taking advantage of his/her knowledge and experience with language. Dr. Gattegno says, "When I teach a language, that language remains a secondary preoccupation of mine although it is the prime concern of the students. My function as a teacher is to do all I can to make students find for themselves the powers required to be successful in the new language as they are in their native language. Since one is free to use the mastered language for expression of emotions, feelings, ideas, perceptions and so on, teachers have to aim at a similar freedom in the new language. Clearly there is too much to learn for any student and teachers have to know what comes first and when to move to the next assignment. In my perception of the task, from the start and as soon as sufficient mastery is attained in the utterance of say twenty or so words, the student must prove capable of being on top of the four demands of spoken speech: correct sounds and correct stress in each word, a feel for which words run together in each statement or phrasing, and how intonation generates the melody of the language as natives express it." The syllabus or lessons of a Silent Way language course, are basically linguistically determined and sequenced. The difference is that the teacher on the student to perform is not continuously stimulated by oral models given by the teacher. Instead the stimulus is "silent". The teacher manipulates a set of colored rods, rectangular wooden blocks of various lengths and colors (rather like children's building blocks), putting them into different arrangements of color and length which stimulate the learners to make on their own, statements about them: their size, color, shape, and their relationships to each other, in an ever more complex set of patterns and sentences. The only oral model has been given, once, by the teacher as she first arranges the rods. Some meaning comes from the learners perceptions of the situations as they are demonstrated by the teacher. This kind of stimulus avoids the need for translation into the learners language. The basic vocabulary has been provided and the students, collectively, may try to ask or describe to the teacher what has been "arranged" with the rods. Collectively, because often the whole class participates in putting together the correct sentence while the teacher, not speaking, indicates approval or disapproval of form, vocabulary, pronunciation, and melody. Without the oral model supplied for him again and again, the student is forced to pay attention to any initial utterances by the teacher and those of his fellow learners, to understand the situation or stimulus as presented by the arrangement of the rods, and to respond in a linguistically correct way. The teacher may occasionally point to a "sound chart" (a color-coded chart of letters/symbols or words which reflect the basic vowels and consonants in the language and the basic vocabulary used in the first lessons), to reiterate or reinforce the correct pronunciation. Since one color represents one sound on the charts, pointing from one letter or combination of letters to another can evoke a string of sounds or words for the learner to work on. The systematic use of colors on the word charts permits the language to be handled phonetically without any modification of the actual orthography. The charts are used in the very first lessons. Miss Kuo states that "it starts by making the students conscious of the amount of linguistic equipment they already have so that they can concentrate on what they do not already know. Many languages require only a few sounds that the students are not familiar with, so the first few lessons focus on these. Having given the students the experience of sounding like native speakers in this very restricted area, the way has been cleared to acquire the elements of a functional vocabulary and, through that, an extended vocabulary."

After the student has attained fluency with the restricted vocabulary used in the first lessons he is then stimulated to oral production by means of the teacher's pointing to words and symbols on the charts and then by writing on paper. Reading also accompanies the lesson with emphasis on the melody of the language—the stress and intonation patterns. This emphasis, as with the initial lessons on pronunciation is to promote, first, the "feeling" for the language—to build a confidence in being able to speak it "naturally." And secondly, to allay the fear of "saying it wrong" which is often the reason why students, though successful in class, often stumble and remain silent outside of class.

The techniques used in the Silent Way are basically oral-aural mechanical substitution and stimulus-response drills though the stimulus is visual rather than oral. The sequencing of materials (patterns) is in general linguistically based much as most ESL texts are today.

So what's new other than the "special" materials—charts and rods—and the fact that the teacher is silent?
and the student is forced, allowed, finally, to have the entire lesson time at his command, to speak?

As Dr. Gattegno puts it, the thing which he is striving to do is to build

the student is towed, allowed, finally, to have the enthe ismen time

--his command to *ask?

accrediting his striving to do is to build

a "confidence" that what he is saying

is tight. *The inner criterion of right-

ness is the rock bottom on which

the, future acquisition will stand, in-

creasing the sense of freedom that

motivates learners and creates the

joy which accompanies good perfor-

mance."

Blatchford states that his 'romance'

with the Silent Way results from his

recognition of the humaneness of the

approach. He states that it has af-

fected his approach to teacher, train-

ning, remitting in his desire to provide,

encouragemeent, self-relamce, and support--the very things potential teachers will

need in the classroom they will be

guiding."

After participating in a Silent Way

experience, it was apparent that cer-

tain basic facts stood out as important

for the language teacher. First, the

student is immediately and almost
totally responsible for the language

learning situation. That is, his mis-
takes provide the teacher with direc-
tion for the succeeding lessons, his

successes determine how quickly he

moves on to the next step, and the

speaking is entirely his responsibility. Second, the language of the classroom

is entirely, from the first instant, the

target language. The student's lan-
guage(s) are never used. His in-
telligence, his desire to learn, his

compulsion to "try" the new words,

sentences, patterns, language, is drawn

upon instead. Third, after an initial

anxiety, supported by long years of

varying successes and failures in

classrooms and especially foreign

language classrooms, Silent Way stu-
dents relax in the interaction be-
tween themselves as they learn to stim-
ulate, encourage, and reinforce each

other—respond to each other in a

real, "thinking", meaningful way, rather

than merely responding to the

teacher. The "feel" for the language

becomes part of the learning and with

the responsibility for speaking comes

not only the challenge to do so but

the feeling that one can.


Experience—One Model for Training

Teachers and Students" (Paper given

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TEACHING GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES IN SITUATIONAL CONTEXTS

Suzanne Griffin
EL Center, U of S F

Below is a list used as a reference point from which to write lesson plans for usage and grammar classes. Many of the ideas lend themselves well to skits and role-playing. It was first presented at a paper session at TESOL 1975, then revised and presented at the CATESOL Convention in 1975. It is presented here in its revised form.

GRAMMAR POINT

SITUATION

Imperative verb forms
Make a cake using a boxed cake mix.

Present continuous tense
Direct another person to some part of the city using a map.

Locative prepositions
Discuss plans for a trip, vacation, the weekend, etc.

Impressive verb forms
Discuss a past vacation, weekend, etc.

Present tense
Role play a shopping trip to buy gifts.

Non-referential it clauses
Role play shopping in a supermarket.

Future tense
Answer information questions: name, address, etc.

Simple past tense
Tell someone where to find things in your kitchen.

(What did you do - - -?)
Tell other students about your family.

any, some, one(s) indirect obj.
Fill out a medical history form (adapted).

another, the other
Role play a medical interview—particularly on a visit to a new doctor.

be (present tense)
Make a daily weather report.

possessive adjectives
Report daily schedules (of people in the class, buses in the city, airlines, trains, etc.)

be - locative prepositions
Relate clothes to weather in a role playing situation (i.e., mother and child on a rainy day).

have/has - possessive adjectives
Role play a shopping trip to buy clothes.

Present perfect tense
Mail a package at the post office—insure it.

Present perfect progressive
Invite someone to a party—make a phone call or write an invitation.

Non-referential it
Explain rules and regulations to someone—i.e., school rules, doctor’s instructions to a sick patient.

Habitual present
Describe a sports event in progress.

at, between, from - to
Point out an airplane about to land.

Non-referential it clauses
Give a new customer the information he needs to establish his account with Gas Co. or Bell Telephone.

subordinated by because
Report a historical event and discuss the conditions under which a different outcome might have resulted.

like + Noun/like to + Verb
React to the burglary of your apartment—in the presence of another person upon initial discovery (Active Voice)

want + Noun/want to + Verb
—in making a police report (Passive Voice)

too + adjective/adjective + enough
1. Call someone who has placed a classified ad to advertise a job or something for sale (i.e., a car or furniture).

About to - Verb (- Noun)
2. Report on the progress of your shopping trip to a companion.

(can, must, should, ought to
used to
Interview someone about—
· Post employment
b. Cuisine and dining customs in their country.
IDIOS AND AUXILIARIES

We are grateful to Phyllis Van Horn of the University of Idaho in Moscow and Virginia Heringer of the University of Southern California in Los Angeles for sharing with us some classroom practices that they have found successful. Write and let us know how well they work for you, and what adaptations you made to make them fit your class.

Phyllis was looking for a way around the problem of providing a situation that would allow students free practice of idioms they had been learning and at the same time allow the teacher some possibility of evaluating usage and comprehension. Sources of idioms are:

Idiom Drills, George McCallum (Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970)

Idioms in Action, George Reeves (Newbury House, 1974)

The Key to English: Two-Word Verbs (Collier-Macmillan, 1984)


First, a technique to see if students have an understanding of how the idiom should be used. Make a series of sentences, each of which contains one idiom used correctly or incorrectly. Read it aloud and have the students indicate whether the idiom is correct or not by marking an “X” for incorrect or a “C” for correct. Test items might include:

1. Can you go to the store with me just as soon?

2. It’s windy, so I have to brush up on my hair.

3. Jean’s staying with her sister for the time being.

Phyllis recommends that the test items be grammatically correct with only the meaning of the idiom in question. Each sentence is graded on a scale of one point per item.

Her second suggestion assesses whether or not the students can reproduce the idiom correctly when assisted with both meaning and a key word. The teacher first reads a sentence containing the definition of an idiom, then isolates the definition and reads a key word from the idiom. The key word is usually the one which receives the primary stress in normal spoken usage. The student writes only the complete idiom, changing number, person or tense to agree with the content of the sentence. All of the sentences are related contextually. Ex:

1. I decided to use the good weather for my benefit and go for a walk. Use for my benefit advantage. (The students would then write, “take advantage of.”)

2. My roommate disapproved of my idea. Disproved of view. (The students would write, “took a dim view of.”)

These items may be graded on a three-point scale: one point for the accuracy of the idiom, one for agreement of tense, number and person, and one for the correct inclusion of articles and particles.

Her third technique assesses the oral production of the idioms being studied. She recommends taping a conversation in which the student is given cards with six unrelated idioms written in the root form. The student’s card might read:

sooner or later go too far have someone over make sense as for find out

The teacher presents questions in conversational style and the student responds, including one of the idioms in his answer. The teacher might say, “Jack’s been in school for two years with no vacation. Now he wants to take a course during the winter break. What about that?”

Replies could be, “Sooner or later he’ll have a vacation,” or “He’s going too far!” or “I’ll have him over during the break,” or “That makes sense. He’ll be able to graduate sooner.”

The teacher has six questions or statements similar to the example, and the student is free to use any one of the six idioms on his card in his answer. Evaluation of the student’s tape is made in a private auditing session using three scales of five points each: usage of the idiom, pronunciation of the idiom, and the appropriateness of the response to the question. She suggests the desirability of having two people audit this part, rate it independently, and average the scores.

This last technique of giving partial information on cards reminds me of the Hines strategy in role playing—reported in the IDIOM of NYS ESOL BEA, Vol. 5, No. 2, page 3, “Lessons that Work,” and reprinted in the TESOL NEWSLETTER, Vol. IX, No. 3, p. 9.—It would be interesting to incorporate previously studied idioms into “Lines to Choose From” role play cards and see whether students select them or not.

Virginia comments that Example B usually brings up some discussion of sex-typing in jobs. I would think that lots of discussion could be generated about similarities and differences in
job training and education requirements, conditions, and performance.

She also mentions that students are sure to give answers using adverbs instead of modals and this provides a good opportunity to discuss the similarity in meaning.

If students are really "into" discussing the pros and cons of one guess over another, I believe Virginia's follow-up suggestion should be a winner. She mentions that after clue #2, the conditional and negatives are appropriate. A possible response in Example A: Mr. Smith couldn't be an accountant. If he were, he might use pencils and big sheets of paper, but he wouldn't need straight edges. And in B: Mary couldn't be a butcher. If she were, she might wear a white coat, but she wouldn't need to attend school for many years learning how to do her job.

Once you've built up a file of clues and the students are well-versed in vocabulary and details of many occupations, this should be an excellent small group activity. Virginia suggests that advanced students can probably make up puzzles themselves to give to each other.

Teachers of beginning classes are probably wondering how they'll get their students to the point where they could participate in these suggestions. I've found that an important first step into modes is a contrast with to be. Put an item in a bag and close the bag (before class) or select an object whose use or identification isn't immediately discoverable. Ask: What is it? Require a response like: I don't know, but it could be/might be a _____...

Have one student hide something. He's the only one who knows where it is. 1.) Other students suggest to each other (not to the knower) that the object might be/could be under the ______, in the ______, or on the ______.

2.) As they discuss among themselves where it might be or could be, check from time to time with the person who knows. When addressing the knower, switch to the question form and be, i.e., Is it under the ______, in the ______, or on the ______?

3.) After a few alternatives have been eliminated and they're beginning to predict with more certainty, switch to: It must be the ______.

Thanks again to Phyllis Van Horne and Virginia Heringer for sharing their ideas that work.
From Repetition to Reality: Some Measurable Steps

By Darlene Larson
New York University

I want to share with you some of the notions I've been kicking around about how we can chart a more systematic course for our students, for moving them from a sketchy knowledge of English to "communicative competence," the word of the day.

I believe that in order to plan courses, write materials, teach and test and assess progress—in order to tell students about what they are going to learn and then discuss with them how they think they are doing—in order to move them one step at a time to free use of the language, we have to rethink, redo, re-write our entire repertoire of classroom procedures. I don't pretend to have come close to such a goal, to have a thorough understanding of what is to be discarded, nor to have identified with certainty all of the elements that should be added. There is much to be discarded—much to be replaced—and much to be devised afresh.

As ESL teachers, we have been listening for years to the anthropologists, the sociologists, the psychologists, the multiculturalists, the cross-culturalists, the self-awareness groups, the group interaction groups, the grammarians, the speech correctionists, the drama coaches and the lady next door. I think TESOL, on the whole, shares its podium with a wider range of specialists than any other group. Not only do we share the podium, but we listen!

We are aware of the fact and we agree that language learning is far more than pronouncing a string of phonemes. We believe that it is risk-taking behavior.

As teachers, we do not address a classroom filled with mechanisms capable of sound production. We are quite conscious of the fact that all of the points and manners of articulation are housed in a human being who brings to class his or her ego, age, upbringing, pride, desires, accomplishments, failures, fears, sex-appeal, quirks, ties, nerves, worry beads and dictionaries—as well as Pavlov's dog's hunger and thirst.

Need for Efficient Instruction

But the pressure is on us. Second language learning is no longer a past-time of the wealthy that can be carried

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out over decades, nurtured with private specialists and trips to far-away lands where the culture can be assimilated as well as the sounds—all done in relaxation and luxury. No, not at all. Second language learning is more likely a necessity for survival. Efficiency of instruction has never been more needed than it is now.

The need is felt not only in second language programs, but our entire system of public education is awakening to the fact that it must become more accountable, more precise, more responsive to individual needs, more articulate about what it can do. Program planners long for the day when improved tools of assessment will diagnose a child's needs and improved systems of scheduling will provide immediately, modules of instruction precisely attending to those needs. Students will master these bits of knowledge at their own speed and move on to the next challenge for which they have been properly rendered.

There are numerous fears about flaws in, and arguments against this proposed wave of educational change. Whether in the end the change be miniscule or major, I for one, would like to see such change conceived, proposed, and decided by CLASSROOM TEACHERS.

Structure Versus Task

Many are accustomed to thinking of language learning as a progression of steps outlined in terms of structures. Until now, somehow, a certain structure has belonged in the advanced course while others are always found on page 1 of book 1. Yet, when the right conditions are present, every structure is easy! I have become more and more convinced that it is not the structure that determines difficulty as often as it is the task. The language task, the communication task, the classroom task. It is to what teachers have students do with these structures that we must give our attention.

Let us adhere to the old goals of helping students meet success in language learning situations, of avoiding failure situations, and of considering students errors as teacher errors. However, let us demand that an equally careful progression be applied to the kind of language task—rather than to the kind of drill and let us not become ensnared in the linguist's categorization of structural complexities.

The Difficulties

My efforts to outline a progression of difficulty of language tasks seem forever thwarted for any number of reasons. A few of them follow:

A. The difficulty of language tasks doesn't seem to advance in a linear progression.

After utterance 1 in hour 1, there can never again be a single focus. After five years ago, I scrapped the whole idea of "review." It is never a goal of a teaching segment, and I have tried to remove it from my pedagogical vocabulary. Instead, once I have presented an item, I attempt to incorporate that item continually, or at least regularly, into all future lessons.

By merely attending to meaning, structure, and pronunciation, there is at least a triple focus for any lesson. Usually a teacher has a number of other goals in mind in addition to these three and they are all operating at the same time if the language task has any transferability to reality. In fact, the more precisely when a number of aspects are all alive and operating at the same time that language lessons become real.

A second notion under "never a single focus" is my doubt that we could ever list all of the aspects of a communication task, let alone program them into a progression of difficulty.

B. One cannot separate the language performance expected of students from the amount of assistance given by teachers.

Have you ever participated in a faculty meeting in which the level 5 teacher expresses how well her students are finally doing in writing paragraphs—whereupon the level 2 teacher sniffs that her students have been writing paragraphs for 6 weeks. That's right, the students are performing the same task. But on investigation, the level 2 students are doing it with a complete model from which to write and are merely changing the singular model to a plural form. The level 5 students are producing their paragraphs with only a choice of topics as assistance. That's what I mean when I say that we cannot assess the difficulty of a language task until we know what assistance the students have been given. And this leads to Item C.

C. Smaller progressions of difficulty exist within larger ones.

Requiring the performance of the same task, but giving less assistance in smaller amounts can provide a whole series of steps, each one of which contributes to the student's ability to perform a singular task.

D. Some elements of language behavior seem better learned if they are ever-present from hour one, day one and are learned in conditions with transferability to reality.
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Continued from Page 17

kind of cue is one that a native speaker would respond to with the same structure that I'm expecting the student to use. There is, however, one exception to this rule.

The Exception

The one exception is repetition. Repetition does not transfer to reality. Repetition is mechanical and non-communicative. It can be deadly dull or devilishly difficult. If repetition is also the place where, with backward build-up, the student is supported until he can repeat at normal speed, intonation and pronunciation, then it is devilishly difficult and that's when it's worth doing.

That's the starter and it is the only mechanical cue that I currently allow myself to use. Once I know that the students can produce the utterance, I force myself to elicit it from them subsequently with the same kinds of cues that would elicit it from me.

Which Fit

It's easy to decide which exercises fit this category.

The question to ask is: Would a native speaker ever, on hearing X, respond with Y? If the answer to this question is, "Yes," then this X and Y sequence is worth taking class time to practice.

This criterion eliminates forever any more of the "long answers" expected as responses to yes/no questions.

There is no time for this kind of artificial code manipulation in the classroom. Let's not force any more speakers and writers to make the case against mechanical exercises. It has long been made. We see their point and agree with it. I am all for declaring an end to such a waste of classroom time forever. It prepares the students for no real life situation that I can imagine.

Upon applying my "reality test," I rarely have any trouble deciding whether or not a certain cue is justifiable. And if it doesn't meet this standard, it goes.

Change of Tense

It is true that native speakers do have conversations that do little more than change tenses. What are the cues in these conversations that cause the change of tense to happen? Employ the same ones in the classroom in order to signal students that they need to switch forms.

I have a feeling that all of the "Do you... questions are asked together somewhere in the second unit. All of the "How long've you been doing..." questions are asked together somewhere in the 14th unit but they are never put together systematically. It is often in the mix of questions that native speakers find the cues that signal a change of tense. Our students need this kind of practice incorporated systematically into their classroom exercises.

Initiating Language

First, we must remember that this is, after all, an unreal exercise. We are deciding that they should initiate language. One initiates language when one feels the need, not when one is told to say something. Furthermore, on those rare occasions when one is requested to say something, there is often at least a momentary block of all initiating processes, and one wonders if he'll ever be able to utter a sound again, let alone say something. Thus, telling students to ask something, describe something, say something is an unreal command in itself, and, furthermore, a stifling one.

So the teacher attempts to program into the students some reason for them to ask questions. Unreal cues have to be allowed at first. Sometimes they are merely repetition. Sometimes they consist of cue cards or symbols for certain wh-questions. All of this is preparation, one hopes, for giving them the appropriate question forms to put into use when and if they should ever want to. But this is not enough. One can never be sure that students will bridge the gap on their own from unreal conditions to real conditions.

Task Oriented Exercises

Thus, one step closer to reality is putting them into some kind of situation in which they will need to seek information or describe something or explain something or discuss something. Task-oriented exercises seem to be the most useful ones of which I know. In order to complete the task, the students will have to employ language initiate language.

If you send them out of the classroom to get information, the chances are that you will have no real check on whether or not they do, in fact, employ information seeking language forms. Thus, a beneficial follow-up in the classroom would provide a way for the students to ask each other the questions that supposedly it had been necessary for them to address to someone else.

There is no way that students can jump into this kind of language initiation task on the first day. Some unnatural kinds of cues have to be used to prepare them for uttering these questions. Repetition is certainly the first step. The important consideration in the steps that follow is that we be aware of the fact that our strategies are still continued. When one uses a cue that does not transfer to reality, the important thing is to be aware of the implications of that non-transferability.

Changing Cues

And the last thing I have to say regarding cues is that in all cases, when expecting the students to switch from one structure to another, there must be an accompanying change in the cues. In fact, it is this change in the real world that should cue the change of the structure in the student. When this criterion isn't met, students are merely mouthing sounds in different patterns.

Eventually one moves away from speaking about observable objects. Adverbs of time, and time expressions and bases of questions then become the cues for changing the structure of the response.

Setting the conditions for communication to take place is part of our new job description. I have sometimes felt that as a language teacher, I am, in fact, a conditions engineer. As such, my challenge is to design conditions and manipulate them in such a way that students would recognize the matching of conditions and structures, would learn to change structures as I changed conditions and would eventually recognize analogous changes in conditions in their lives and employ these English structures even when I wasn't there.

So the question was/is: How would I manipulate classroom conditions in order for this transfer to take place? One of my primary concerns has been in asuring the best possible chances for a transfer to reality to occur. Another has been in identifying kinds of language tasks.

Basic Language Tasks

One of the seemingly most basic communication tasks with direct transferability to reality is that of questions and answers. However, questioning and answering can increase in difficulty endlessly. Thus, what are some elements that increase the difficulty of question-answer tasks?

Decrease in assistance. The difficulty of any step can be increased a second time around by removing the former props, rods, realia, pictures, whatever. Change the subject, give a new set of realia and instruct the students to apply the same questions and answers.

Questions and answers, but in more than one structure.

After a structure is presented indi-
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visually, it is best learned when incorporated systematically into subsequent lessons. At first this combining happens purposefully on the part of the teacher. At times, one even says to oneself, "I’ve asked Ben four questions in the present tense. The next time I come to him, I’ll have to try a past tense question."

Despite my urging systematic combinations of structures, I must state that I do not have in mind the services of an enthusiastic mathematical linguist running to his computer this afternoon to produce a print-out of all the possible combinations of structures. It is neither necessary nor desirable to practice all of the previously acquired structures in every communication task. There is nothing worse than lessons which were designed to "get everything in that we’ve studied." Which ones go where and in what combinations can only be determined by employing the standards of judgment and choice of structure that native speakers would use when performing that task.

Next Step

A new step of difficulty is added when conditions are set and language is employed regarding them without the conscious effort to alternate structures regularly. This might be referred to as a random integration of taught structures. Forget whether or not Ben has had four opportunities to answer in the present tense. By now he should be familiar enough with it to handle it with success anytime he needs it. If it’s been studied in class at first individually, then in combinations it should then occur as it would in a conversation with native speakers.

Textbook organization is another trap that we fall into. Authors have to divide the language into some kind of identifiable units and present these units in some organized way. But the students don’t meet the language in these units at any other time. We have to mix the units, integrate the structures to get the language back to reality. Our mistake is that we now and then allow ourselves to think that once taught, it must be incorporated into future lessons as often as it is meaningfully and naturally possible.

Tasks That We Know of but Haven’t Incorporated into a Syllabus:

1. Significant contributions are being made in the identification of gestures, use of space, paralanguage in general which accompanies linguistic features. This paralanguage is being described in kind as well as occurrence. Thus, it can be incorporated into communication tasks systematically; it needs to be, as yet, it hasn’t been.

2. A variety of materials need to be developed for each strategy. Teacher-made materials are often the most relevant. But teachers cannot write every lesson. We need new kinds of materials. We don’t need whole courses and 100 volume series. We need materials to compliment language tasks instead of materials to compliment linguistic descriptions of structures.

3. Question-answer tasks involving three speakers. Incorporating two speakers and pronoun replacement in the second utterance has led to an interesting kind of tasks.

We’ve never approached this kind of language instruction in an organized way. We’ve hoped and prayed and crossed our fingers that somehow, someday, students would “pick it up along the way,” but we didn’t know how nor when nor where.

I think we do know how. Where, is in the classroom. And when? is just as soon as we decide to “get it together.”
THE SENSES

Objective: To develop the students descriptive vocabulary through sense activities.

1. **Taste**—blindfold a student, give him an unusual food to taste and ask him to describe it.

2. **Sight**—blindfold a student and have him describe the feeling of an object he's touched.

3. **Smell**—describe the following odors: gasoline, a hospital, stables, cookies baking, a Christmas tree, a gymnasium.

4. **Touch**—put various objects in a closed bag and have them search for one (stone, sponge, clay, etc).

5. **Hearing**—blindfold students, drop objects and ask them to guess what you dropped.

Have students close their eyes and listen, then tell what kinds of sounds they hear (this is a good outside activity).

6. Hold up pictures of objects and have them tell what senses are involved.

7. Have them write a sentence using all the senses.

**Purposes:** stimulates creative thinking, encourages oral response, familiarizes students with common objects, awareness of the role our senses play.
IT WORKS!

The TESOL NEWSLETTER is happy to announce that space will be reserved in this and all future issues for the sharing of practical classroom ideas. Our first idea, column, contribution, appears below and comes from Darlene Larson, who will coordinate the column. All contributions, manuscripts, and ideas should be forwarded to her at The American Language Institute, 1 Washington Square North, New York, N.Y.-6003. She'll be looking for techniques and methods that are appropriate for different aged students and different types of programs. Reprints of good ideas in affiliate newsletters will be considered, but original manuscripts are especially welcome. We don't want to limit possibilities, but ideas that lead to communicative competence and classroom procedures that allow student initiative will certainly be given priority.

The Editor.

ONE LUMP OR TWO?

With our current awareness of how alienating the teacher/student, knower/learner roles can be, we realize that the classroom is an "unreal reality," and our ever-present goal of overcoming these major drawbacks to effective language learning, I'd like to begin this first classroom ideas column in the TESOL NEWSLETTER by encouraging teachers of all ages to include refreshments in class from time to time. They may be as elaborate as Wilga Rivers Punch or Virginia Allen Dip, or they may be as simple as apple cider and Ritz crackers. They can be planned in advance or can appear unannounced. Students can be involved in planning a spread that covers all nations and all of the table space in the room, or the event can be completely teacher-planned and initiated. Another class can be invited, or the fun can be confined to the usual group of students.

In other words, there's no formula as to just how it's supposed to work. The point is that if you're after student-initiated conversation, students involved in real communication, language practice in real situations, and student-directed lesson segments, including refreshments in adult classes every so often enables me to reach these goals.

An old favorite lesson of mine included a recipe for Banana Nut Bread, the loaf pan, a measuring cup and spoons, and a sifter. I used to try to coordinate baking the bread at home, teaching the lesson in class and serving the bread after the lesson. But such coordination really isn't necessary. The bread can arrive in class by surprise a few weeks after the lesson. Students recall the ingredients and the directions for baking and talk about them naturally while they are tasting. Pronouncing measurements like "three-fourths of a cup" and "one-and-a-half teaspoons" is always difficult at first. A few weeks after the lesson students recall the parts that were difficult for them (sometimes different parts than I would select) and initiate attempts to try again.

But it's not only recipes that we talk about when refreshments are served. A certain atmosphere develops that I relate to a party mood. We've often spent a good bit of time talking about what people do at parties. I make a careful effort not to ask adults to play games that they don't want to play. I'm just asking them to talk about party games . . . But as a rule, before much time goes by, they want to demonstrate as they talk. And that's just one step removed from playing the game which, of course, is not at all ruled out if it's student-initiated.

In this kind of classroom discussion takes place a few times, it's quite easy to suggest that we plan a real party and invite the students and teacher from the next class. At an actual, planned event, we do, of course, ask people to participate in games and activities. Certain students are responsible for organizing the group to do something that they suggested a couple weeks earlier.

And once the "class next door" has been invited, we have host/guest roles (which can be extremely alienating in the real world but seem to bridge personality gaps in the classroom world.) It rarely fails that some adult who plays the student role with shyness and fragility can be found distribution paper cups and napkins before I had intended to serve refreshments!

The mind boggles at the thought of turning sociolinguists and cultural anthropologists loose at explaining this phenomenon. I have a few theories, but I'd prefer simply to share the idea and let someone else explain it. Of course, if it's a first time, only time event, none of my guarantees hold. But if the group has participated in classes with refreshments now and then, I predict great success when adding "guests," too.

One final suggestion is to get the teacher next door involved, too. A colleague of mine at NYU prepared her students with all of the comments that fall off the tongues of guests when they enter New York apartments . . . "What a lovely place! Did you find it through an agent?" And the hosts were quite full of things like: "Oh, yes, I can never find anything by myself. Do you want his address?"

We also add the cultural information that New Yorkers always comment on how lovely the place is even if it's as drab as an NYU classroom -- and polite hostesses never let guests leave without professing that they remain "just a little longer."

We used "Hello Dolly" as background music for a demonstration of Musical Chairs. Words were distributed for the asking, which they did, so we did, too. And behold, there're things like: "It's so nice to have you back," and "You're lookin' swell," which students noted and used at a subsequent class with me when I entered the room.

When the time was up, we had to vacate the room in order that another class could come in. I consider it a measure of the effectiveness of the lesson that I found myself horribly uncomfortable with stepping back into my teacher role to announce that the time was up when one of my hostesses said, "Oh, please have another glass of punch. Call your husband and tell him you'll be a little late."
Improving Teacher-Made Language Tapes

Wayne B. Dickerson

Many teachers have discovered the advantages of making rather than purchasing language laboratory recordings. In general, teachers can achieve a better match between supplemental lab work and classroom instruction by using their own tapes instead of commercial tapes. In particular, tapes can be made to exactly the right length, to cover the most appropriate topics, to provide the desired emphasis with the best selection of exercises, and to accommodate innovation and individualization. These important advantages, however, may be lost if the materials are not expertly recorded. One of the major problems which mars many otherwise superb teacher-made tapes is that of incorrect recording volume. A few pointers in this area may help teachers get more satisfying results from their tape making.

In order to appreciate the importance of correct recording volume, it is necessary to understand what is meant by incorrect volume. Incorrect recording volume may be volume that is too high. This typically results in the distortion of words so that they are hard to understand. Incorrect recording volume may also be volume that is too low. The recordist's voice is not recorded loudly enough to cover the hissing noise that is inherent in every tape and in every recorder. Correct volume, then, is volume that is high enough to hide the hiss but low enough not to distort the sound.

The importance of staying within the safe recording zone lies ultimately in our concern for our students and their ability to learn from our recorded materials. If, on the one hand, the volume is too high, the tape will provide an irritation to the student. In self-defense, the student will tune out the content. If, on the other hand, the volume is too low, not only will it be difficult for the student to hear with ease, but the background hiss will induce listener fatigue which works against learning.

How can we be certain we are using the correct recording volume every time we record? Unfortunately, for nonprofessional machines, recorder manuals are not very explicit on this point. Because there is so much individual variation among recordists, manufacturers find it difficult to state explicitly how to use record-level meters. Some manufacturers try to solve the problem with an automatic volume control. The automatic volume control feature has its uses, but recording language drills is not among them. The recording mechanism is designed to turn up the record volume automatically when there is little or no incoming sound. When this happens, as during a silence left on the tape for student participation, the wide open volume puts a large amount of hiss on the tape—exactly what the recordist is trying to avoid. For language recording purposes, a manual volume control is far superior to the automatic volume control. With the manual volume control, any teacher can arrive at the correct recording level on any recorder by using a simple two-minute trial-run procedure.

The aim of the trial-run procedure is to record your voice at normal conversational loudness so that on one-third playback volume your recorded voice will sound as loud as your voice was when recording. To find the record-volume setting which will achieve this aim, the following steps should be followed.

Trial-Run Procedure

1. Position the microphone about 4 inches from your mouth. Set the record level to 1/2 full volume, then say into the microphone what record setting you are using. For example, record: "I am recording at 1/2 full record level. Then record: 10-15 seconds of material at normal conversational loudness.

2. Change the record-level setting to 3/4 full volume and record on the tape what volume you are using. Record an additional 10-15 seconds of material at normal conversational loudness.

3. Change the record-level setting to 3/4 full volume and announce what setting you are using. Record 10-15 seconds of material as before.

4. Rewind the tape to the beginning and set the playback volume to 1/3 full volume. Play the tape and note which setting yields the best volume, that is, the volume which is most like your normal conversational loudness.

5. If no setting gives satisfactory results, that is, not sufficiently loud volume, either bring the microphone closer to your mouth or change the microphone distance and speak somewhat louder (without straining). Then repeat the above steps.

6. When recording, use your trial-run findings: the record-level setting best suited to your voice loudness and mouth-microphone distance.

In summary, teacher-made tapes can surpass commercial tape in matching the growing and changing needs of an ESL program. Furthermore, the recording quality of such tapes can compete favorably with professionally-produced tapes, provided a few pointers are followed.

For more information on recorders, microphones, tape, and techniques for recording language materials, see the forthcoming paperback book, *Tips on Taping, Language Recording in the Social Sciences*, by Wayne and Lonna Dickerson, published by William Carew Library, 305 Pasadena Avenue, South Pasadena, California 91030.
Charles Blatchford's article, "Newspapers: Vehicles for Teaching ESOL with a Cultural Focus," prompts me to share my experiences using the weekly National Observer as a companion "text" in an ESOL composition class. In my opinion, NO has many advantages over a daily newspaper:

a. The Observer functions more like Time or Newsweek, somewhat like a newspaper-magazine.

b. The format or structure of the paper remains constant.

c. News coverage of a developing event would change from day to day in a daily paper is summarized (usually by one author) in an in-depth article after sufficient data has been gathered.

d. Since the news of the previous week has had a chance to "gel," there are fewer attempts at sensationalism.

e. The Observer is easier to divide, carry around, and handle than a week's worth of newspapers.

NO is available via a newspaper-in-the-classroom program at reduced educational rates for a period ranging from three months to one year. The publication reaches one's mailbox each Monday and is an excellent teaching device for opening each week with a discussion of highlights concerning recent world events; it adds excitement, discovery, and surprise to the first national and international rates for a period ranging from three months to one year. The Observer is easier to divide, carry around, and handle than a week's worth of newspapers.

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Concerning the meanings of words in context.

Lastly, the most difficult content for foreign students to comprehend in the Observer is a feature or in-depth article presenting extensive analysis and historical background on a complicated development or event, e.g., Watergate, the SLA bicentennial stories, the political situation in India, etc. Such material could be carefully assigned to those students majoring in a field directly connected with the feature article, e.g., letting economics majors explain articles on cost of living, inflation, tax cuts, etc., or having political science majors analyze recent events in Portugal or Italy. Even literature majors can get practice in their subject area by explaining articles on Twain, Hemingway, Faulkner, etc., to the class. At present many foreign students seem to be interested in the U.S. bicentennial and could be given assignments from an on-going series of historical articles dealing with America during the revolutionary period.

To sum up, the Observer is a very difficult "text" for a foreign student to read. However, it does have an advantage over a daily paper in that the news stories cover events of the past week, and many students who keep up with the latest happenings by listening to radio or watching TV are not coming to the content "cold." Encouraging the class to "listen and look" whenever they have a chance to come in contact with the American news media may take the fear away from students who view the NO as a far too difficult periodical to read. The ESOL teacher should use the NO pictures and captions, encourage class discussion centering around any item that would be of interest to a foreign student, take advantage of students with expertise in a certain field, and prepare the class for the shock of satire and criticism in American journalism. The reward for his hard work as news reporter, moderator, and interpreter comes the following semester when some students return and request a resubscription. A Monday morning news briefing habit has set in.

REFERENCES


PUBLIC SPEAKING IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

by Betty Ansin Smallwood
North East College of Arts and Science, Maiduguri, Nigeria

First judgements of a person are usually based on one's public presentation. This involves more than one's ability in pronunciation, intonation, grammatical competence and vocabulary control. The intangibles of poise and confidence and also organized self-expression are very important. Through regular, short public speeches in the ESOL classroom, the teacher can encourage and refine a learner's public speaking skills, which are a synthesis of numerous skills. Unfortunately, this essential and enjoyable area of oral English is often overlooked in favor of the more controlled, oral English exercises.

Public speaking integrates well as a regular activity in any intermediate or advanced ESOL class. Public speaking is simply a 5-7 minute student talk on a freely-chosen subject, followed by a 3-5 minute question and answer period. I schedule this 10-12 minute exercise for the end of a lesson and try to have talks two times a week, so that each student has the opportunity to speak two or three times during the year. The students are required to choose and then research their topic, develop the idea into a brief but organized unit and finally present their talk with reference to their notes. At the beginning of the year, I spend one full lesson explaining the concepts involved in oral expression and providing them with a model talk. After the idea catches on, I seldom have a problem with volunteers.

Public speaking offers numerous benefits for the ESOL classroom. First, of all, it's fun and lively, both for the students and the teacher. It changes the traditional teacher-student interaction pattern to that of a student-student one; it provides variety to a skills-oriented class. It encourages communicative competence. In this way the student has a chance to express him/herself on something of importance or interest to him/her. Common topics in Nigeria have included traditional customs, especially marriage and courtship, personal experiences and controversial political issues. Also, the students get to know one another better and the teacher discovers the student's interest areas. All of this helps create a general sense of class cohesion and unity.

Public speaking allows the students to concentrate on a number of specific skills. Pronunciation, intonation, grammatical patterns and vocabulary usage are all given practice. In addition, student research and preparation require organizing and synthesizing skills. (Remember, they only have 5 minutes.) Also, the student audience is given the much needed practice in concise and grammatical question formation. This question and answer period provides the unusual classroom opportunity for student-student oral-aural comprehension.

And from the teacher's perspective, one has the chance to deal with a learner at his/her particular stage of transitional competence. I require all students to consult with me both before and after the talk. Beforehand, I can help them develop and organize their ideas and provide them with vocabulary; afterwards, I can correct specific errors in pronunciation, vocabulary usage and grammar. I have recently experimented with recording these talks. After the initial self-consciousness of being taped, the students seem to enjoy this aspect. Afterwards, they can actually hear themselves (and their mistakes). All of this is not as time consuming as it may at first sound; a teacher sees only two students per week.

In summary, short public speeches as a regular ESOL activity enliven the classroom while simultaneously providing individual practice and teacher attention for many essential, but under emphasized second language skills.

Continued on page 10
ATTLE CROSSING

by Karen E. Czarnecki

Cultural orientation for the foreign student should always be of primary importance in the ESL classroom. Yet it is an area often neglected or shunted to the when-and-if-we-have-time portion of the instructor's teaching schedule. Frequently it is taught as an entity in itself, which is better than nothing, but with a little pre-planning, structural and/or lexical item and culture can be melded into a dynamic blend. A happy corollary of this is the fact that since the cultural items are of more immediacy to the student and interest in them is high, the perhaps less interesting accompanying grammatical structures have a better chance of being internalized; this may be due to their initial connection with the more engrossing cultural item.

The type and amount of traffic signs bear some scrutiny if we are to use them successfully in day-to-day class activities. There are two major classifications: the traditional signs which have printed instruction in English, and the new international signs which use pictures only. Of the former there are four sub-groups: road directionalns ("One Way"), road instructionalns ("Form Two Lanes"), parking instructions ("2 Hour Metered Parking"), and traffic instructionalns ("Cross on Walk Signal Only"). A typical person living in an urban area of the U.S. confronts an average of at least 30 signs daily, most of which are still non-pictorial. Some of these are confusing even to native Americans: for example, ("1 Hour Metered Parking/8 AM-4 PM/Tues., Wed., Fri., Sat./8 AM-4 PM & 6 PM-9 PM Mon. & Thurs."), and some marginally grammatical ("No Stopping or Standing"). Yet traffic signs are an indigenous part of the American scene and are expected to be adhered to no matter what. And we might reflect that it is preferable for the foreign student to learn at least some of the "no matter what's" in the security of his classroom rather than the hard way.

With the above in mind, let us look more closely at the utilization of traffic signs. Even a cursory glance at those most frequently encountered will reveal that many of them are in the present continuous tense. Possibilities either for initial presentation or reinforcement of grammatical understandings, in addition to survival skills, begin to emerge.

Hard-to-learn prepositions of place may take on a new interest in view of everyone's need to cope with "No Parking From Here to Corner," or similarly, "No Parking Between Signs." Building on this same item can lead to valuable speaking, listening, and coping skills as well. For example, the instructor can create and encourage the students to develop a conversation situation in which one student acts out the part of a policeman who has just found another student parked in a "No Parking" zone.

The enterprising instructor can utilize traffic sign diction for linguistic drill as well. For example, the final "ng" in "standing" and "stopping" is frequently mispronounced "k" by certain foreign language speakers and can be practiced for reduction of this error. Further, students can sharpen composition skills by helping each other write out the conversations they created around a specific traffic situation as suggested above.

Commonly used abbreviations such as "JCT" or "ALT" need exploration and expansion, as do elliptical forms found in such instructions as "Delayed Green Wait." The latter example might be suitable for a more advanced class which is also working with the same construction found in newspaper headlines. This level class will also find reinforcement for particle study in signs such as "Merging Traffic." A beginning class, working with time concepts, will find added stimulus in typical urban instructions for "2 Hour Parking/8 AM to 6 PM." The activities outlined above by no means exhaust the possibilities inherent in this approach. Further, each locale offers traffic signs relevant to its own area (e.g. "Cattle Crossing") in addition to the standard ones. Such signs become even more valuable to the ESL class because of their specific relevance to the immediate environment and culture.

Probably the single most effective way of presenting such information to students is through the use of color slides snapped by the instructor. Close-ups are usually more effective, but an occasional shot of a busy intersection with a half dozen signs all vying for attention, brings the real-life situation into the classroom with dramatic immediacy. In short, possibilities for combining culture and content, even through traffic signs, are limitless.
Have you ever had a group of students in your composition class who all too willingly informed you, "I can't write in Korean, either," or asked, "What do you mean by a topic sentence," or stated, "What do you mean by support? There's nothing more to say. What I've said is clear."

Well, Mary Hines has...both at LaGuardia Community College and previously at New York University. She has found that the following technique makes sense—or gets through—to a number of these students, and is willing to share it with us because it works.

Mary Recommends the Socratic approach to eliciting from students the statement and proof of a geometric theorem. Once the proof has been established by students, it is an easy move to demonstrate that the order and support of their evidence is the simplest outline of a paragraph having a thesis sentence, support, and a conclusion. Thus, the demonstration of a theorem plus transitional expression and prose equals a well-organized, clear paragraph.

Mary provides the following proof and concluding paragraph as a model:

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**Theorem 67**—The square of the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the legs.

---

**Statements**

1. Given: Right triangle ABC with legs a, b, and hypotenuse c.
2. A perpendicular to a line can be constructed from a point outside the line.
3. The square of a leg of a right triangle is equal to the product of the hypotenuse and the projection of this leg on the hypotenuse.
4. Name as 3. 3.
5. If equal numbers are added to equal numbers, the sums are equal.
6. A set of points lying between the endpoints of a line segment divides the segment into a set of consecutive segments the sum of whose lengths equals the length of the given segment.
7. Any number may be substituted for its equal in any expression.

**Reasons**

1. 1. Given.
2. 2. A perpendicular to a line can be constructed from a point outside the line.
3. 3. The square of a leg of a right triangle is equal to the product of the hypotenuse and the projection of this leg on the hypotenuse.
4. 4. Name as 3. 3.
5. 5. If equal numbers are added to equal numbers, the sums are equal.
6. 6. A set of points lying between the endpoints of a line segment divides the segment into a set of consecutive segments the sum of whose lengths equals the length of the given segment.
7. 7. Any number may be substituted for its equal in any expression.

I would expect a good geometry book, perhaps the same one your students are using in math class, to provide other proofs and thus allow students practice in supplying transitional expressions and the prose needed to change the given to a paragraph. Of course, an advanced group could begin by developing their own proofs right from the start.

Thank you, Mary, for a lesson that could move from community college composition classes to ESL in content classes to bilingual education programs to English for Science and Technology programs and who knows where else?

Other lesson ideas that will work will be welcomed by the Editor or by Darlene Larson, The American Language Institute, 21 Washington Square North, New York, N.Y. 10003.

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**JOB OPENINGS**

**HEW/Fulbright-Hays**


**Mexican-American Cultural Institute (Mexico City)**

Permanent academic director for binational center for TESOL program of 8,000 students and 65 full-time teachers to begin immediately. Must have at least an MA in TESOL, 5 yrs. successful exp. in trng. and supervising TESOL teachers, directing academic program. Salary 18-20,000 per year. Send up-to-date résumé and 3 ref. to Director, Institute Mexicano Norteamericano, Hamburgo 115, Mexico 6 DF Mexico. Phone (525) 6204.

**University of Benghazi (Libyan Arab Republic)**

Twenty English teachers (ESL, linguistics and appl. ling.). Write to Prof. Joseph Fikes, Faculty of Arts, Univ. of Benghazi, Libya.
SOAP OPERA, MURDER MYSTERY, and HOME TOWN LORE

The TESOL NEWSLETTER is happy to have received contributions from members for our second column of practical lesson ideas. Several having to do with oral group work are outlined below.

Mary E. Sarawit of the Srinakharinwirot University in Pitsanulok, Thailand, writes of the success she and her colleagues have had with a lesson she calls "Soap Opera." She writes:

"To begin with, each of the three teachers chose a theme for their class and assigned 18 characters. For example, one class's theme was about life in a city hospital. Another was a family situation complicated by having five daughters, and the third about life in the country. A synopsis of the soap opera for a day was posted 2-3 days before. It listed the characters to appear and the general line of the story.

In addition to the soap opera itself, there were also an opening 5-minute news report, a 1-minute weather report, and advertisements. Particular students were assigned beforehand and it was up to them to prepare their own material. The ½ hour presentation was divided as follows: 5-minute News, 1-minute Weather, 1-minute Advertisement, 10-minute Soap Opera (part 1), 1-minute Advertisement, 1-minute Advertisement, 10-minute Soap Opera (part 2)."

Mary's comments on the strengths of this lesson include the fact that the topics chosen can be current issues such as parent-child relations, the generation-gap, abortion, women's rights, drugs, etc. News articles concerning the topics were cut out and posted on a bulletin board for students to consult.

Just exactly what would be announced, reported and advertised was not plotted out and memorized in advance, just as the characters in the "Soap Opera" did not put their lines into a script before the presentation. As a result, students had to listen carefully to each other in order to determine what was being said and to respond in an appropriate manner.

Salvatore J. Sinatra has written to share a few ideas for use with groups. The first one he mentions is Robert Gibson's Strip Story, (TESOL-Q, Vol. 9, No. 2, June, 1975), probably the most practical article found in the Quarterly in the last several issues.

Additional contributions from Sinatra include an adaptation he has made from an original idea called Murder Mystery, devised by David and Frank Johnson, and found in a group dynamics text: Joining Together, Prentice-Hall, 1975, pp 121-122. Adapted for ESOL, Sinatra's challenge to each discussion group is to answer the questions:

Who was the killer?
What weapon did he use?
What time did the murder occur?
Where was the victim killed?
Why was he killed?

Clues needed to solve the murder are prepared in advance by the teacher. Each clue is written on a separate card and distributed randomly to group members. The process involves assembly of all information, evaluation, and discussion so that the solution can be reached.

This adaptation includes the ingredient which is surely the key to the success of Gibson's Strip Story as well. That is, each member of the group is the sole possessor of one small piece of information which, in turn, is absolutely necessary to the completion of the task of putting the pieces together.

I'd like to encourage all of us to carry this successful technique into the students' wealth of experience and knowledge. All of our students arrive in the classroom as the sole possessors of lots of facts. We have the challenge of designing group tasks which will elicit from individuals the information that each one brings.

In university and adult classes, the students often come from a variety of home towns. Home towns usually contain town halls, town squares, historic places of interest. Groups might be given the task of preparing a report on town squares, municipal buildings and/or tourist attractions in the combined home towns of the members of the group. Each member would be responsible for providing the information about his home town. The report could be given orally on an assigned day, later written for display on a bulletin board. A list of guiding questions might get the group started . . . to be answered if pertinent, skipped if not. It might include questions on the size and location of the places, their history or origin, their present use and/or condition. More advanced groups might be assigned the task without any guiding questions to get them started.

One has to remember that in real life, every individual in every group does not arrive with a fact of his own which parallels the comparable facts of every other individual. Language texts have long contained bland paragraphs of information, or pages of pic

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After participating in a Silent Way experience, it was apparent that certain basic facts stood out as important for the language teacher. First, the student is immediately and almost totally responsible for the language learning situation. That is, his mistakes provide the teacher with direction for the succeeding lessons, his successes determine how quickly he moves on to the next step, and the speaking is entirely his responsibility. Second, the language of the classroom is entirely, from the first instant, the target language. The students' language is never used. His intelligence, his desire to learn, his compulsion to "try" the new words, sentences, patterns, language, is drawn upon instead. Third, after an initial anxiety, supported by long years of varying successes and failures in classrooms and especially foreign language classrooms, Silent Way students relax in the interaction between themselves as they learn to stimulate, encourage, and reinforce each other, instead of merely responding to the teacher. The "feel" for the language becomes part of the learning and with the responsibility for speaking comes not only the challenge to do so but the feeling that one can.

Blatchford states that his 'romance' with the Silent Way results from his recognition of the humaneness of the approach. He states that it has affected his approach to teacher training, resulting in his desire to provide, along with the methodology, the techniques of language teaching, "encouragement, self-reliance, and support" - the very things potential teachers will need "in the classroom they will be guiding."

5. Shelley Kuo. "Learning Chinese by the 'Silent Way':" (Mimeographed paper printed by Educational Solutions.)

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USING MUSIC TO TEACH ENGLISH
by Lee Jaffe

"Music hath charms . . ." to liven up an English class when the drill may be getting a bit tedious. The use of familiar songs enables the teacher not only to enrich the class and to add some variety to the lesson but also to create a feeling of warmth and a sense of unity in the group.

There are several ways in which musical activities can be employed in the classroom. This first is as an introduction to a new pattern. For example, when working with prepositions, start the unit with the song "Put Your Finger in the Air." While singing the song, the children place their fingers on their noses, on their mouths, in their ears, etc. This type of song involves the body as it gives the class an opportunity to incorporate the new pattern kinetically. As they are happily singing, they are engaged in a learning experience that can be otherwise difficult and frustrating.

A second use of song is as reinforcement of a pattern previously taught. Using a picture as a visual clue, sing "Is he sleeping . . ." to the tune of "Frere Jaques." The child then supplies the appropriate answer to the song. Other pictures of activities are presented to expand the musical substitution drill.

Drills on vocabulary items can become very pleasant and satisfying activities when they are presented in song. A folksong, "There Was a Little Hole," teaches the parts of a tree by combining a chalk drawing with an echo song. As the song is sung, the teacher illustrates the words on the board. An echo song is one in which the leader sings one line and the class repeats the same line. Another song that lends itself to vocabulary building is "Old MacDonald.

Songs are excellent devices for pronunciation drills. Children respond quite eagerly to the nonsense syllable which are often used in song. Singing ditties such as "The Little Red Caboose" and "Shoo Fly" are much more enjoyable than the monotonous contrast of "shin and chin" in a minimal pair drill.

When selecting songs for the classroom, use those that have a refrain repeated several times. In this way the language learner will not feel overwhelmed by the words. Songs which have familiar and commonly used phrases are preferable. Nursery rhymes

Notes on popular song selection:
--Because of complex vocabulary, best used in more advanced classes
--Students are frequently self-motivated; they may bring a record into class and ask you to study it with them
--Encourages group discussions on topics of interest to the students
--Good test of student's comprehension
--Teaches vocabulary, culture, natural sentence patterns
--Student reviews frequently as he sings or hears the song outside the classroom
--Provides experience in using grammatical structures in an unself-conscious manner

Record albums specifically designed for teaching English:
2) Mister Monday and Other Songs for the Teaching of English, Goodbye Rainbow, and Sunday Afternoon, The Solid British Hat Band

Notes on specially designed records:
--Each song generally deals with one isolated structure
--Vocabulary and story are carefully controlled
--Teaching suggestions are included with each album
--All words are pronounced carefully; songs are understandable

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TESOL SOCIETY
Cont'd from page 8
society formed to wait until students themselves spontaneously organize one. Although a student organization obviously must be supported by the students, faculty members can do a great deal to initiate and encourage its formation.

2. Students do not usually like to attend planning meetings and discuss constitutional points. It is better to produce a constitution and bylaws through a selected group of willing students and faculty.

3. Most students are attracted by news of employment opportunities and social activities.

4. Students are generally terrified by the prospect of taking comprehensive oral or written exams. Any preparatory assistance is welcomed.

5. Charging dues is a must. Operating on a non-existent budget is next to impossible. Even tightly budgeted students do not usually mind paying dues if they see some real benefit coming from their membership.

6. Student government will often fund one half of the cost of a trip or project. If a student is participating in a conference or convention, the chances of receiving group travel funding are much better.

MUSIC WORKSHOP
Cont'd Recent Hits
1) “I Write the Songs” by Barry Manilow
2) “50 Ways to Leave Your Lover” by Paul Simon
3) “Mahogany” (Do You Know . . . ) by Diana Ross

7. Money obtained from student government is a double benefit. Since funds go only to dues-paying members, the number of students who pay dues increases dramatically.

8. Most students appreciate any financial breaks they can get. Student registration fees at conventions are a definite attraction. Even when there is no official mention of special student rates, they are sometimes available when specially requested by a group.

9. Guest speakers can be excellent when the arrangements are handled properly. The society can help students by informing them of what to expect and by preparing them for what may be expected of them.

10. The administration will usually be very supportive (financially and otherwise) of projects and activities when it is demonstrated that they help improve the department program.

USING MUSIC—
Cont'd from page 13
often contain words which are rather antiquated such as “Jack and Jill’s” fetch and crown. These songs can be taught in another context and should not be taught in the language lesson. Careful attention must be given to the selection of songs utilizing standard English. Feel free to write parodies when the need arises.

Ah, at last, the rub, there are many teachers who feel that they cannot sing. In my experience, there have been very few who are performemt, but there are many that can sing. It is such a joyous activity for all that it is a shame to deny your class and yourself the experience. If nothing else, records can become the instrument rather than your voice. To paraphrase a recent commercial, give music a try, “you'll like it.”
**DO WE WANT VISUAL AIDS?**

by Colin Ritchie
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

In the language classroom there is virtually nothing as good as a picture for engaging the students' interest, focusing their attention and loosening their tongues. A picture, well designed or carefully chosen, can elicit the exact language the teacher wants to practice. His prompting need only be discreet, so he is in no danger of over-modelling the students' responses or merely giving them a transformation exercise. Not only does a picture effectively and economically elicit the language the teacher wants, but it also controls that language, particularly the vocabulary. Most important of all, the picture guarantees that the language being practiced is, at least minimally, related to a situation. A teacher, teaching his native language to foreign students, often forgets that the language he uses has a wealth of associations for him built up over years of usage where, for his students, it only has a few associations acquired in the classroom. Language, to be meaningful and memorable, must have strong and vivid associations. Anyone who has learnt a language by working abroad will bear this out. By means of pictures, rather than by contextualizing language through language, a direct link can be forged between language and situation, and so some attempt can be made to overcome the deficiency of the language used in the classroom.

It is one of the unhappy results of the Audio-Lingual movement that, in emphasizing a language response to a linguistic stimulus, it has overlooked the fact that language is a response to a whole situation not always encountered through language. Students who have been trained to perform within the framework of a drill have not been helped to apply their skills flexibly and appropriately to different situations. In responding to a picture, with only a minimum of prompting from the teacher, the more advanced student has to use his own resources and, in this way, gains valuable practice at applying what he has learnt through drills and other manipulation exercises.

The emphasis on drilling has helped to promote the language laboratory, so suited to a Stimulus-Response approach. Laboratory material, however, is often restricted to drills and so neglects the enormous potential the equipment has for other kinds of material and other techniques. Similarly, visual media have been widely neglected. Most Audio-Lingual textbooks are not illustrated or use poor quality illustrations to decorate or elucidate the text rather than as a means of practicing language. The emphasis on the language laboratory has also, perhaps caused the language teacher to neglect other equally sophisticated developments in educational technology often used by their colleagues in other subjects.

French courses, by contrast, have been audio-visual from the early days of the CREDFIF material and a number of foreign language courses recently developed in Britain, such as the Nuffield material, are audio-visual. In these materials a film strip is used to contextualize the fairly lengthy presentation text and is later used for recall and other exercises. The British Council used this technique in their English course 'Meet the Parkers' and it has been used more recently by Michael Coles and Basil Lord in their course 'Access to English.' Pictures are also used as drill cues in some of these courses and are a strong feature of the Penguin course 'Success with English.' They are used extensively in the 'OPEAC Oral Drills' which have just been introduced into the ELI for use in the language laboratory. However, as the only relationship the pictures usually have with each other is that they are designed to elicit the same structure, they merely become a more elaborate way of cueing a substitution drill. The pictures should be related to one overall situation if they are to be of real value in giving drill language a semblance of reality.

This idea of a total situation is more in line with the illustrations to Kernel Lessons Intermediate, used by a number of classes in the ELI. Here a whole situation is summed up in a picture which, being presented to the students before the presentation text, enables them to respond to it and build up the situation from their own resources before studying the text. Unfortunately, the clumsy device of masking the text the students can study beforehand renders this method less effective and risks reducing the picture to a mere illustration of the text.

This problem could easily be solved by putting the pictures on overhead projector transparencies with a heat copier. The verbal prompts printed on the same page could be added as an overlay. This would be a practical way of introducing the overhead projector and, once it was regularly available, might soon be used in other ways. The principle of using a slightly more complex picture to convey a whole situation could also be extended to provide material for disguised drilling. Practical difficulties in producing and projecting material are enormous and can really only be tackled by a Department as a whole. Realizing the potential of visual aids and working out their application in detail to your own language program is critically important.

**TESOL ESTABLISHES MEMORIAL FUND**
Using Cloze to Select Reading Material

By John F. Haskell

How can I choose a story that is not too difficult for my students to read? How can I be sure that they will be able to read enough of it so that we can discuss it together?

Many teachers have a limited selection of books from which they can choose reading material. With first language speakers these books are usually selected for a certain grade level of student. But for second language learners we have no way of determining what the "level" of the student in reading is. We still have the same books. How can we use them most effectively? Can we SELECT materials from them that are both interesting and READABLE?

The Cloze Test is a simple way to determine whether or not reading material is too difficult for students to read with success. Note that the key word here is SUCCESS. We should be trying to choose materials that will be appropriate for ALL of our students and easy enough to read so that we can provide growth in knowledge and greater skill in reading.

The Cloze testing device is easily made and easily scored:

1. The first step is to find a story that you think will be generally interesting to the students or that you want to use for some specific grammar or reading skills building exercises, hopefully interesting as well.

2. Take the first 200 or so words and delete every fifth word, putting a blank in its place. For easy scoring fifty blanks is most easily converted to a percentage score, but it is not necessary to have that many blanks). This amount can be easily typed or written on one side of a single sheet of paper and duplicated.

3. Give only this much of the selected passage to your students to read. Ask them to fill in the blanks as they read by guessing what should be there. You may want to have numbered the blanks for easier scoring, also. This will allow you to re-use the test sheets if you have students write the words on a separate numbered piece of paper.

Students should be given as much time as possible though it will take very little time as they become familiar with the Cloze procedure. They are asked to fill in each blank with a sin-
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The word only (though contractions are permissible). The student can read and reread the passage as many times as he needs and in fact, will find it necessary to do so.

4. When the students are finished you are ready to score the papers.

Remember - you are NOT grading students and the students should be told that. You are trying to determine whether or not all the students in your class will have success in reading the whole story.

The cloze passage may also be used to initiate a motivating-learner experience by discussing it with the students after they have finished filling in the blanks. This should be done even though you may find, after scoring the papers, that the passage is too difficult to use any further. Both content and especially grammar choices can be discussed with the students.

The simplest and most effective scoring procedure is to match each student's response with the list of words you deleted. Accept ONLY those words, even though you may find synonyms or other appropriate words being used by the students. Synonyms and "other" words will tell you much about the individual student's knowledge of English but will not be necessary for you to decide whether the reading election is appropriate for the WHOLE CLASS.

For this decision you will find the more objective general score, more suitable.

5. If you have fifty blanks, the conversion to percentage scores will be easy - multiply by two. If not, changing the score to percentage figures will take a little more time.

Once you have these scores for the whole class you will be able to determine the readability of the materials—for that class.

Remember that in general, second language students will not be able to fill in accurately more than sixty or seventy percent of the blanks of even easy reading material. They should be told this from the beginning. Both the teacher and the student should be aware that (a) the student will not always pick the original word and yet may have understood correctly what he is reading. And (b), the student will be able to read and understand a good deal of the passage even though he may not know all the words—we all do it occasionally in our reading.

If the students get below 43 per cent then the material is too difficult for them to read—even with the help of the teacher in the classroom. It will indicate that there are just too many grammatical and lexical roadblocks in the way of the student for him to be able to read the story successfully and without frustration.

What the teacher is looking for is a set of scores for ALL students in the class that will be above 43 per cent (and for the most part below 53 per cent).

An that's it! If a large number of students are below 43 per cent—DON'T use the story... at least not with those students. Try again with another selection instead. If it seems impossible to find a story to use for the whole class from the material (books) you have then you will know that you must do one or two things... or both. You must find some reading material that is more appropriate for your students, that you can use with them in the classroom, that they will have success with, and that will take them ahead that one little step in grammar knowledge and reading skill, and towards new experience or information. You may also find that it is time to consider breaking up your classroom into two or more reading groups.

These scoring areas, frustrational (below 43 percent), instructional (43 to 53 percent) and independent reading (above 53 percent), are general areas and the teacher may find that they need to be adjusted somewhat. They are not absolute percentages. But the cloze procedure works, it will tell you a lot about your reading material.

Try it! Experiment! Use it!

At this stage of American Education, when so many of the goals that we have struggled so long for are again being threatened, it would indeed be ironic to find out that much we saw as change was not change at all. This is a good time to take a look at what bilingual education should be. What is needed are bilingual programs not only in name but also in substance.
TESTING ADULT IMMIGRANTS IN OPEN ENROLLMENT PROGRAMS

by Donna Ilyin
Alemany Community College Center

Open enrollment classes or any classes where student attendance is erratic or transient pose many specific problems. The teacher is constantly faced with presenting, reviewing, and testing at the same time. Often a teacher may have three or four different levels of proficiency in the same class. In adult ESL classes for immigrants, the teacher may also be responsible for the placement of students and for accountability which in ESL classes means student progress in attaining ESL proficiency. The constant flux of new arrivals all day means that classes must be divided into these multilevel classes with no common denominator of interest, no common language background, and no common level of education in students' own language or educational system challenges and frustrates the teacher. Both teaching and testing open enrollment classes are difficult.

PLACEMENT AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Short time saving tests are helpful in placing students into classes or in deciding what materials may be suitable for a student (See ESCOBAR or ROBSON). Tests can show students their ESL level of proficiency and show that they are progressing in general English proficiency.

Teachers can also encourage students to discover their own language growth by giving lists of questions students answer about their own language abilities. (For beginning students, these lists can be translated into students' languages.) Given when students enter a course of instruction and again when the course is completed, the student self diagnostic survey usually reflects language growth and can also show where each student feels more work is needed.

Teacher made tests and other devices such as criterion referenced charts, pre and post test tape cassettes, and cumulative record folders containing class work, test tests, cloze tests and dictations also help show students who attend classes regularly that they are progressing.

TEACHING ONESelf

With the many challenges of open enrollment teaching in adult ESL classes, I would like to provide an individualized instruction. With only a little more effort, teachers can learn to make tests and devise ways to add self checking devices for each unit or objective. (See BESL Reporter; HARRIS; VALETTE; etc. and recent papers on testing).

TEACHING AND TESTING AT THE SAME TIME

What interests me even more than routine testing of units of work, or specific skill areas is collecting ways of teaching and testing at the same time. Dr. Alice L. Pack from Brigham Young University in Hawaii demonstrated such a technique in her presentation at the tenth annual TESOL convention in New York City, 1976: Learning/English Prepositions, Pronouns and Verbs through Participation in space dyads.

I have also been working with some ideas of my own and adapting other people's ideas in order to present, review, practice and test at the same time. In addition to specific skill areas, I find it is even more interesting and easier to present, review, practice and test in contextual situations. I believe students perform better when the material is interesting and follows a theme or story line, I hope that other teachers will join me in discovering, developing, creating, and adapting ways to teach and test students at the same time. Guess Tests, Picture Dictation, Touching Tests, Dictation/Reading Tests, Picture Created Chute Tests and Dictation (Chute Reading Tests) are some techniques that have helped me.

Guess Tests - specific skill areas (vocabulary, numbers, time, etc.)

Preparation:

Make flash cards or use regular drill pictures, want ads, advertisements, tapes, whatever

Shuffle or mix each so that the reader does not know what the student sees or hears.

Number lesson example:

1. Teacher/student technique
   - put some numbers on flash cards eg. 6, 10, 16, 806, 50, 55, 1, 423, etc. (Use 4 x 6 cards for small classes and put only one number on each card.)
   - shuffle the cards
   - show a volunteer student a number that you cannot see. (Numbers are toward students)
   - tell the volunteer student to read the number
   - repeat what student says and write on board or transparency the students exact words.
   - ask the class if the number on the board is the same as on the card. (If not, class corrects)
   - repeat above until student fails two or three times or until the volunteer passes the number test successfully.
   - record when each student passes your informal test.

2. Student/student technique

When one or more students are successful with all the cards:
   - ask for other volunteers to go to the board to write the numbers.
   - shuffle the cards again and show only to students who were successful in step 1 above.
   - ask students who demonstrated their success in step 1 to read the numbers to students at the board.
   - ask students at the board to write the numbers. (Later those students can assume reader-speaker roles when they feel successful).

Tell students at their seats to practice writing the numbers the reader-speaker students are saying. (Again be sure to shuffle the cards and show a card only to the reader-speaker students.)

- next show the number card just read to the students at the board and ask each to correct his number if it is not the same. (Students in class can also correct their numbers.)
- record when students are successful.

Guess Tests-context or situation

Instead of testing numbers in isolation as described above, choose one of the survival content areas necessary for a student here in the United States. For example banking and business are two areas most people need to understand when working or conducting business.

Preparation:

- make a number of checks filling out numbers, names, dates, amounts, etc.
- Use blank checks or large flash cards made into checks, or a ditto with a number of checks each designated by
Teacher/student technique

-tell students to look at the check you are holding, but that you cannot see. (If you are using flash card cues, tell the students to find the check your card refers to. E.g. If the students see XX on your flash card, they find check XX on the ditto sheet.)

--ask a volunteer student (one ready for testing) to tell you the amount of the check.

-repea what student says and then write the number in the proper place on your blank check. Write a student's exact words.

-ask the class if the number on the board is the same as on the check referred to. (If not, class corrects.) Only the numbers can be written, or both the numbers and the numbers on the check.

-erase the amount on your blank check repeat with more cards until student fails two or three times or until the volunteer passes the number test successfully.

-record when a student is successful.

Student/student technique

--ask for volunteer students to go to the board and make replica's of blank checks.

--ask students to write the amounts they will hear. (If using a transparency, only one student can be tested at a time). D

-distribute a check or a flash card referring to a check on a ditto to students who have successfully completed step 1.

-tell a student at the board to ask one of the students with a check or flash card for the amount of the check he has. E.g. "Jose. How much is your check?" or "Chi Wai. What is the amount of the check you have?" (Be sure that students who are writing the numbers do not see the check of the students who are reading the amounts.)

-tell all of the students at the board or those at their seats who are practicing to write what the reader/student says. (More advanced or quicker writers can write the number words too)

-keep a tally for students who answered correctly.

-ask students to correct their answers. Point to a correct answer at the board.

-student/student written technique

--continue asking other individual board students to ask another student with a check for the amount of each check. (Always be sure that students writing, the numbers do not see the check or cues, copy from other students or get prompting help.)

-The check writing technique can be expanded to include questions such as: "Who wrote the check? When did he/she write it? (a good way to practice common men's and women's names and spellings); Who will get the money?; or (for cancelled checks) Who got the money?, etc.

-Very often students help each other with the answers and the teacher walks around answering questions and checking the work of students who are just practicing.

-When using this dictation-teaching technique, some students can be formally tested in spite of the bedlam that may seem to have occurred. Have a specific area in the room for testing where volunteers go. The teacher proctors as the questions are asked, the answers given and dictation written. The rule; there is no testing if others are contributing to the effort.

Picture Dictation Teaching Tests

-Situational pictures present opportunities to teach, review and test at the same time.

-Materials needed:

-a large (preferably colored) story provoking picture in a context of interest and student need. (Transparency can be used)

-a regular deck of playing cards (52)

-Blank ditto cards

-Prepare a clock to a picture.

-ask students to write the words in the picture.

-draw out a story about the picture from the students.

-write the story on the board or ask an advanced student to write the story. (The teacher quickly corrects errors after recording students skill at dictation.)

-ask another student to copy the story on a ditto. (Teacher corrected errors later and reproduces for a class reading lesson.)

-draw out questions that can be asked about the story just created.

-write those questions on the board or have an advanced student write the questions. (Correct any errors quickly after recording students dictation efforts.)

-number the ten best questions students can ask and answer about the story.

-instruct an advanced student to write the ten best questions on a ditto. (Teacher corrects errors later and re-produces for a reading comprehension lesson).

-obtain an ordinary deck of cards (52).

-Teacher/student technique

-Shuffle the 52 cards.

-Hold the cards with the numbers. or face cards toward the students. Don't look at them.

-tell students that each time an ace appears the students must ask you the 1st of the ten questions they have just chosen about the story they have just created. If a two of any suit appears, they ask question number 2. (They never tell you the number and you do not see the card. Since there are four suits, any number can be asked four times)

-tell students if a face card appears they must ask you a question about yourself... or about the class or the room, but not about the story. (Suitable types of questions might be elicited and put on the board before beginning.)

-Do a few examples by showing a card to the class. Students ask the question cued. Teacher responds with the answer.

-Ask for volunteer students to go to the board and write the ten best questions on a ditto. (Be sure to have all 10 questions represented, a few repeats and a few face cards. Do not let volunteer student see the playing card.)

-give a playing card to students who understand the system.

-ask a student with a playing card to ask the volunteer the question cued by his card. (Do not let answering student see cue card.)

-record volunteer student's success in answering the question. Class corrects if answer is wrong.

-Student/student oral technique

-Replace repeated numbers with different numbers (e.g. If you have two fives, keep one five and add an extra three)

-shuffle cards again.

-ask for volunteers to go to the board to write answers. (Other students practice in their seats)

-give a playing card to students who understand the system.

-ask a student with a playing card to ask the question cued by her card.

-tell writing students (at the board or seats) to write a natural answer to the question. (Those who are faster or more advanced can write a longer more complete answer under the natural answer.)

-A natural answer to the question: "Where are Mr. and Mrs. Anderson?" is in the bank. A complete sentence
Dictation Reading Tests. Created stories from a situational picture or stories in class room materials can be used as a dictation test for some and a reading comprehension lesson for others. (1) Give lined paper to students taking the dictation test (group 1). (2) Give typed copies of the story to those desiring to relate sound to symbol (group 2). (3) Give some students the typed copy of the story with comprehension questions to answer (group 3). (4) Instruct students in the first two groups to listen as the story is read. (Students in group three, read the story and answer the questions). (5) Then read the story aloud once. (6) Tell students taking the dictation test (group 1) that the story will be read line by line and that they will write. (7) Instruct those in group two to follow along as the story is read. (8) Read the story a line at a time. Repet each sentence only two times. Read in a natural conversational manner pausing after phrase groups. (9) At the end, read the story completely one more time. (10) Collect the dictation from students in group 1 using it as a test. Give one point for each correct word. If desired, spelling and punctuation can also be scored, but make separate categories. Collect reading comprehension answers from group 3.

Picture Created Cloze Tests. Another variation of the created picture story (or for any reading material) is to use the story as originally written and make a cloze test for the lesson or a cloze dictation test. (When material has been used before as a reading or dictation lesson, paraphrase the story. Use slightly different structures and vocabulary still keeping in the contraints of the proficiency level . . . and keeping the essential meaning of the original story) Making the closes (1) delete every 7th word leaving the 1st and last sentences intact. (2) Number the blanks. Three preferred rules for cloze tests using class created or teacher made stories or when paraphrasing are: 1. Use natural easy flowing sentences within students proficiency level and on a topic students have studied. 2. Select blanks that are different words if for some reason the same pronouns and articles seem to appear as the 7th word. Rewrite the story adding an adjective or a noun phrase or two to avoid this. 3. Avoid using difficult parts of structure elements or words where the context does not make the blank clear. (Before giving students the test, try it out on some native speakers. If they can't fill in the blanks, rewrite the story so that the blanks will be more easily done.)

Directions to students taking the cloze: 1. Read the whole story. 2. Then go back and fill in the blank the word you think is missing. Use a pencil. For example: Mr. and Mrs. Anderson went to ______ a check at the bank. They ______ going to buy some clothes. Use only one word for each blank. 4. Words like "don't", "can't", "he's", and "you're" can be used as a fill a blank. Their son needs shoes, but he ______ need any pants. 5. Try to fill every blank.

Dictation Cloze Reading Test
Alternate directions to students taking the dictation cloze test are the same except for 2, which is changed as follows:
2. Read the story twice. Fill in the blanks with the word, that I read.

Administering the cloze or the cloze dictation:
Many ways of giving and scoring this type of test are possible. One way to give the test to some and yet use it as a practice device for others is to give two copies of the deleted reading pages with a carbon between to those desiring to take it as a test. Instruct them to turn in the original when the test is completed.

Then if using the dictated cloze, get volunteers to read the words that were read for the blanks. If using the picture created cloze, get volunteers to tell the words they selected for each blank. Be certain that students know which words are acceptable or not. Draw out reasons from the students.

Teacher/student sets of tests.
At this point Teacher-student sets of tests (similar to those developed by Alice C. Pack) could be utilized. After the discussion, hand out teacher sets of the cloze with the correct word typed or written in the blank in another color if possible or at least put in a box. Alternate acceptable words could also appear in a vertical line in the box.

Students can correct their work. Later these sets could be used for review or testing in the peer, dyad technique developed by Dr. Pack.

TESTING RESOURCE LIST for Adult Open Enrollment Programs
For a quick easy to read report: "Focus on Testing." BESL Reporter Vol 1 No 2, September 1975. Bilingual/ESL Center, 100 Franklin Street, New Holland, Pennsylvania.

Two recent testing bibliographies

A quick oral placement test:
-Kunz, Linda et al. "The John Test" An oral production test developed in New York City for adults. For free copies write to: Jean Bodman, AERC, Jersey City State College, Jersey City, New Jersey 07305.

Four books helpful to teachers making their own tests:

Two recent collections of papers on testing:

Some other testing papers:
—Illyin, Donna—1975. "What Grade is Dr. Chan in?" TESL Reporter, Vol. 8, No. 4. Box 157, Lane, Hawaii; Brigham Young University.
—Jamz, Jim—1976. "Improving on the Basic Egg—the M-C Close." For copies write to Jonz at Lebanon-Lebanon Intermediate Unit, 1110 Enterprise Road, East Petersburg, PA 17520.