ABSTRACT
        This volume of the "TESOL Newsletter" includes the
following topics/materials: preparing and presenting a professional
paper: a list of journals, newsletters, and other publications for
teachers of English as a second language (ESL): content area
instruction in elementary level ESL: helping the ESL student move to
English-speaking classes in different subject areas: suggested
changes for the order of presenting materials in ESL textbooks: an
overview of English language teaching methodology and ideas about an
eclectic approach: problems in the teaching of reading and some
solutions to reading problems: the role of feedback: using
translation with adult ESL students: adult language learning
variables that affect efficient instruction: an overseas view of
"scientific English": Vietnamese children in American schools: the
four phases of bilingual education in the United States: teaching
standard English to dialect speakers: suggestopedia: situational
reinforcement: the utility of oral reading in teaching ESL:
pragmatics: syllabuses (structural, situational, and notional): A
guided writing technique for advanced ESL learners: using problem
solving in the advanced ESL conversation class: classroom application
of Stevick principles: vocabulary and the use of context in sci-tech
English: and a new international language developed by a Wales
university group. (SW)

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Edited by John F. Haskell

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HOW TO PREPARE AND PRESENT A PROFESSIONAL PAPER*

By Richard Yorkey, Concordia University, Montreal

It may seem presumptuous to write a "how-to" article of this kind for teachers. However, at almost every recent professional conference, I have heard numerous comments about the disappointing way in which papers are delivered. This seems to be a polite way of saying that many are read badly. It is surprising—and discouraging—to realize that many ESL teachers do not know how, or do not take the trouble, to prepare and present a professional paper effectively.

The following notes are suggestions, especially for the neophyte, that may be helpful to consider while planning a professional paper.

I. How to prepare a paper

A. By "paper" is meant a report on some theoretical aspect in the field, on research results of some kind, or on some particular method or materials that are worth sharing with colleagues.

B. Papers of this kind are usually assigned about twenty minutes at a conference. (The longer, one-hour papers are reserved for key-note addresses and plenary sessions. Many of the following suggestions apply to these longer papers as well, but attention is directed here to the shorter papers as defined above.)

C. Whatever your topic may be, remember that it should be written with your expected audience in mind. Admittedly it is often difficult to gauge the knowledge and interests of the audience; there is always the danger of appearing to speak either down to them or over their heads.

1. This problem can be partly resolved by choosing a title that, though perhaps less catchy, accurately describes the content of your paper, one that implies the kind of audience who would likely be interested and prepared to understand. At some conferences an abstract of the papers is published in the program. Here also might be a statement that defines the intended audience.

2. The problem can also be partly resolved by announcing at the outset the kind of audience you expect. (This need not be quite so blunt as Chomsky was at

McGill University several years ago when he announced that he expected no more than five per cent of the audience to understand what he intended to say about his trace theory; on the other hand, there was therefore no excuse for one of the few remaining members of the audience to protest at the end that he had said nothing about his political philosophy.) Particularly if your topic is esoteric or highly theoretical, you can anticipate complaints of irrelevance by clearly stating your understanding of the interests and needs of the audience. Those who do not fit into this category should feel free to leave quietly; their time could probably be spent more profitably elsewhere.

D. From the listener's point of view, it is also useful to be told such things as (1) what, in brief, is going to be said; (2) whether a synopsis or outline (including a bibliography) will be distributed; and (3) when and where the paper might be published or if a copy can be obtained before publication.

E. The most common problem in the presentation of papers seems to be the pressure of time. At least half the papers I have attended are rushed, extemporaneously edited, or actually not completed because of the failure to plan the time carefully. (In one well-known case in which the chairman tried but failed to stop a presentation after more than the allotted time, the next speaker actually was not able to present his paper at all!) Remember: your topic should be narrowed down to the time available. Using a twenty-minute paper as an example, here are some suggestions that may help:

1. Outline and organize your paper. Do this well before the date of your presentation.

2. Write the paper. Do this well enough in advance to put it aside for a while, or to circulate it among colleagues for critical comments. Then revise it. A paper that is to be delivered orally should be written in a somewhat different style from a paper that is to be read silently. This is a matter of individual preference and judgment. Generally speaking, however,

the style may be less formal, shorter sentences and with parenthetical comments. Acknowledgements that usually appear in footnotes should be put into the text itself.

3. Be a speaker, not a reader. Time the paper by reading it aloud at the speed and with the phrasing and pauses you expect to use during the actual presentation. (The average page of double-spaced type takes between 1½-2 minutes to read at an appropriate speed, but it is best to time yourself by actually reading the paper aloud.) Include the approximate time that may be necessary for any visuals you use, such as overhead transparencies, or for the distribution of or reference to handouts.

4. If the paper comes out to exactly twenty minutes, go back over the paper and cut four or five minutes. During the presentation before an audience, you will generally find that you take more time than you planned. (A rule of thumb might be: for a twenty-minute paper, plan a practiced fifteen minutes; for a thirty-minute paper, plan a practiced twenty-two minutes; for a sixty-minute paper, plan a practiced fifty minutes.) It is much better to say less than to read faster! By giving yourself a leeway of a few minutes, you avoid the pressure and the need to rush, to read or speak faster, to cut out examples, or to have the chairman interrupt you in mid-paragraph.

F. Giving a paper is giving a performance. No professional performer would presume to appear on stage without adequate rehearsal; neither should a professional speaker. Once your paper is written and timed, have it typed double- or even triple-spaced. The typing should be so neat and legible that, whatever the lighting problems, it can be read without hesitation or difficulty. Practice reading the paper aloud. Mark the pauses, underline key words and phrases that should be emphasized. There is no need to feel rushed; you have already timed your presentation. At this point concentrate on delivery.

HOW TO PREPARE AND PRESENT A PAPER

Sufficient practice will make you familiar with the sequence and the sentence structure; thus you will develop confidence:

1. to speak rather than merely read the paper aloud, even if this means occasionally departing from the exact words or phrases of the paper;
2. to look up at your audience (eye contact establishes rapport and creates interest and attention; remember to include everyone in the audience: the front, back, left, right, and center);
3. to feel free to extemporize. By looking at the audience, you may sometimes recognize the signs of doubt, confusion, or misunderstanding. You may want to briefly digress from your text to elaborate, explain, or clarify a point.

II. How to present a paper.

A. Before your presentation, it is a good idea to check the room where you will give the paper. Is there a lectern on which to place your paper? Is the lighting adequate? Is there a microphone? Is it necessary? If you are going to use audio-visual aids (e.g., a tape recorder or overhead projector), is there a convenient outlet? How large is the room? What is the arrangement of chairs? What is a convenient way to distribute handouts? When should they be distributed?

B. Be on time. In some convention hotels, conference rooms are difficult to find. If you have not already been to the room (as in A above), allow enough time to locate the room, to meet the chairman and possibly other speakers at the session.

C. You may be asked to sit on stage or at the table with other speakers. During the presentation of preceding papers, relax and show interest. It is too late to do any more preparation for your own paper. Furthermore, papers are often grouped according to similar areas or interest; you may hear something in one of the papers that you may want to refer to during your own presentation.

D. After you are introduced, it is useful to have some spontaneous comment to make before launching into your paper. A formal greeting is not necessary, but you may want to introduce your paper by some relevant reference to an incident or idea

that has occurred during the conference or preceding papers. In any case, try to avoid standing up, fiddling with your watch, and then head down, starting to read with no information introduction whatsoever. Some kind of personal comment at the beginning establishes rapport with the audience.

E. Do not be intimidated by a microphone. If one is available and necessary, adjust it so that you can speak audibly and so that it doesn't get in the way of your paper. If a lectern is available, it is probably best to use it. The pages of your paper should be loose so that each page can be easily slid to the side or placed under the others.

F. Keep an unobtrusive watch on the time. The chairman of the session may give you a five- or two-minute warning. This should not rattle you if you have carefully planned and timed your presentation. You should, in any case, be near enough to the end so that you don't have to rush.

G. Adjust the volume and modulation of your voice to the room and the size of your audience. Avoid a droning monotone. Try to enliven your voice with appropriate pace, pauses, meaningful emphasis, and animation. These points of diction and elocution are what you have already practiced numerous times.

H. After the presentation of papers, there is usually time for questions. These may be immediately after each paper or after all of the papers during the session. In either case, if a question is directed to you:
1. Listen! Be sure you understand the question.
2. It is helpful and courteous to repeat the question if you feel it has not been heard by everyone in the audience.
3. State your answer as completely but as concisely as possible. Some questions are frequently preceded by anecdotes or lengthy statements of doubt or disagreement. Professional courtesy demands patience, but listen carefully for the possibility of red herrings or traps of various kinds. You may want to ignore, or use wit to respond to, thinly-veiled professional attacks. Simply identify what you feel is the basic question and answer only that.

I. You may be asked to submit your paper for publication in a journal or the proceedings of the conference. On the basis of your presentation and the feedback acquired, make whatever revisions

will improve your paper. Revise it to be read silently. It is best to do this immediately while the ideas are still fresh in your mind and before other obligations crowd your life.

VIETNAMESE CHILDREN IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS: BRIDGING THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL BARRIER

by Binh Huu Pham

American teachers of Vietnamese children in American schools should acquaint themselves with some important language and cultural differences these children bring with them into the classroom. Flexibility and empathy on the part of the teacher will help the children make necessary cultural and academic adjustments as they change from a teacher-oriented classroom to a pupil-oriented atmosphere. Some suggestions for accomplishing this follow.

Most Vietnamese children who already have some knowledge of English will understand written English much better than spoken English. In Vietnam students study a foreign language (either French or English) from grade 6 through grade 12, with the emphasis on reading and writing.

These children can be made to feel at home and lose some of their shyness if the teacher shows a firm but friendly attitude. The teacher should not press the children to speak except for short utterances until they develop more self-confidence in their oral use of English.

The teacher should call a child by his or her given name. Example: Nguyen Van Kien. Kein is the given name. Nguyen is the family name.

In Asian society in general, the sexes are separated. At least in the first few weeks of school in the United States, the teacher should not assign the children to work with members of the opposite sex. At the secondary level it would be well to remember that it may take some time for the newly arrived Vietnamese student to accept the practice of members of the same sex showering together in common showering facilities. This would be shocking and unheard of in Vietnam.

Like most other children around the world, Vietnamese children are linguistically flexible and culturally adaptable. A teacher who makes an effort to understand Vietnamese cultural values and concepts and the Vietnamese attitudes toward education which Vietnamese children bring with them will be well-equipped to help them adjust to the sometimes contrasting American value system.

The Vietnamese child and the American teacher will both be the better for this experience.

JOURNALS, NEWSLETTERS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS FOR ESL TEACHERS

· John F. Haskell
Northeastern Illinois University

There are a number of newsletters and journals written specifically for the ESL teacher. There are even more such publications that print articles and information relevant to the ESL teacher, either in each issue or as part of a special issue. It is almost impossible to keep up with the present proliferation of special collections and special interest newsletters and no listing of publications can be more than a partial listing. We occasionally reprint articles and information from the various affiliate newsletters and other publications not generally available to all of our membership. The publications listed below are drawn in part from "ESP Publications" by Marjorie Moran in 36 ESP Textbook Reviews edited by Karl Drobnic for the EST Clearinghouse (1978), Information Sources for Language Teachers by Ted Plaister (1973), "A List of Periodicals Relevant to TESOL" by Virginia French Allen, and "A Guide for Teachers, Researchers, and Educators," The Canadian Modern Language Review, 32, 3 (February, 1976). Additional citations and information were contributed by Alice Osman, Joan McConachie, Charles Blatchford, Darlene Larson, Mary Hines, Dick Yorkey and Ted Plaister. Additions, deletions or corrections are welcome.

Note: An asterisk (*) indicates those publications that are currently available free. Some are in-house publications with limited agencies for distribution. (M) indicates those publications available through membership in some professional organization. (S) indicates those publications which must be purchased or obtained through subscription. Price, membership, and subscription information is available by writing to the address listed with each publication.

AEC (Adult Education Clearinghouse) Newsletter. (S) Articles, abstracts, and conference listings on all aspects of adult education including ESL. 12 issues a year. Write: Fran Spinelli, AEC Director, Dept. of Adult Continuing Education, Montclair State College, Upper Montclair, NJ 07043.

Adult Education Information Notes.* This newsletter can be obtained by writing to the Adult Education Section of the Division of Structures, Contents, Methods and Techniques of Education, UNESCO, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.

The Alemany Gazette.* A newsletter published monthly through the Community College District in San Francisco by the staff of the Alemany Center ESL program. Contains practical classroom ideas from teachers and also student news. Alemany Center, 750 Eddy St., San Francisco, California 94109.

Al-Manakh.* The in-house journal of the English Language Unit of the College of Engineering and Petroleum of Kuwait University. Combines practical articles of teaching ESP, news in the field and reports of events. Write: Editor, English Language Unit, College of Engineering and Petroleum, Kuwait University; P.O. Box 5969, Kuwait.

ALSED.* (Anthropology and Language Science in Educational Development). A Newsletter published by the Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education, UNESCO. Includes occasional articles in TESL and TESP as well as announcements, reviews, and news briefs. Write: UNESCO, N.Y., N.Y. 10017.

Basic Writing. (S) A journal concerned with the teaching of writing to nonnative speakers of English, published semi-annually. Write: Journal of Basic Writing, Instructional Resource Center, 535 E. 80th St., New York, NY 10021.

BESL Reporter. (S) A bilingual education ESL publication, containing practical articles for the teacher printed by the BESL Center of Lancaster-Lebanon Intermediate Unit 13, 100 Franklin St., New Holland, PA 17557.

Bilingual Digest.* A new newsletter drawing together the latest information from various bilingual education publications around the country. Printed monthly, free of charge, write: College of Continuing Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA 90007.

The Bilingual Review/LaRevista Bilingue. (S) A journal covering all aspects of bilingual education and bilingualism. There is an emphasis on Spanish. Fairly wide range of articles. Annual subscription $12. Write: Dept. of Foreign Language, York College, CUNY, Jamaica, NY 11451.

The Bridge—A Journal of Cross-Cultural Affairs. (S) This journal can be obtained through subscription by writing the Center for Research and Education, 2010 E. 17th Ave., Denver, CO 80206.

Canadian Modern Language Review. (S) A quarterly journal published by the Ontario Modern Language Teachers Association. Write: Business Manager, CMLR/RCLV, 4 Oakmount Road, Welland, Ontario L3C 4X8, Canada.

C-L/CLL Newsletter. (S) Short articles about the application of research in Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning. 4 issues yearly. Write C-L/CLL, 215 East Chestnut St., Rm 1801, Chicago, IL 60611.

Communication Notes.* A newsletter of communication which contains announcements, reports and occasional articles of interest to the ESL teacher. Write: Council of Communication Societies, P.O. Box 1074, Silver Spring, MD 20910.

Creativity—New Ideas in Language Teaching.* A newsletter published by the Instituto de Idiomas Yazigi in Sao Paulo, Brazil. Contains articles describing the Institutes programs and materials and other informative articles as well. Write: Av. 9 de Julho, 160-CEPO 1406, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

Cross Currents. (S) This is the journal of the Language Institute of Japan and contains a wide variety of articles on teaching ESL. Published quarterly. Write: LIOJ, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara 250 Japan.

Dissertation Abstracts. (S) For the student or teacher who wants the latest in unpublished dissertation information. Check a library reference section, or write: Xerox University, Microfilm, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106.

ELEC Bulletin.* The English Language Education Council of Japan Bulletin publishes articles in both English and Japanese. ELEC, 3-8, Jimbo-cho, Kanda, Chiyoda-Ku, Tokyo, Japan.

ELI Monthly.* Published by the English Language Institute, University of Petroleum and Minerals. It contains articles and lessons for the teaching of English with emphasis on EST. Available free, write: Editor, c/o Dharan International Airport, P.O. Box No. 144, UPM No. 60, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia.

English: A New Language.* A bulletin for Teachers of new Australians in continuation classes. Over the years the Australian government has issued a variety of teacher materials on various aspects of teaching ESL. Available free through the Dept. of Education and Science, C.P.O., Sydney, Australia.

English Around the World.* A Newsletter containing articles about programs and materials in TESOL from around the world. Published twice yearly by the English Speaking Union of the U.S., 16 East 69th St., New York, N.Y. 10021.

English Teaching Forum.* A journal available only to teachers residing outside the U.S. It is published by the International Communications Agency of the U.S. Dept of State (successor to the United States Information Agency) and distributed through U.S. Embassies. Contains excellent articles for ESL teachers. It may be purchased with a Canadian mailing address and there are special rates for large quantities.

English Language Teaching Journal. (S) A journal of applied linguistics published by Oxford University Press in association with the British Council. Wide range of articles from many countries. Annual subscription is $13.00. Write Subscription Dept., Oxford University Press, Press Road, Neasden, London N.W. 10.

English for Science and Technology Newsletter.* A monthly newsletter which provides information on events, activities, and publications in the area of ESP around the world. Write: Editor, EST Clearinghouse; ELI, AdS A100; Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331.

English Record. (M) A publication of the New York State English Council. A quarterly journal with occasional articles related to the teaching of ESL. Write: Editor, State University College, Oneonta, N.Y. 13820.

ERIC/CLL News Bulletin.* A new publication by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. A free newsletter published four times a year, it contains articles relevant to the ESL teacher and researcher. Write: c/o Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209.

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ESL—Video Newsletter. (S) This newsletter deals with topics related to the use of video-tape and other visuals in the classroom. Write: World English Center, University of San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94117.

ESP-MALS Journal. (S) Contains articles on both theoretical and applied aspects of ESP as well as book reviews and lists of current texts. Published by the University of Birmingham, U.K.

ESPMENA Bulletin. (English for Special Purposes in the Middle East and North Africa) Published by the Khartoum University Press, it comes out three times a year and contains information and articles on innovative techniques and approaches in teaching ESL as well as book reviews and announcement. Useful for any ESL teacher, it is available free. Write: English Language Servicing Unit, Faculty of Arts, U. of Khartoum, Khartoum, The Sudan.

EST ESP Chile. A newsletter primarily about teaching in Chile but containing articles and news of interest to anyone. Write: c/o Dept. of Humanistic Studies, University of Chile, Santiago, Chile.

Foreign Language Annals. (M) Published bimonthly by the American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Write: ACTFL, 62 Fifth Ave., New York 10011.

Georgetown University Roundtable Series formerly the *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*). (S) Published by the Institute of Languages and Linguistics of Georgetown University, usually in conjunction with the yearly Round Table Meeting. Of late, issues have centered about a particular area of applied linguistics such as TESL or Bilingual Education. Write: Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057.

IATEFL Newsletter. (M) A Bulletin published by the International Association of Teachers of EFL. Contains articles reports and reviews for the EFL/ESL teacher. Write: 16 Alexandra Gardens, Hounslow, Middlesex, England TW3 4HU.

IRA. (International Reading Association) Publications. (M) *The Journal of Reading, The Reading Teacher,* and the *Reading Research Quarterly.* Yearly membership includes one publication. Write: IRA, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711.

IRAL. (S) (International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching). Published quarterly by Julius Groos Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany. U.S. agency is Chilton Books, 525 Locust St., Philadelphia, PA 19106.

Interview. A commercially published newsletter, available free from Collier Macmillan, International. Very current articles on classroom practices in a colorful and clear format. Write: CMI, Inc., 866 3rd Ave., New York, N.Y. 10022.

The Illinois ESL-Vessel. A newsletter of the Illinois ESL Adult Education Service Center. It contains good articles and teacher information. Write: c/o Illinois ESL/AE Service Center, 500 South Dwyer, Arlington Heights, IL 60005.

International Education Project Bulletin (S). This bulletin contains articles and information about education overseas and teacher exchange in this country. Write the American Council on Education, 1 Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

JALT (Japan Association of Language Teachers) Newsletter. (M) This is the newsletter of the national association in Japan. It contains numerous articles and reports on EFL in Japan and elsewhere. The various affiliates to JALT also print newsletters, such as the *KALT* (Kanto Assoc. of Lang. Tchrs.) Newsletter.

Language Learning. (S) A journal of applied linguistics, comprehensive in the range of materials it presents. While basically research oriented it does contain articles of interest to the classroom teacher. Has published special ESL issues. Write: LL, 2001 North University Bldg., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109.

Language Teaching Abstracts. (S) Published quarterly by Cambridge University Press in association with the English Teaching Information Center of the British Council and the Center for Information on Language Teaching. Write: C. U. Press, Bently House, P.O. Box 92, 200 Euston Rd., London, N.W. 1 or C.U. Press, 32 Est 57th St., New York, N.Y. 10022.

The Linguistic Reporter. (S) This monthly newsletter from the Center for Applied Linguistics provides information on activities and developments in applied linguistics throughout the world. Lists meetings and conferences, jobs, and includes the ERIC/CLL bibliography. Subscription rate is $6.00. Write: Managing Editor, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 N. Kent St., Arlington, Va. 22209.

Literacy Advance. (S) A newsletter of the National Affiliation for Literacy Advance (Laubach Literacy International), Box 131, Syracuse, NY 13210.

MET. (Modern English Teacher) (S) A magazine for the ESL teacher, published four times a year. It contains articles on ESL, EFL and ESP for the classroom teacher. Write: Subscriptions Dept., 8 Hainton Ave., Grimsby, South Humberside DN32 9BB, England.

MEXTESOL Journal. (M) The journal of the Mexican Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, published quarterly, focuses on special problems of teaching and learning in Mexico but most articles are relevant and practical for the ESL teacher anywhere. Subscription, along with the *MexTESOL Newsletter* comes with membership in MexTESOL. Write: National Treasurer, Apdo. Postal 6-808, Mexico 6, D.F.

Modern Language Journal. (S) Published by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations. Six volumes a year, by subscription. Contains research and informational articles in all fields of language. Write: MLJ, Dept. of FL, University of Nebraska, Omaha, Nebr. 68101.

Mosaic. A newsletter on culture and bilingual education put out by the IRES

Resource Center, Rutgers State University, 10 Seminary Pl., New Brunswick, N.J. 08903.

Multilingual/Multicultural. A newsletter published quarterly by the Bureau of Bilingual Education of the State Dept. of Education, Albany, NY 12234.

NABE (Journal of the National Association of Bilingual Education). (S) or (M). For membership information write: Ramon Santiago, TC13, BESL Center, 100 Franklin St., New Hope, PA 17557. For subscriptions write: NABE, 500 So. Dwyer, Arlington Hgts., IL 60005.

NAFSA Newsletter. (M) The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs Newsletter contains a column for its ATESL members which deals with topics in ESL. Write NAFSA, 1860 19th St., Washington, DC 20009.

NAR/DSPSE Newsletter. (M) (National Association for Remedial/Developmental Studies in Post Secondary Education Newsletter) Published at Chicago State University it prints occasional ESL articles. Write CSU, 95th St. at King Drive, Chicago, IL 60628.

NCTE Publications. (M) The National Council of Teachers of English prints a number of publications which sometimes have material for the ESL teacher. Journals available through membership include *College Composition and Communication, College English, Language Arts* (formerly *Elementary English*), and the *English Journal.* Also the *Idea Factory,* a newsletter for JHS and middle school teachers which contains practical suggestions for the classroom. NCTE, 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Northeast Conference Reports. (S) These are "Reports of the Working Committees" of the Northeast Conference on Teaching of Foreign Languages. They are printed for their annual meeting. Write: NE Conference, Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753.

On TESOL. (S) Papers collected from the TESOL Conferences and Conventions. The first three (1965-67) published by NCTE and the rest (1974-present) by TESOL. Write: TESOL, 455 Nevils Bldg., Georgetown U., Washington, D.C. 20057.

RELC Journal. (S) A publication of the SEAMEO Regional Language Centre in Singapore, it includes excellent articles on teaching ESL. RELC has also printed an *Anthology Series* based on the proceeding of seminars on various aspects of language teaching. For information write: Tai Yu-Lin, Director, SEAMEO (Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization), Regional Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 10, Republic of Singapore.

Selected Conference Papers (S) of the Association of Teachers of English as Second Language. This is the publication of the TESL section of NAFSA and is printed annually. (see NAFSA Newsletter)

SLANT. (S) (Second Language Acquisition Notes and Topics. A newsletter for researchers, it has a number of regional editions. Write: SLANT, San Jose State University Linguistics Program, San Jose, CA 95192.

SWRL (Southwest Regional Language) Educational and Development Professional

Papers. (S) Special printings of papers written for SWRL. Many are TESL related. Write: SWRL, Educ. Research and Development, 4665 Lampson Ave., Los Alamitos, CA 90720.

System—A Journal for Educational Technology and Language Learning Systems. (S) Contains articles on methodology and application in language teaching. Write: Dept. of Language and Literature, University of Lykoping, Lykoping, Sweden.

TESL Communique. A newsletter published by Concordia University in Montreal. It contains practical articles on teaching ESL as well as book reviews and conference reports. Write: Editor, TESL Centre, Concordia U, 1455 de Maisonneuve Blvd West, Montreal, Quebec H3G 1M8 Canada.

TESL Reporter. This is a bulletin published four times a year by the Church College of Hawaii. It contains articles of practical interest to the ESL teacher as well as book reviews and bibliographies. Write: Box 157, Brigham Young University, Laie, Hawaii 96762.

TESL Talk. A quarterly publication of the Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation. Each issue contains a wide variety of articles on teaching ESL. Write: c/o Citizenship Branch, Ministry of Culture and Recreation, 77, Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario M7A 2R9 Canada.

TESOL Quarterly and *TESOL Newsletter.* (M) The journal and newsletter of TESOL. Available through membership only. Write: c/o TESOL, 455 Nevils Bldg., Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057.

TESOL Affiliate Newsletters. (M) The various affiliates of TESOL publish newsletters which contain a wide variety of articles and information for the ESL teacher and the bilingual educator. Most of them, in addition to announcements, print book reviews and conference reports. Most of them are recognizable by the acronym of the organization (NJ TESOL/BE Newsletter, CATESL Newsletter, MATSOL Newsletter, etc.), but some others have special names such as the *Idiom* (NYS ESOL BEA), *TESL-Gram* (Puerto Rico), *Contact* (Ontario), *TEAL* (British Columbia), and *Date-Line* (Dominican Republic). Some national TESOL organizations, such as JALT (the Japan Association of Language Teachers), and Mex-TESOL, have their own newsletters and journals. The *JALT Newsletter*, for example, like the *TESOL Newsletter*, is the national publication, but various regional affiliate newsletters such as the *KALT* (Kanto) *Newsletter* are also printed and all contain interesting and useful articles. In most cases they are only available through membership in the affiliate.

ERIC. The ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, operated by the Center for Applied Linguistics, is one of a network of 16 ERIC clearinghouses funded by the National Institute of Education. ERIC/CLL collects materials (such as research reports, papers, bibliographies, and curriculum and teaching guides) on linguistics and foreign language instruction,

including ESL, and disseminates them through the ERIC data base, which can be searched both by computer and by hand. The items added to the data base each month are indexed, abstracted or annotated, and announced in two monthly publications, *Resources in Education* and *Current Index to Journals in Education*. In addition, the material announced in *RIE* is offered for sale in microfiche or paper copy (called "hard copy") by another part of the ERIC system called the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). In addition, ERIC/CLL commissions and publishes bibliographies, state-of-the-art reviews and other papers in its Series on Languages and Linguistics. These papers are put into the ERIC system and may be purchased from EDRS.

RIE and *CIJE*, together with other ERIC reference tools and the microfiche collection, are available in over 600 locations in the United States and abroad including many university, college and school district libraries. For further information, contact ERIC/CLL, 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209.

Special Collections: There are numerous occasional collections of papers focusing on the teaching of ESL. Among the most recent or interesting are:

The Art of TESOL. (S) A collection of articles in two volumes from *English Teaching Forum*. Published by Newbury House, Rowley, Mass. 1977.

Bilingual Education: Ethnic Perspectives. (S) This collection is of the conference proceedings of the Nationalities Service Center of the Community College of Philadelphia, Oct. 28, 1977. It is available by writing to the CC of Philadelphia, 34 South 115th Street, Philadelphia, PA 19107.

Bilingual Education Paper Series. (S) Occasional papers on various topics in the field of bilingual education. Write: National Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

Collected Papers in Teaching English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education: Themes, Practices, Viewpoints. (S) Edited by Richard Light and Alice Osman, 1978. Available from NYS ESOL BEA, Box 185, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027. $5

English for Specific Purposes: An International Seminar. (S) A collection of papers from the program which took place in Bogota in April 1977 under the sponsorship of the British Council. Available through the BC and its offices.

Occasional Papers. (S) Volume three was printed Winter 1976-7 by the CATESOL affiliate. Contains articles by CATESOL members on a variety of ESL, literacy, ESP and bilingual education topics. Available through the California affiliate. Write: CATESOL, 558 7th Ave., Menlo Park, CA 94025.

On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. (S) Series I, II, and III, appeared in 1965, 1966, and 1967. These volumes are collections of papers from the TESOL conventions held in Tucson (1964), San Diego (1965), and New York City (1966) prior to the first Con-

stituted meeting of TESOL in Miami in 1967. They are out of print but copies are available through Xerox University Microfilm, P.O. Box 1764, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106.

Papers in Linguistics. (S) Collection of MA papers in TESOL, bilingualism, and sociolinguistics printed by Northeastern Illinois University. Write: Dept. of Linguistics, Northeastern Illinois University, Chicago, IL 60625.

Selected Articles from Language Learning. (S) (see Language Learning)

Special Anthology Issue of the Florida FL Reporter. (S) There are a number of special anthologies of articles that have appeared in the *Florida FL Reporter*, published in cooperation with ACTFL and MLA. Of special interest are those anthologies on Teaching Standard English, Black Dialect, and Cultural Differences. Write: Alfred C. Aarons, Editor, the *Florida FL Reporter*, 801 N.E. 177th St., North Miami Beach, FL 33162.

Teaching English in Exhilarating Circumstances. (S) A collection of articles from a Peace Corps Training Program, edited by John Fanselow. Write: Peace Corps Training Program, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027.

TEAL Occasional Papers. (S) A collection of the British Columbia Association of Teachers of English as an Additional Language. Volume I was printed in 1977 and it contains selected papers from the annual convention. Write: BCTF, 2235 Burrard St., Vancouver, B.C., V6S3H9.

TESL Studies. (S) A collection of the staff and students of the Division of ESL, 3070 Foreign Language Bldg., University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

Workpapers in Teaching English as a Second Language. (S) A collection of papers by the ESL staff of the University of California at Los Angeles. Obtainable through the Dept. of English, ESL Section, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA 90024.

Working Papers on Bilingualism. (S) The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, M5S 1V6.

XCHANGE. (S) Special edition, English as a Second Language Adult Education Staff Development Project, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, March-April, 1976. Write: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 710 SW 2nd Street, Portland, OR 97204. *TN 11/78*

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NEEDED: CONTENT AREA INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY E.S.L.

by Emilio G. Cortez

Of late, the appropriateness of the traditional elementary-school E.S.L. (pull-out) programs is being reconsidered.

If the non-English-speaking child is to compete academically with his/her English-speaking peers, a major portion of the E.S.L. curriculum should include the English expressions, vocabulary, grammatical structures, and concepts most frequently encountered in the monolingual English classroom. Unfortunately, as traditionally implemented, most elementary-school E.S.L. pull-out programs neglect such considerations.

To help ameliorate this situation, it is suggested that curriculum writers and/or program designers draw from the content areas within the elementary-school curriculum.

To date, little or no existing data is available which has investigated an E.S.L. pull-out model which integrates and/or stresses content-area instruction. Consequently, educators are urged to devise, to implement, and to investigate such a paradigm.

Considering the current controversies (both legal and research-related) surrounding the traditional E.S.L. pull-out programs, E.S.L. teachers involved in these programs would do well to integrate content-area concerns (especially reading and mathematics) into their second-language instruction. If such suggestions are ignored, the demise of the elementary-school E.S.L. pull-out programs may become a harsh reality.

In conclusion, whichever model (bilingual, traditional E.S.L., content-area E.S.L., etc.) is deemed most appropriate, after both legal and research-related criteria have been satisfied, the integration of content-area instruction should play a major role in the final outcome. In keeping with this position, it is hoped that "vacuum teaching" will become a fossil of the past.

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"OUT -OF THE CLOSET" AND INTO THE SCHOOL

By John F. Haskell

Mary Galvan, in a recent speech before the 6th annual Illinois TESOL Convention, made the comment that it was time for ESL teachers to "come out of the closet". She was referring to the fact that ESL TESOL must get itself involved in a number of educational ventures that are truly language (therefore, ESL) related such as bilingual education, adult education, vocational education, "Right to Read" programs, and migrant education, and her use of the term 'out of the closet' referred specifically to the prevalent condition of many of our ESL classes—held in hallways, corners, and storage closets.

For everyone in the audience she hit some nerve, triggered some kind of response or reaction; an "I've been saying that for years", or "It's about time", or "Right on, Mary!" Hearing Mary Galvan speak is always a joy, but listening to her is even better. And I was excited to hear her speak of a workshop that

she had been part of, with Virginia French Allen, at Temple University. The topic the class dealt with was "ESL in a greater school context." And I believe, that if ESL is to thrive, grow, perhaps even survive, it must prove itself to be the viable and important, necessary part of the educational curriculum that it is (a fact which though apparent to you and me, is still not accepted or acknowledged in any real way by 'other' teachers nor by school systems as large as that of the city of Chicago). I think our public relations efforts, to date, stink. As ESL teachers, we must not only set an example of good teaching but become missionaries. Our efforts must touch, in a personal way, the other teachers and administrators in our school. It is not enough that there are "pull-out" classes in a school—places where one "gets rid" of that student who can't speak English. A closet, even

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"OUT OF THE CLOSET"

though it contains an effective program, implies lack of importance, support, acceptance.

In the past, when I have suggested to teachers that ESL classes need to move their content away from English literature to other academic (and non-academic) school areas, most teachers reply on the order of "I tried talking to the other teachers but their response was 'get that kid out of my class until he can speak English!'" I concede that the already overburdened math and social studies teachers may not have the time nor the expertise to deal with the limited English speaking student whose problems seem totally unrelated to the subject matter at hand; that the teacher already perceives of the ESL teacher, if there is one, as having been hired to handle the problem, but we cannot survive, we cannot serve our students by retreating into a self-righteous closet, "doing our job". Despite the subjective reaction to "special" teachers and programs that most teachers (administrators and communities) have; negative in terms of jobs and millage and space and equipment and time, and positive only because it "gets that problem kid out of my class", it is time the ESL teacher, the ESL profession, did something positive, 'up front', it is time to come "out of the closet". It will require tact and skill, and confidence, and not a little dedication to the profession. ESL is not a "special" program. It is, for many schools and communities an integral and necessary component of the curriculum. ESL teachers, even those that show up in any one school for half a day once a week, need to become part of the school, of the faculty, of the curriculum making process, to be seen as a member of the school community and not as an outsider. The visiting school nurse, though not determining curriculum, still is eagerly accepted and thought of positively by the more permanent members of the school.

The immediate classroom ESL teacher's job, it seems to me, is twofold—first, to make oneself recognized and recognizable, and indispensable, and second, to take a good look at the content of the ESL class, in terms of the needs of the student in the rest of the school program—rather than solely as an adjunct to the English (literature) class. Tooting the ESL horn, the sweet sounds of Goodman or the more raucous of "Kiss," will depend on the individual teacher's style, and more importantly that of the school (colleagues and community). One of my students, Sr. Mary

Melady, used the "shock" technique on her colleagues. She brought to a teacher's meeting an Iranian student, who spoke (lectured) for ten minutes to the faculty—in Farsi. Sr. Mary then handed around a mimeographed "test" in Farsi (Arabic script) for the teachers to "do." But hers was essentially a sympathetic audience of people who needed, perhaps, only to be made aware of the problem, albeit in a very real and personal way. And Sr. Mary was already a part, an accepted member of the school community.

Certainly more subtle and individualized approaches are necessary in those schools where the teacher is not yet a well integrated and recognized member of the school community. In these cases, it seems to me, a direct attack by the ESL teacher, on each faculty member, separately, may be in order. Asking the content area teachers' what problems s/he is having with individual foreign students might be the first order of business. Try to find out what specific language problems the student might be having or what skills he needs to be able to handle (e.g., special vocabulary, specific classroom skills such as panel work or oral reports, special types of content organization such as chronology, or mathematical theorems, taxonomies, formulae, etc.) Find out what things the teacher knows (and conversely needs to know) about the limited English speaking students (whether language knowledge or culture). Try to find a way of helping the teachers become aware of the special knowledge the student brings to the class, knowledge that might be tapped and used by the teacher. It may mean that the ESL teacher will have to become a "jack of all trades,"—with all that that implies. It means the ESL teacher will have to make a special effort to learn a new language, a number of new languages. Not the languages of the students but the languages of the various content areas that the students need. The ESL teacher will have to become sensitive to the problems of the other teachers. But promise of help, both for the student and the teacher, will, hopefully, make the content area colleague aware of the student in a positive way, and provide that ego involvement that will make further help possible. The administration, too, can be positively influenced if the ESL teacher will follow up on individual students, outside of class, and act as a liaison between student and school and family.

The second major area of attack is in the ESL classroom itself. The ESL teacher must begin to move the student, not only into the English speaking milieu of the English class, but also into a geography class, a history class, a sci-

ence class, a math class, etc. This means that the teacher must avoid, what Virginia Allen calls "empty lessons", those ESL lessons that focus on grammar and ignore content, in favor of "full" lessons that deal with language, not incidentally, but as part of a larger context, in this case an area of study important to the student. This means obtaining vocabulary, and content, and content specific skills, around which lessons can be built. It means becoming familiar with "special" English vocabularies and a wide variety of texts, materials, and testing devices that students need to deal with in other classes. It means that the ESL teacher may have some language learning to do, to teach language they are unfamiliar with, to deal with school skills not directly related to literature or grammar. Why not a writing exercise dealing with geographical description? Why not a grammar or structure lesson centered around a historical period? Why not a reading selection related to a science topic being encountered in the science class. Mary Hines (TESOL Newsletter, "It Works", Sept. 76) suggests the use of math hypotheses as tools for teaching paragraph organization. There are a million ideas for lessons in every 'other' class in the school and their immediate relevance is the often immediate but always ultimate need of the student. And wonder of wonders, the content of the lesson can be expanded or simplified—used modularly—to fit the level of any student, just as easily, perhaps more so, than the 'usual' grammar lesson. And those sterile patterns and structures and pronunciation exercises can be dealt with, learned, in a medium that is transferable to another class.

Mary Galvan closed her speech with a thought that also struck me anew and which seems relevant here. She said, "One Vietnamese student in the classroom puts that teacher in an ESL situation." We ESL teachers can capitalize on that fact by serving not only as the school ESL specialist, the person who is called on to teach the "foreign" student, but also as the missionary, the visionary, the evangelist, the proselytizer who can show the other teachers the joys of being able to help a "foreign" student, of seeing the growth of the limited English speaker, right in their very own classes. I see no hope for certification, or even a "mandate" as they are about to call it in Chicago; no hope for full time positions in teaching ESL, until we, who are, however reluctantly, now admitted into the schools, become welcome faculty members—welcome and accepted as part of the total educational community. We won't get out of the closet until someone knows we are there.   4/78

SOME SUGGESTED CHANGES FOR THE ORDER OF PRESENTING MATERIALS IN ESL TEXTBOOKS

By Bryce Van Syoc
Southern Illinois University

In recent years those of us in the business of second language teaching have been bombarded with new theories in our field and presented with updated and refined statements of older theories. For example, there are the different statements relative to the cognitive learning theory as opposed to the behavioral learning theory, which was so popular not too long ago. We have been confronted with statements that language competence and language performance are paired, but that they are quite different in nature. We have been advised that both language competence and language performance can be better achieved through student-centered, individualized instructions. It has been helpful to be reminded by new theorists that, although language is rule based and rule governed, it must be considered chiefly as a creative process.

The effect of the newer statements regarding theories of language and of language acquisition has, in the main, been healthy. They have forced us to again rethink our instructional techniques to see if there is some way these newer concepts can help us improve our teaching. However, one has only to teach English composition to a class of foreign students to perceive that many, if not most, of them have failed to acquire adequate language skills on either the competence or the performance level. Even students who have made good scores on the various English proficiency examinations required for the issuing of student visas or for university admission have often failed to master, on the performance level, such basic features of English as the singular-plural number system. Others have not mastered, either at the competence or performance level, the English modal system or the English verb auxiliaries. Many are poor at pronouncing important syntactic morphemes. A large percentage of them can read English with good comprehension and moderate speed only with great difficulty. In many cases the writing level of these same students parallels the low level of performance in the other areas just described.

There could be, of course, myriad causes for such low levels of performance still prevailing after several decades of stating and refining our various linguistic theories and of trying hard to improve classroom techniques. It seems to the writer of this paper that such a deplorable state of affairs may result in part from the poor ordering of materials in the textbooks which we are using for ESL today, textbooks which frequently do not reflect adequately what is known about the nature of language and of language acquisition.

In examining the rather large number of beginning and advanced ESL textbooks which have come to my attention during the past ten years or so, there appears to me to be a surprising lack of originality in the ordering of the instructional materials.

The purpose of this paper is to suggest some changes in ordering of materials which would, I believe, enhance the possibilities of taking advantage of cognitive learning theories and recent linguistic theories.

The first suggestion in syntax ordering would be the use of modal words such as "can" or "must" in the beginning sentence patterns, these modal words to be followed, of course, by the non-finite or simple form of a verb which the text writer feels would be useful for the students to learn. So, rather than start with a sentence pattern such as "This is a desk" or "This is a pencil" the following frame could well be used:

I can see

    hear

    talk

    walk

Or, using a transitive situation, the sentence could be, "Bill will meet Mary," etc.

Starting instruction with modals in the verb phrase may seem strange but it has many advantages. One of these is that most languages have within their verb phrase system something akin to the modals of English; that is, a modal-like word, possibly even a verb, which carries the semantic notions found in English modals, followed by a verb in either its root form or its infinitive form. In English texts, by introducing verbs in connection with modals, the root form of the verb can be used, thus reducing the number of problems confronting the learner at one time and making it easier for him to begin to communicate quickly in the target language on a creative rather than a mimic-and-memorize basis.

Another advantage of starting with modals followed by the simple form of the verb is that it should help to lessen the widespread and perennial use of the "to" infinitive in such sentences as "I can to swim," and "I must to read a book."

This common mistake suggests that students should not be introduced to the "to" infinitive forms until after they have mastered the use of the simple forms of verbs following a modal. By introducing new verbs in their simple form rather than in their "to" form, or one of the inflected forms, or to teach questions, the imperative mood, and what is left of the subjunctive mood. By starting in this way, the introduction of "to" infinitives can be delayed and introduced in a more appropriate place with the nominals and the adjectivals.

By the imaginative use of dramatization and visual materials, for example illustrations within the text, or a separate set of charts, a textbook writer can lead students to produce creatively action type sentences from the start, thus giving more variety and interest to the lesson. The possibilities are almost endless but the following are examples:

You may open your book.

        read your letter.

        buy one pencil.

        go to the door.

Another advantage of starting with modals is that the subjects and objects of the sentences can be either singular or plural without demanding a change in the verb phrase. Also, the subject can be in first, second, or third person without requiring a change in the verb construction as is the case in starting with a finite form of a verb. Of course, students of English must eventually learn all about the required agreement between the subject of a sentence and finite verb forms, but by starting with modals, problems of agreement which seem difficult for students of English as a second language to master, can be delayed until they can be more conveniently handled, bearing always in mind that the student must develop in a cognitive way both competence and performance in the target language.

The use of modals makes a convenient means of introducing variety in sentence patterns. It is easy to introduce compound sentences and certain types of complex ones, being able to concentrate on the process of compounding and embedding rather than having also to watch for subject-verb agreement, as when the lessons start with other types of verb phrases. Negation can be taught easily with modals, and once that is mastered, tag sentences and questions are easily managed by students. This procedure should help to avoid such sentences as "You can go downtown today, isn't it?" which one hears with frequency in so many parts of the world

SOME SUGGESTED CHANGES FOR ESL TEXTBOOKS

where English is the second language. Tag sentences are not difficult with modals. The learning load is much lighter in a sentence like "Bill will eat fish, but the girls won't" than it is in the sentence, "Bill is tall, but the girls aren't."

One seeming disadvantage in starting instruction with modals is that verb tense and person of nouns must be delayed until finite verbs are introduced. But this is not really a disadvantage, in my opinion. On the contrary, it can be advantageous and even more efficient, in terms of cognitive learning, to delay these two grammatical categories a little. Both tense and person are relatively easy to learn in English if they are taught one by one, and not all together, as is the case when a text starts with finite verbs.

As to a second change in ordering of syntax, it would seem wise, soon after modals have been presented, for the textbook writer to begin a systematic and extended, but vigorous, attack on the complicated set and subsets of noun determiners used in English. As a rule, authors who start with finite verbs also tend to introduce the article determiners before the other types. Many languages have articles in noun phrase construction, of course, but certainly not all do, and those that have them often use them differently from the way English does. On the other hand, the use of numbers as noun determiners is a very common language phenomenon, as is the use of possessive determiners. It would seem wise then to consider introducing the set of determiners with sentences such as "Bill must read two books," or "He must finish his lesson." This could easily be followed by a more generalized possessive determiner as in "Sue's brother will ride Bill's bicycle." After the definite article has been introduced, many common noun possessives would be available for use as noun determiners.

The determiner system of English is so involved, including as it does the predeterminers and the post determiners with all their ramifications, that instruction dealing with it will probably be stretched out through at least the upper intermediate level of instruction. But starting with numbers, possessives, and zero determiners rather than with articles makes considerable sense. If by changing the order of introducing determiners we can prevent students from coming out with "I must buy one book," when they mean "I must buy a book," the change in order would have been worth-

while. It might also be of use to teach "some" as the plural of "a" rather than along with the other indefinite determiners, as is usually done. It might help in resolving the problem of the difference between "a" and "one" in English. Thus, the instruction on this point could begin with sentences of this type:

The girls might need some books.
Sue should have a notebook that she can carry.
I will buy the book that my friends must read.

A third change of order in syntax presentation which might be helpful is related to the teaching of the direction of modification. English, like most other languages of the world, has both progressive and regressive modification. It is true that English has a much more full-blown pre-nominal system of modification than some languages, but it also has a plentiful number of types of post-nominal modifiers as well. My suggestion would be to introduce the post-nominal modifiers first, then the single adjectives and other single-word modifiers which in general occur before nominals in English sentences. For example, locative prepositional phrases, relative clauses, and even complex participial constructions, and infinitive constructions tend to present few problems to ESL students, occurring as they do in a manner quite similar to many other languages. If single-word pre-nominal modifiers of noun phrases were delayed awhile, perhaps they would present fewer problems.

Another change of syntax ordering should prove helpful in teaching those prepositions or particles which have a penchant for attaching themselves semantically to the verbs preceding them, such as "turn in," "try on," "look over," "run down," "talk to," "dream of," etc. Since one researcher discovered fifteen hundred of these semantic units in modern English, it would seem that students of ESL ought to master a sizable number of them. Presently textbook writers tend to introduce them at the intermediate level, and as a verb plus a preposition or adverb which by some rather mystical process become united. It would seem wiser to start the use of these combinations in the very early lessons, not getting involved with the analysis of the makeup of the combinations, as interesting as that may be at the competence level of learning.

If modals are used in the first part of a beginning text, it would not be a difficult problem to start teaching these semantic units almost from the very first, using such sentences as "I will turn in my notes," "We must turn on the lights," and "Bill should look over his lesson again." Even more complicated units,

such as "put up with," or "get along with" could be introduced relatively early rather than delaying them for a more analytical treatment later.

Prepositions in general do not seem easy for foreign students to master, especially in their distribution with certain case uses of nouns in English. At present the instructional procedures used in textbooks, regardless of what order is used, do not lead to mastery of them for good performance in the use of English. Perhaps some day the theories of case grammar will make clear what the ordering of prepositions used to introduce noun constructions should be. There must be a better way to teach prepositions, and perhaps a change in the order of presentation is the answer.

Making one change as radical as starting a text with sentences using modals implies delaying the presentation of many other items. Several have been mentioned, such as the delay of tense, number, and person. Others which might be profitably delayed are the use of the auxiliaries: be, have, and do. This would also force the delay of progressive and perfect forms and all questions which are not formed with a modal.

Teaching questions first with modals is especially attractive as in this way the students learn in a very simple form the underlying ingredient of English questions—the reversal in position of the subject and the first word of the verb phrase. The large number of questions starting with a form of "do" stem from an exception to the general rule for questions, and certainly should be delayed until the students have mastered the basic rules for creating questions.

Also to support the syntax, it might be well to teach important final consonants and clusters before some of the initial consonants are taught. For example, it might be much more productive for the student to learn to say "owns" before he learns to say its homophonous mirror, "snow"; or to say "treats" before he is taught to say "street".

Some text writers ignore stress and intonation patterns almost completely until the end of the elementary lessons, if they treat them at all. A few books, however, encourage students to learn the intonation contours of sentences, and the stress patterns of polysyllabic words right from the start, and it would seem well for the sake of both receptive and productive performance to do more of this.

It should be stressed that the innovations recommended in this paper are not just for the mere sake of change, or as an effort to break loose from tradition. Rather, they are made with the hope of improving students' performance in the English language.   4/78

AN ECLECTIC METHOD?

By John F. Haskell

Many changes are taking place in language education today—as always—and there are many newcomers to the field who might appreciate a defining of terms. The following is an overview of English language teaching methodology with some general conclusions of a somewhat 'eclectic' nature.

I. Grammar-translation Method

The Grammar-translation method, sometimes called the "traditional" method, consisted of the following basic tenets:

A. Read, then translate (into the student's native language).

B. Learn, (often, "copy into your notebook"), the rules (again, in the student's native language).

C. Memorize (lists of) vocabulary items and their meanings (in the student's native language).

D. Write sentences (in the target language) using the memorized rules and vocabulary.

E. Read 'good' literature, (no matter how stylistically or grammatically complex or archaic), history, and other aspects of the target language culture.

Note: Foreign Language (FL) education, using this method did not generally intend to produce "speakers" of the language, only provide the broad, liberal arts education necessary to produce a "well educated person" (who could read a foreign language). FL education was usually limited to those entering or in college. ESL (EFL) taught with the grammar-translation method was meant to be for language replacement rather than addition. Students were placed in regular English classes and expected to swim or sink, learn or leave.

Until W.W. I, bilingual education (education in languages other than English) was common in the U.S. Anti-foreign attitudes during the first half of this century were reflected in such diverse ways as the closing of German schools, the placement of Japanese-Americans into camps, and the delay of Hawaiian statehood until 1959.

II. The Direct Method

As an approach to language teaching, the direct method was "ahead of its time." Devised by Gouin at the end of the nineteenth century and all but abandoned in the twentieth century except for a few stalwarts such as Harold Palmer, Otto Jesperson, and Emile de Sauze, who held on until the thirties.

The basic elements of the direct method are:

A. Exclusive use of the target language in the classroom. No translation or use of the students' language.

B. Step by step progression of material—generally from easy to difficult.

C. Meaningful exercises, i.e. meaningful use of the language.

De Sauze, in the 1920's added:

D. Early use of writing.

E. Student self-correction of errors (mistakes). Students need to understand their errors.

F. Explicit formation of rules.

Note: Interestingly enough, most methodologies or approaches to language teaching that have developed in the twentieth century reflect the basic tenets of the direct method, in whole or in part—as you will see below.

III. The Audio-lingual or Aural-Oral Method

The 1940's saw a growing need for "other" language speakers both in the armed services and in the field of diplomacy, and at the same time there was a growing need to deal with the influx of foreign scholars that thronged into U.S. universities as European universities were closed by the war. Linguists Kenneth Pike, Charles Fries, and others, long experienced in working with American Indian languages and Bible translation, helped to develop an A-L (Audio-lingual) approach to language teaching. A.L. methodology was the result of a "resurrection" of the direct method and the influence of structural linguistics and behavioral psychology.

Structural linguistics said (1) natural language learning occurs first through listening, then speaking, and then reading and writing. (2) Language is made up of three systems; phonology (sounds), morphology (word formation), and syntax (the arrangement of words in sentences) and these systems work exclusive of meaning. (3) Language appropriateness is determined by usage and not by prescription (the rules culled from grammar books and based on principles of written language). (4) All languages are different and unique (contrastive analysis). (5) Language (that is used) is constantly changing.

Behavioral-psychology learning theory (as advanced by B. F. Skinner, among others) said that language was a conditioned habit, and that language learning was a mechanical process of stimulus-response strengthened by reinforcement of correct responses (behavior modification).

Sociology (and politics) still championed the "melting pot" theory and pedagogy (education) viewed English language learning by immigrants as language (and culture) replacement.

The resulting methodology consisted of:

A. Exclusive use of the target language.

B. Step-by-step progression of materials based on linguistic sequencing.

C. Use of language comparison (contrastive analysis) to "predict" error.

D. Mim-Mem (mimicry/imitation and memorization).

E. Mastery of language systems (in pronunciation classes, grammar classes, reading classes, conversation classes, and writing/composition classes). Structures and rules learned by example, demonstration not formulation, analogy rather than analysis.

F. Use of mechanical drilling to teach production and discrimination (choral and individual drills, substitution, transformation and completion drills, etc.) Emphasis on question/answer (stimulus-response) type teaching.

G. Vocabulary building deferred until "intermediate" stage. Strict vocabulary control at beginning stages; emphasis on words with regular spelling and pronunciation, and high in frequency, to reduce interference with mastery of structure.

H. Emphasis on speaking.

I. Use of language laboratories to provide practice.

J. Emphasis on language as communication rather than translation.

Note: The "classical" approaches to the A-L method are represented by such methods, as (1) the Michigan Method, which came directly from Fries and Lado and the University of Michigan and was developed primarily for college level students. (2) The Army Method, which also came out of the University of Michigan and is now used at the Defense Language Institute and was aimed at intensive language learning for military and diplomatic personnel. (3) And the Berlitz Method, which is the best known of the commercial adaptations of the A-L method, directed at people traveling overseas.

IV. Transition

In the late 1950's and early 1960's structural linguistics came under attack by Noam Chomsky and others (as did behavioral psychology). Developmental learning theory and the growth of the ESL teaching profession (TESOL) with its humanistic approach to teaching/learning produced many changes in second language teaching practices. Support for these changes was based upon research in a variety of fields.

A. In linguistics, Chomsky stated: (1) Language is innate (a product of a thinking brain and not habit formation).

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(2) Language is rule governed behavior. (3) "Correctness" is determined by the users of the language and is based on understanding (i.e., meaning cannot be separated from language.) (4) All languages have "universals" or similarities (e.g. processes or elements in their basic systems). (5) Surface grammar (what we see, say and hear) is only a manifestation of deep grammar (the meaning, rules, and processes which we use to produce language). (6) Our language competence (*our ability* to use language) is not always accurately reflected in our performance (*how* we use the language).

B. Cognitive-mentalist psychology (as opposed to the behaviorists) states: (1) Language learning is the result of active brain utilization, not passive response to outside stimulus. (2) Child acquisition of language is reflective of, shows parallels to the developmental stages of his physical growth. (3) All children, whatever their language, go through similar stages and apply similar strategies in language acquisition.

C. In sociology: (1) studies in dialectology, particularly "Black English", brought new insights and emphasis on language variety (*non-standard* as opposed to *substandard*). (2) Bilingual education studies indicated the need for affective modes in education (understanding the emotional needs of children).

D. Pedagogy: (1) prompted by the Supreme Court (Lau vs Nichols) finally found a legal (if not moral) justification for at least a 'transitional' bilingual/bicultural language program for non-English speaking students. (2) Studies in 'second language acquisition' showed the use of similar strategies and developmental patterns to those used in first language acquisition. (3) There was a re-emergence of bilingual education with emphasis (as a result of such programs as the Hawaii English Program and Black English studies) on language as an additive process rather than a replacement one. (4) Emphasis on individualization. (5) Growing (but still faint) concern for training, certification, and full-time employment of adult education, ESL, and bilingual teachers.

V. Variations on a Theme

A number of new approaches to second language teaching have come into being as a result, I think, of many teachers feeling that the basic A-L approach (as defined above) is somehow neither as affective or effective as it might be. As research and new thinking have provided new information about language acquisition, language learning, and learning in general, the A-L approach has been modified and often given new names to emphasize the major thrust of the modification (or the name of the author). The best progress has been made thanks to sensitive, thinking, trained teachers whose common sense and experience have provided us with new techniques and approaches. Below are some of the new/old methodologies (and non-methods). They are all basically direct method and audio-lingual in approach (with the exception of Counseling-Learning) and in large part are influenced by the cognitive-affective (humanistic and developmental) psychology and pedagogy of today.

A. Total Physical Response. Sometimes the *Asher* method. Utilizes extended periods of listening and following commands before speaking. Students learn by physically performing actions based first on commands of the teacher and then by commands from other students.

B. Aural Approach. The aural approach of *Winitz and Reed* asks the beginning language student to first listen to the teacher (or tape recorder). The only overt behavior is selecting pictures indicated in each utterance. Speaking occurs after basic grammar and vocabulary are learned. *Joan Morley* also suggests early and extensive listening but utilizes written response.

C. St. Cloud. Sometimes called the *CREDIF* Method or the *Audio-visual* method. Students are encouraged to speak by means of situations as presented by firm and filmstrips.

D. Suggestopedia. Also called *Suggestology* or the *Lazanov* method. Uses non-verbal elements (tone of voice, music, facial gestures) as major factors of communication. Learning is in a comfortable 'living-room' type of situation. Students listen to learn.

E. The Silent Way or *Gattegno* method. The teacher supplies a minimal amount of oral support and information. Student is required to "work it out" for himself. Visual stimulation by rods and charts and later, reading materials. No mechanical drilling of any kind. Emphasis on a 'feeling' for the language.

F. Situational Reinforcement. Lessons using language (patterns, vocabulary) from situations which are reinforced by the reality of the situation itself. Situation dialogues and realia used.

G. Modular Learning (or learning modules). Units (or modules) of lessons in some general sequence of difficulty of language, revolving around a single topic or theme, and encouraging a variety of patterns and structures in each lesson, reused and reinforced in succeeding lessons. Emphasis on realistic dialogue and topics of interest to the learner.

H. Pragmatics. The suggestion that emphasis in language teaching should be on linguistic forms in situational settings, recognizing that they are inseparable.

I. Counseling-Learning. Also called *Community Language Learning*. Student centered approach with the teacher acting as a counselor or mediator at the beginning and gradually becoming a part of the language-learning group (community). Language based on what the student wants to say. Translation used in initial stages (student says what he wants to say and the teacher/counselor/mediator shows him how to say it in the target language) until student feels comfortable and capable of initiating or responding by himself.

Note: A number of other terms have been used of late with reference to method, technique or approach to language learning, teaching, or program planning. They are part and parcel of present day language teaching. (1) *Individualization.* An approach to classroom organization, which emphasizes individual differences and the need to deal with each student as a separate individual. (2) *Sector Analysis.* A linguistic approach to language that emphasises the manupulation of various elements in a sentence (connectives, nouns, substitute words, X-words Wh-words, etc.) and a recognition of the variety of slots. Stress on student being able to identify elements before being asked to use them. (3) *Error Analysis:* Suggests a variety of causes of error (besides language interference) such as poor teaching and poor learning strategies, and language fossilization. (4) *Cognitive approach.* The acceptance that the student is a thinking human being who brings knowledge about language to his learning situation and also brings human experience and an innate learning ability. (5) *Communicative Competence.* A term, much in vogue of late, from a theory of language learning suggested by Dell Hymes. Perhaps similar in importance, in present language learning/teaching pedagogy, and to the same extent that Chomsky's theory of language (linguistics) is. Although the term is used indiscriminantly in almost all new materials and in all discussions and evaluations of materials, most writers and speakers seem to be referring to that manifestation of communication

which reflects our interest in the child as a human being. Piaget's developmental levels, Currans' whole learner concept, non-verbal communication, and a renewed interest in culture as a component of language learning. Perhaps its current popularity reflects our need for a comfortable cover term for the changes occurring in language teaching/learning practice—one that feels more comfortable than, say, eclectic.

VI. An Eclectic Method?

An eclectic *methodology* (or approach) is one which utilizes the best (most appropriate and/or useful) parts of existing *methods*. There is the danger in eclecticism, of creating a Frankenstein monster rather than a Cinderella. The use of the term "an eclectic method" suggests, in one sense, the need for a single, best, method to follow. It also suggests an inability to *be* eclectic.

As in the "pragmatic" approach of Oller and the "ethnomethodology" which Eskey finds appealing, there is a growing awareness among ESL teachers of the need to be concerned with teaching "appropriate" use of language. If not an eclectic *method*, then, perhaps we can come to terms with some general principles or attitudes, some conclusions that can be drawn from current research and thinking in the field.

A. Language learning must be meaningful, real.

B. Translation is a specialized language skill and is inappropriate for the beginning language learner (and most teachers) to rely on as a method of learning. It is a crutch that, though immediately useful, becomes harder and harder to throw away the longer it is used. As used in Counseling-Learning, it may be a useful tool in establishing an initial basis for comfortable communication.

C. Language learning should be done in the target language.

D. Mimicry, memorization, and pattern practice do not "teach" language. They may sometimes be appropriate techniques for a variety of classroom needs but are in general disfavor because of their mechanical (meaningless) nature, their overuse by teachers, and their tendency to be stilted and boring.

E. Reading aloud (oral reading) while useful during the decoding stage (when students, new to the English alphabet, are learning to associate letters and words with already learned language), does not teach reading. It is not useful as a tool for correcting pronunciation, and in fact, inhibits good reading skills acquisition. It promotes word reading (not useful in reading nor accurate for conversational pronunciation) and does not allow for normal regressions in

reading; nor facilitate comprehension.

F. Vocabulary acquisition, the use of a large and varied vocabulary, should come early. Vocabulary should be dealt with in meaningful contexts. Retention is not required of all new items; but continuous, appropriate usage is encouraged. Lists of words promote translation and are another crutch that is hard to get rid of, eg., multiplication tables; days of the week.

G. Reading and writing should not be delayed but taught as soon as the student is ready. Spelling interference is not felt to be the problem it once was.

H. Although structure is still generally accepted as being most efficiently taught in some organized way, language acquisition (developmental) strategies should be taken into consideration rather than exclusively linguistic ones. Teachers need not insist upon mastery of one pattern before moving on to another, nor the presentation of one item at a time, but should provide ample opportunity for reinforcement and continuous use of all patterns and structures in meaningful real contexts.

I. Most student errors are not caused by language interference (less than 10 percent according to Burt and Dulay and then, mostly in the area of pronunciation.) Learning strategies, incorrectly applied, are the cause of some 67 percent of student error. Attention should be placed on the regularities and the universals of language rather than on differences.

J. The first step in any class/program should be to determine what the student needs (and perhaps, more importantly, wants) to learn.

K. Second language students bring a great deal of experience and knowledge about language to their learning situation. Language learning is facilitated by helping the student relate to his own experience.

L. Communicative competence suggests that appropriateness and utility are crucial variables in language acquisition (and language learning must consider such things as non-verbal communication, kinesics, culture, stress, rhythm, intonation, and vowel reduction).

M. Language learning will not occur unless the student is able, wants to, makes a personal committment to learn. In whatever way you measure or define motivation, it will be the students choice and decision that determines his language learning success. The expectation of the teacher and the program, and the support of the "community" will greatly influence that decision.

Note: As Larry Anger suggests, language learning can and should be enjoyable. Darlene Larson likes to quote Benjamin Franklin on education and I think it is an appropriate maxim to con-

clude with. "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn."   4/78

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NOTES FROM DONALD KNAPP'S TALK ON READING

By Anna Maria Malkoç

I. Problems in the Teaching of Reading

1. Uncertainties and misconceptions con-cerning reading comprehension:

Meaning. We are not clear on what we mean by "comprehension" and how we can measure it. Do we mean the ability to answer comprehension ques-tions? Can a person who reads answer questions so that others can understand the answers? The problem here is that most of these questions measure recall, not comprehension. We can, for example, recall what we don't understand, and vice versa. Can we measure any kind of questions? Does this indicate compre-hension? No, it shows we don't have a firm idea of "comprehension".

Writer's intent. Do we approach read-ing comprehension by looking for the exact understanding of what the writer intended? This allows the reader to sepa-rate main points from extraneous points, filter off the points that are not central. The problem here, however, is: What is the writer's intention? This makes scor-ing for comprehension difficult because it is subjective.

Reader's intent. Putting more emphasis and greater attention on the reader, we can ask: What was the reader's inten-tion or purpose when he or she began the reading, and are these expectations fulfilled?

Even here, though, we must consider that perhaps the reader's feelings, pur-pose or intention may change during the reading. Any account of comprehension must consider that we are not all in agreement when we say: I read that with medium comprehension. So many inter-pretations of "comprehension" are pos-sible: there is no really clear conception of reading or its testing.

2. Inadequate classroom techniques for teaching reading.

We are becoming more concerned with the development of reading material than developing the student's reading skill. We assign reading tasks and then ask questions to test comprehension. Does this really develop reading skills? Stu-dents may learn to read anyway, but are we really teaching reading skills? This is more like a kind of exposure with very little focused teaching.

3. Reading teachers and students have little understanding of the psychology of reading skills.

Students may be able to read strings of words, but this is not reading. Teach-ers may teach phonics, but this also is not a suitable approach to use with our students.

II. Some Solutions to Reading Problems

There are some revolutionary thinkers in reading field, Frank Smith and Ken-neth Goodman, to name two outstanding people. Their articles appear in such pub-lications as the Reading Teacher and Reading Research Quarterly.

1. The process of reading involves de-riving meaning from the written lan-guage. Only in the earliest stages does the reader first recognize individual words, then decode them into meaning. Very early on, the reader learns to decode di-rectly; he doesn't have time to make phonic forms, but puts it back into phonic, oral, form after decoding. At this point the reader is reading with compre-hension.

2. Cultural relevance in reading and comprehension: What governs a reader's comprehension? Personal experience, feel-ings, expectations. A key factor in read-ing comprehension is hypothesis forma-tion.

Good comprehension comes from the fact that most materials are well-written and that most readers are good hypothe-sizers. All of this is based on culture. To illustrate: a speaker (or writer) intro-duces the phrase "southern woman de-cends the staircase." The audience (or reader) may immediately picture how she is dressed—in a long white dress, and what kind of staircase it is—carved wooden spiral, etc. Or given the phrase "a boy walking down a country road," we probably picture a boy dressed in blue jeans or overalls, wearing a straw hat, accompanied by a dog, and so on.

As we read along, we have expecta-tions and we continually create literally thousands of hypotheses, confirming them or making new ones. Someone from an-other culture, however, reading the same material would not be creating these same hypotheses; they are all culture-bound. We are influenced in our reading by our cultural pre-conceptions.

3. Some suggested activities to develop hypotheses formation:

A. Bread-and-Butter. Select a number of pairs of words in common usage that are usually thought of as "pairs". Give the first word in the pair and ask the class to supply the second word.

B. Reading and stopping. Choose a reading passage designed to stimulate the students' interest. Read a portion (or have the class read it silently), stopping at critical points to ask: What would happen next in the story if this were taking place in your country?

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C. Children's stories. Select stories that are based on redundant elements: "Chicken Little," "The Gingerbread Man", "The Little Red Hen," are some. Such stories are often used very successfully to develop reading skills because of their repetitive features.

III. Questions from the Audience

1. What can students do to help themselves?

Get them to read in English about their own culture. In so doing, their hypotheses are being confirmed as they read along, and they understand everything but the words. Culture shock sets in when the student's or newcomer's hypotheses, expectations, are *not* confirmed, especially when this happens over and over again to the point of not being able to cope. Therefore, the reading material for new readers should not be too full of strange words and concepts.

2. What about using a "dictionary"?

If a dictionary is being used too much the material is too difficult. Not that *all* words have to be understood—we read in English (that is, in our own language), and don't understand every word always. But the students need to make a "psychological jump" to gain self confidence in order to read along on their own in their new language.

3. What about "redundancy" in English?

Adding redundant features is helpful. If a sentence is too difficult, we tend to add synonyms or to cut the sentence shorter. But using paraphrasing and apposition is a much better tactic. This semantic redundancy helps in gathering and expanding meaning.

4. How useful is "oral reading" for students?

Only for diagnostic purposes, or for declamatory reading—for recitation or memorization of the Declaration of Independence, for example. Or if the *teacher* reads orally, this can be useful for modeling pronunciation and phrasing. But there are many reasons *not* to have the students read orally: First, it forces students to read every word. Whereas, to be good readers, they must learn not to do this but to read in much larger chunks.

Listening to fellow students reading is boring.

Oral reading is much more difficult than silent reading.

The British approach, as at Summerhill School, is good, very successful. On the elementary level, the teacher reads to pupils and they sit around and listen, their talk.

5. What about "culture block" in heterogeneous classes using scientific/technical materials?

The students need to be *interested*. To help them develop their reading skills, select materials that have content they are already familiar with, a basic text in their own field, for example.   *TN 6/78*

FANSELOW TALKS AT FALL GET-TOGETHER

By Cathe Tansey

As teachers we all know how important feedback is. It tells us when to stop and when to continue, when to guide students in one direction and when to prevent them from going in another. Feedback is an essential tool for both the teacher and the student. But have you ever stopped to analyse what feedback is, and how it affects you or your students?

John Fanselow, Assoc. Professor of Language Arts and Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, led us in an examination of the source, medium, use and content of feedback at the annual MATSOL fall get-together. We discussed what feedback is, who or what conveys it, and how it is conveyed. The purpose of this examination was to encourage us to be more effective teachers and learners and to urge us to consciously vary and shape the ways we give feedback.

Although teachers and students are the most obvious sources of feedback, Dr. Fanselow pointed out that objects are another common source of feedback. An example of this can be found in a cafeteria in the shape of a spigot on a coffee urn. When the spigot is pressed too hard, coffee splashes on the unwary victim. In this instance it would have been superfluous to tell the victim that s he had done something foolish because the spigot had a more effective way of presenting this information.

In conveying the message, there are numerous linguistic, non-linguistic and para-linguistic ways of doing so. There are oral or written responses, gestures, sounds, facial expressions or tone of voice. As teachers, we should be aware of the forms feedback assumes because students do not always choose the most conventional ways of showing their comprehension. In fact, according to Dr. Fanselow, student feedback to teacher is often non-linguistic, involving a quizzical eye expression or a change in seating position. Furthermore, we should experiment with the different media to see which ones are more effective for particular persons or situations.

Before providing feedback, the teacher should focus on the reason for giving it. Is the purpose of feedback to evaluate a student's performance, illustrate a problem, stimulate a discussion or merely correct an error? Feed-

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back is flexible enough to be used for any number of reasons.

The last aspect which Dr. Fanselow covered was the message or the content of feedback. We should decide if our message will be positive or negative or simply informational. In addition, we should realize that some students do not need positive or negative feedback because they are their own best monitors. Next, we should be careful that the message is consistent with the means which is used to present it. A sharp rebuke or a high tone of voice may not convey the true message we really want to give to the student.

By studying, discussing and experimenting with feedback, we can become more aware of the uses and limitations of this tool. If teachers become more sensitive to the source, means, purpose and content of feedback, we could work towards increased effective communication not only in the classroom, but also outside it.　　　　*TN* 6/78

"BUT HOW CAN YOU TEACH THEM ENGLISH IF YOU DON'T SPEAK THEIR LANGUAGE . . ."

As a teacher of ESL to adults, have you ever heard this question from people at a party, from your family, from other ESL teachers? Along the same line, the following questions are often heard: "What materials do you have for Chinese speakers, for Polish speakers, for Spanish speakers?" "Do you have any bilingual materials?" "Do you have anything that will help me learn some Chinese, some Polish, some Spanish?"

Under certain circumstances, these might be valid questions and concerns while under others, these types of questions should be of least concern. All this is really linked to the question of the use of translation and/or the students' native language in ESL class, a controversial topic in our field. In fact, if you're giving a presentation or workshop and want blood pressures to rise, eyes to widen or close, and teeth to grit, just say something like, "Translation has no place in an adult ESL class". You'll surely get a mixed reaction but you *will* get a reaction.

Let's address the issue in terms of local adult ESL classes, i.e., classes composed of limited or non-English speaking adults whose primary need is the development of listening and speaking skills in English, adults living in an English dominant environment where if you want to 'play the game', get, keep and progress in a job commensurate with your skills and abilities; and assure yourself of mobility, then you've got to do it in English. This isn't the English as a foreign language situation, i.e., foreign students in an American college who intend to return to their country (or so they tell the INS), or the overseas EFL setting, usually with a homogeneous group who aren't living or working in an English speaking environment and whose primary goal isn't mastery of spoken English.

Before looking at the pros and cons of translation, it should be strongly emphasized that there is one situation in which translation or the use of the student's first language is definitely out—a class composed of students who speak different languages, e.g., two Chinese speakers, three French speakers, two Polish speakers, and 15 Spanish speakers. Unless you are able to translate for *everyone*, it should not be done at all. The mere existence of a majority of speakers of one particular language gives no one the right to cater to one group and discriminate against those whose native language the teacher doesn't speak. Not only is this pedagogically unsound, it is simply rude. If it seems preposterous that this type of teaching exists, be assured that it does.

Now, you say, "But I have a bilingual aide who is a great help. What now?" If the bilingual aide is working only with the group whose first language s/he speaks, then the use of translation would be acceptable in that small individualized group setting, but not if the aide were working with the entire class.

Having discussed translation in the heterogeneous class, here are some of the advantages and disadvantages of using translation in a homogeneous class of adult ESL students. The list is by no means complete.

Some Advantages: Translation:

—can save time in explaining concepts like "lucky" and idioms like "I can't take it anymore."

—can help build rapport between teacher and class, especially if your foreign language isn't the greatest.

—can help students who enter the course late to catch up with the others, especially in vocabulary and grammatical explanations.

—makes teacher preparation easier, especially for Mondays.

—can clarify grammatical explanations for those who have a grasp of grammar in their first language.

—can help to clarify differences in similar words, e.g., chubby, fat.

—can be an immediate and quick test of students comprehension.

—gives the *teacher* practice in using the students' first language (especially good for teachers planning a vacation abroad or those who majored in a foreign language but never learned to speak it).

—can reassure those students who feel the need to understand everything.

—can make some students more comfortable because that's the way they studied English in their country.

Some Disadvantages: Translation:

—is impossible for some words.

—can cause students to become involved in too much contrastive analysis, thereby delaying the ability to *think* in English and sometimes focusing on the differences between the two languages.

—affords some students the opportunity to ask too many inappropriate questions about grammar.

—can shift the focus of the class from English to the correctness of teachers performance in their language.

—can foster discussion of correctness of the native language and even animosity in cases of dialectal differences.

—encourages some teachers to teach the book and nothing else (the best ESL materials are seldom in a bilingual format; they're appropriate for all students).

—may encourage teachers to prepare for class by making sure they can translate every word and structure if necessary. A more valuable use of time would be experimenting with and perfecting ESL techniques.

—can become a crutch, even a roadblock, in learning English. Many will expect it of you all the time.

—means they really don't have to *listen* to your English because a translation is expected. If it doesn't come, they'll be put out with *you*.

—often means that the class ends up talking ABOUT the language and not IN the language.

—can assure you that the students understand a word but in no way guarantees that they can use it when they need it in context.

—takes away from the time that *students* should be speaking in English. For some, the ESL class may be the only time they really have an opportunity to speak it in a protected environment.

—may discourage and frustrate some students who know that they haven't come to hear their native language spoken, that they desparately need to be able to understand and speak English, and need all the help and practice they can get.

Obviously, there are valid advantages and disadvantages in using translation just as there are pros and cons in every approach and method. However, putting aside teacher conveniences and time savers, what is it your students need most? Do they need to understand every vocabulary item and structure and to be able to recite rules or do they need to be able to protect and defend themselves and market their skills in English in order to upgrade employment and become more productive members of society?   TN 6/78

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PUBLICATIONS

TEAL Occasional Papers 1978. Volume II. A collection of articles reflecting the variety and scope of ESL in British Columbia, including: Measuring Listening Comprehension, Techniques for Introducing the Newspaper to ESL Students, Cross Cultural Counselling, Writing as Self Discovery, and more. Send orders to TEAL Occasional Papers, c/o M. Sawhns, Vancouver Community College, V.E.C., 2750 Oak St., Vancouver, B.C. V6H 3N2 (cost $2.50 plus 45 postage).

LOOKING FORWARD TO TESOL '79

"What about the Symphony?" and Faneuil Hall?" and a "Clambake?" "What's going to be at the theatre?" "the Ballet?" "The Museum?"

The first meeting of the local committee for TESOL '79 saw twenty-five enthusiastic Bostonians offering to plan as many extra-conventioneer activities as TESOL'ers could possibly fit into their busy professional schedules next February 27-March 4. Caroline Banks and her subcommittee are carefully researching everyone's favorite restaurants to prepare a guide which will ensure that you have a chance to sample the variety that is Boston, whether your pleasure is inexpensive ethnic or patrician posh. Meanwhile, Bambi Zimmerman and Cecilia Soriano-Bresnahan are negotiating with various cultural institutions in the city to get the best seats to the most exciting events which will be here at the time of the convention.

And, although Boston may not be a tropical paradise in early March, don't forget to bring your bathing suits; the Sheraton-Boston, our headquarters hotel, has a luxurious indoor swimming pool where you can relax with friends between conference sessions. Also without going outside, you will be able to shop (along with the hotel such stores as Saks Fifth Avenue, Lord and Taylor, and Brentano's are located within the covered mall), have a snack, or go to the top of the Prudential Tower for a view of all Boston. Only a short subway ride away are Harvard Square and Boston's museums and one short block from the hotel is Boston's famous Newbury Street (art galleries, restaurants, and shops).

Don't forget to leave time to visit some of Boston's bilingual and ESL programs; trips are planned to adult education centers, colleges, and public schools. Amy Leaberg and Raffael DeCruittola, local co-chairpersons, have already received several requests and suggestions for additional activities; if you have any, send them along and we will try to arrange for them.

ADULT- LANGUAGE LEARNING VARIABLES THAT AFFECT EFFICIENT INSTRUCTION

By David Liston
Smithsonian Institute

With the coming of "cultural pluralism", shifts of educational perspective, and the larger age span of adult education, the need for adult language teaching has grown rapidly in this country. We teach adults in high school and college, in English and foreign language classes. We teach language to foreigners and immigrants, military people, people in government programs, businessmen, public clerks, scientists, doctors and nurses, shopkeepers, and government representatives. The adult language teacher is reaching out to borrow from many disciplines to teach adults a language more effectively.

Language teaching is traditionally based on a child-learning model because most people learn their language in their early years, before puberty. The adult, it is commonly believed, learns similarly. But child and adult differ greatly, and the traditional methodology for teaching children is not appropriate for adults. The adult, for example, usually learns a second language as an adult, with greater difficulty and conscious effort. An adult teaching/learning strategy needs to identify particular adult language learning factors that operate specifically for adults. With such a set of factors the adult language teacher could deal with adult learner needs and identify characteristics in those factors which would aid in finding appropriate methodology for successful adult language teaching.

Over the last ten years contributors to language learning journals have identified a number of adult language learning variables that influence the speed and success of second language learning in adults. These variables are listed below. Teachers can use these variables by evaluating their particular teaching needs, finding strengths and weaknesses of their present methodology, and planning approaches that might bring more effectiveness to the teaching/learning situation. A good flexibility of methods, then, is a great asset for the teacher if the needs of the learners are to be adequately dealt with.

About half of the variables identified are fixed characteristics of the learner present in varying degrees in the learning situation. As significant variables for language learning, the teacher should be interested in applying them to determine to what degree the learning situa-

tion is affected. The teacher can reinforce these learner-determined variables through the use of confidence, counselling, and praising in the classroom.

The other half of these variables are attitudinal and situational according to the learning circumstance. As such, the teacher has more ability to determine them and can manipulate them more easily to effect a successful teaching/learning situation. It must be clear that the teaching/learning situation is more dependent on the learning portion, and the teaching portion is more adaptive for successful instruction.

The personality variables of the learner are the most widely-ranging and probably the most influential to the teaching situation, especially when there are negative aspects present. The more prominently displayed the need for learning a new language is in the classroom, for example, the more conscientious and efficient becomes the teaching/learning experience. Even minor changes in confidence and self-assurance greatly alter performance in a second language. Underlying these, the will to learn (and change), and persevere to succeed, are variables that, when low, disrupt the situation simply by having little desire to continue learning be a negative influence.

All these variables have been found to be relevant to successful teaching of languages to adults in one circumstance or another. Some, or all, may apply to another circumstance. Also, these variables are subject to further definition, extension, and investigation. The pursuit of effective teaching begins with perceptive, critical analysis of need and circumstances. To reach the learner, a judicious use of flexibility to match need and method that fulfills that need is effective. By reviewing the adult language learning variables below, the teacher should have better success and control in evaluating the adult language learner's needs and selecting an appropriate method of instruction.

Student-genetic-biologic

a specific intelligence and learning capacity
brain patterns using logic, categorization and analogy
maturation and fixation of first-language usage
a maturing self concept
a need for meaningfulness
a need to communicate

Experiential

a maturing adult perspective and feeling of responsibility
a functional first-language ability
a need for the practical and the timely

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country. They come from such faraway places as Laos, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, France, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Chile, the Ukraine, and Spain. Some of the families are here as political refugees, others as new immigrants, and still others because their parents are university students.

Whatever their reason for being in the United States, the children are at McCall School to learn English.

Besides being a regular elementary school, McCall has housed ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) classes for over 30 years, because of its central location and close proximity to historical sites. Presently there are six classes of 150 students ranging in age from 5-18. This enables families to be at the same school and allows for some movement within the program according to level of English. I teach the youngest group.

We start every morning sitting in a circle where we sing songs about the weather, seasons, holidays, health habits, animals, and you name it, which I teach by rote. Then we practice saying such sentences as "I'm Mali. I like to sing", (dance, draw, run, jump). I use pictures to help explain the actions. Later the children will draw their own pictures and I write what it is on their papers.

After a short time I introduce more difficult structures such as "I like to go to the movies". (store, library, doctor, dentist). I also teach negative sentences such as "I don't like to go to the store", (doctor, dentist, movies). I also use objects such as toy trucks, cars, trains, balls, dolls, pencils, books, etc. to teach "It's a car." "It's a blue car." "It's a yellow bus." "Give me the yellow bus." "Give me the yellow pencil." The students repeat these and soon go on to questions such as: "Is it a yellow bus, or a blue bus?", "Is it a big car or a little car?" which they ask each other. Still later we practice short dialogues.

Many funny incidents happen on the way to mastery of English. One day I told my students I'd bring in a screen I'd bought in Singapore. Before I'd finished speaking one child shouted "Ice cream, ice cream, I love ice cream". She was very disappointed to see just a screen.

Every day I read stories to the students. After 1½ months of school many students have internalized enough oral English to retell the stories. I don't ask factual questions. I say "Who can tell me the story?" "Why did you like the story?", "What's the best part?" Some of our favorite stories are "I Wish I Could", "Fortunately, Unfortunately", and "Stand Back, said the Elephant, I'm going to sneeze". Not only do the

students retell the stories but they inspire the students to write their own, for example, "'Stand Back', said the Elephant, I'm Going to Sneeze'" became "What Happens When You Sneeze?" Each child dictated a sentence such as:

"When I sneeze the houses fall down," said Yiola.

"When I sneeze the leaves fall down," said Foua.

I write the sentences on the board and later xerox them. Although some children can barely read their own responses, many can read every sentence.

This year in particular I was very fortunate to have a student teacher who was fluent in French and Spanish. I also have other help with my class, including a Parkway volunteer, a parent volunteer, who is bi-lingual, and two students from Temple's Team Program. These wonderful people help the students with their individual problems in speech, fluency, answering questions, reading, and writing.

On Halloween, I took my students to the store, where each child selected a pumpkin which was taken back to school and painted. The students took them home and introduced their families to pumpkins. Many later told me they washed off the paint and made "jack-o-lanterns". The students used a great deal of English during this holiday, i.e., practicing buying the pumpkins, telling me what they did with the pumpkins, and how much their families liked them. We also practiced dialogues about masks, games, costumes, and the Halloween party.

We had our own Thanksgiving Feast in the classroom on the day before Thanksgiving. I gave small groups of students word cards with a food or utensil written on them. With our volunteers, off we went to the supermarket to find and purchase turkeyroll, popcorn, nuts, cranberry sauce, pumpkin pie, paper plates, forks, spoons, cups, napkins, and orange juice. Then we came back to school, became pilgrims and Indians and enjoyed "Our First Thanksgiving". When I think of how much English the children used during these activities the financial cost becomes minimal.

A trip to the zoo also lends itself to language acquisition. In preparing the students for the trip I read them stories about the zoo. I show them large colored pictures of zoo animals and three dimensional animals, which I identify. For example: "This is a lion." "The lion is yellow." "The lion roars." "The lion lives in Africa." The students repeat these sentences and then move on to asking and answering questions such as: "Is this a lion or a tiger?" "Is this a big lion or a little lion?" "Lions live in Africa don't they?" At the zoo the stu-

dents identify the animals. Back at school the students draw pictures and talk about them. The students compose oral stories, which I later write down and also tape record. The students love to hear themselves, so now we record everything.

Although my students are in an all day ESOL program, they are integrated with the other McCall students for gym, recess, lunch, and assembly. Assemblies are great fun and are held in the kindergarten room where I lead all the children in songs, dances, poems, and circle games.

Being an ESOL teacher, I've discovered, is not a Monday to Friday job. Since I'm probably the closest American friend the children have, I'm invited to everything. I spend many weekends at weddings, feasts, funerals, and holiday celebrations. Recently I became godmother to a Vietnamese student, learned belly dancing at the home of a Lebanese student, and attended the Laotian (Hmong people) New Year Celebration. All of which makes my life fuller, more interesting, and intensifies my desire to remain an ESOL teacher forever.

ADULT LL VARIABLES

Educationally-experiential

a preference for formal approaches
first/second language (and usually cultural) educational experiences and preferences
situational/sequential preference for ordering materials
deductive/inductive preference for learning

Situational-language-specific

first/second language (and usually cultural) differences and degree of difference
positive and negative language and culture transfer
prestige, acceptability, pressure, and demand on first and second language and dialects used
academic first-language proficiency
America monolingually, monoculturally oriented by tradition

Educational-specific

class format
class composition and size
teacher's role in class

Attitudinal-personality variables

motivation and need for learning
self-assurance and confidence
perseverance and will to continue
functional learning/memory/study skills

AN OVERSEAS VIEW OF 'SCIENTIFIC ENGLISH'

By John and Mary Ann Boyd
Illinois State University

English for science? English for medicine? English for auto mechanics? Currently many ESL practitioners have been advancing the thesis that English should be taught for 'special purposes.' A student's time they believe is too valuable to waste in learning 'general' English but rather an attempt should be made to teach the particular language that a student needs.

Can English be fragmented in this manner? Can one teach or learn a specialized version of English to the exclusion of other more general features? Is there indeed such a discrete entity as 'scientific English'? This was the question debated within the pages of the *ELI Monthly* (the journal of the English Language Institute of the University of Petroleum and Minerals in Saudi Arabia) for a period of several months during 1976-77. The lengthy debate was recently summarized in the May 1978 issue and what follows is a condensation of that article that seems appropriate here.

The debate was sparked by an article in the *ELI Monthly* from Arthur Godman of Cambridge, an authority in the field of English for Science and Technology. Godman began by commending those who combine the two objectives of learning language and understanding science at one and the same time. He concluded however that "the logical outcome would be an English course based solely on usage in scientific English." Thus he advanced the concept that 'scientific English' was different enough to be able to stand alone outside the broader framework of the 'general' English used in day-to-day communication.

The response to this concept over many months and by several writers was unanimous in the outright denial of Godman's thesis; i.e., that 'scientific English' is somehow different from 'general' English. Writing in an issue two months later, Mr. Abd Rabboh, a teacher in a Libyan university, wrote that, "Mr. Godman's proposal to dispense with general English and give the students a thorough-going course in scientific English supposes the existence of a special brand of English. . . . There is no such thing as scientific English."

Reference was made to an earlier study by Daniel Deegan of the Institute who concluded that one had to "avoid abstractions about, and indeed the very concept of 'scientific English.' At best the term is a shorthand for certain features of the language frequently occurring in the context of discourse about scientific topics; it does not represent a discrete linguistic entity in itself."

Each succeeding letter further refuted any suggestion that 'scientific English' was substantially different from 'general' English—the only peculiarly scientific elements identified were the specialist vocabularies of the different sciences and the straight-forward, impersonal prose style of scientific writing.

A rebuttal from a different perspective was offered by Michael Collins of the ELI staff. After analyzing the language of science lectures offered at the University covering a broad range of topics from beginning through senior level, he reported "scientists do not talk like the popular idea of a scientist all the time. The need for communication forces the science teacher to explain difficult or unfamiliar terms and concepts by reference to everyday examples in everyday language and this is the kind of language he uses most of the time." He concluded that "the necessity for clear explanation, involving example, analogy, etc. is one of the reasons why science lectures contain a large helping of 'general' non-specialist language. A grasp of 'general' language seems to be a prerequisite for understanding scientific terminology."

Thus success in learning science would seem to spring from the ability to understand and communicate in 'general' English. This thought was echoed by staff member Robert Majuc in his comment that "our students will be discouraged if after one year (of Institute classes) they cannot carry on a 'general' conversation. Here in Saudi Arabia one is constantly in contact with English-speaking foreigners and one's English cannot be limited to the dry stuff of scientific papers." If communicative ability is seen to be the essential element to be gained in a country where English is a foreign language how much more is it the case within the United States where English is being studied as a second language and the need to communicate in English is a daily, survival occurrence. To provide students with a fragmented part of the language is to rob them of the opportunity to truly communicate.

And students desire to communicate —not as scientist to scientist but as person to person. "We are teaching English *to* scientists, we are not teaching English *for* science" emphatically stated *ELI Monthly* editor Graham Donald in his 'Diary.' The need to remain continually aware of that distinction was further emphasized by a quotation from Dr. Abdul Aziz Al-Fadda (the Vice-Chancellor of Riyadh University) who stated that "the alarming fact is that ninety percent of graduates from schools of engineering at Saudi universities are abandoning the profession for business, commerce, management or administration." The implication is clear. If we as teachers limit our students' language growth through an arbitrary splintering of the language into specialized entities to the exclusion of a wider familiarity with the language, we restrict their options to move from one career field to another or even to move up within a more restricted career choice.

How do these conclusions then mesh with ongoing efforts at Teaching English for particular careers? Is there therefore no place for vocational ESL programs? Are books designed to teach a specialized English of no value? The answer to these questions is provided at the conclusion of the *Monthly's* article. After having denied the existence of 'scientific English' as a discrete discipline and after having stated that the needs of the students require a knowledge of 'general' English, the editors close by taking a position espousing a synthesis. The repudiation of 'scientific English' to the contrary, they state that there nevertheless does remain the particular vocabulary of science which can effectively be introduced to the ESL student in the language class. If "the fact is that the structure of 'scientific English' is the structure of modern expository prose" then expository prose, preferably with a scientific content, can and should also be dealt with by the English teacher of science students.

Therefore, a teacher wishing to meet the needs of his students would do well to incorporate the vocabulary and the relevant structures of the students' chosen career vocation into the ESL course. The key word would seem to be 'incorporate.' Those identifiable features of English for any special purpose should be included in but not dominate a total course that has as its goal the growth in the 'general' English that is the basis for all communication.

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VIETNAMESE CHILDREN IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS: BRIDGING THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL BARRIER

by Binh Huu Pham

American teachers of Vietnamese children in American schools should acquaint themselves with some important language and cultural differences these children bring with them into the classroom. Flexibility and empathy on the part of the teacher will help the children make necessary cultural and academic adjustments as they change from a teacher-oriented classroom to a pupil-oriented atmosphere. Some suggestions for accomplishing this follow.

Most Vietnamese children who already have some knowledge of English will understand written English much better than spoken English. In Vietnam students study a foreign language (either French or English) from grade 6 through grade 12 with the emphasis on reading and writing.

These children can be made to feel at home and lose some of their shyness if the teacher shows a firm but friendly attitude. The teacher should not press the children to speak except for short utterances until they develop more self-confidence in their oral use of English.

The teacher should call a child by his or her given name. Example: Nguyen Van Kien. Kein is the given name. Nguyen is the family name.

In Asian society in general, the sexes are separated. At least in the first few weeks of school in the United States, the teacher should not assign the children to work with members of the opposite sex. At the secondary level it would be well to remember that it may take some time for the newly arrived Vietnamese student to accept the practice of members of the same sex showering together in common showering facilities. This would be shocking and unheard of in Vietnam.

Like most other children around the world, Vietnamese children are linguistically flexible and culturally adaptable. A teacher who makes an effort to understand Vietnamese cultural values and concepts and the Vietnamese attitudes toward education which Vietnamese children bring with them will be well-equipped to help them adjust to the sometimes contrasting American value system.

The Vietnamese child and the American teacher will both be the better for this experience.

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THE FOUR PHASES OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

By Gerald D. Kanson

The following information is a historical overview of significant events concerning the bilingual education in the United States. It records its humble beginnings since 1839 and the different phases it has undergone until the present. And then it narrows down to the specifics with regard to its status in the State of Illinois.

Phase I (1839-1923)

Empirical evidence from the study of people's languages and cultures in the United States strongly suggests that America's melting pot concept is not universally verifiable. Ethnic groups comprising the U.S.A. have had linguistic-cultural education in their native origin. For example, as early as 1839 there already existed some form of bilingual education in a Cincinnati community wherein a large majority of the population was German-speaking. To their dismay, the first-generation German settlers considered America's common schools inferior to those they had known in Germany. As a result, private parochial German schools were established in order to inculcate that superior brand of education from the mother country and also to preserve their ethnic culture, language and tradition for their offsprings. Such schools competed successfully with the public schools for almost a decade despite the fact that parents of such students had to pay both tuition fees and school taxes.

However, in 1840 Ohio passed a law providing tax monies to attract German children into the public schools wherein the German culture and language were also taught. This law made it "the duty

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of the Board of Trustees and Visitors of Common Schools to provide a number of German schools under duly qualified teachers for the instruction of those youths who desire to learn the German language or the German and English languages, together." That same year the city of Cincinnati was mandated by law to introduce German instruction in the grade schools as an optional subject and thus may be credited with having formally initiated the bilingual education program in the U.S.A. This program lasted until 1917.

Other cities like Dayton (1844), Baltimore (1874), and Indianapolis (1882) created programs modeled after the Cincinnati project. In fact, there exists some fragmentary data that suggests that bilingual education benefited at least a million American children who received part of their education in German and part of it in English.

Other states that welcomed bilingual education into their schools were Missouri and Colorado in 1887. The state of Oregon passed a law as early as 1872 permitting German public schools. The German-Americans lobbied for the support of their bilingual education programs and tremendously benefitted from them.

However, some years later Louisville, St. Louis and St. Paul created a storm among America's German population by dropping their bilingual programs, thus weakening German-American life. This was followed by restricting the teaching of German only to the upper grades in the public schools. This trend marked the anti-German movement in education that broadened itself into an anti-foreign sentimentalism. This motivated legislation geared towards the prohibition of teaching languages other than English in all schools, public or non-public, day schools or supplementary, to pupils below grades eight and nine.

However, a 1923 Supreme Court decision in Meyer & Nebraska case declared such legislation as unconstitutional. This proved to be a historic decision in favor of all minority groups on American soil that endeavored to uphold the language of their forefathers.

Phase II (1920-1958)

The bilingual education program, often only a language program, was rarely integrated into either the philosophy or the practice of the school or of society. Its fate, therefore, was contingent upon political pressure. For example, the program during this period depended on the German members of a community, instead of reflecting a shared conviction

by English-speaking and German-speaking alike that all children stood to benefit from an instruction in two languages.

Consequently, bilingual education (as defined above) disappeared from the American scene by 1920. Ironically, World War II (1941) revived it. The Armed Forces developed techniques of teaching foreign languages in a bilingual setting. This brought about a training program that paved the way towards the creation of the 1958 National Defense Education Act, a precursor to the modern bilingual education.

Phase III (1963-1971)

The first bilingual program in modern times was piloted in the Coral Way School in Dade County, Miami, Florida in September 1963. Counting on public and private foundation funds, this program successfully responded to the needs of children from newly-arrived Cuban parents who were refugees from the Castro takeover. The state of New Mexico launched also in this period an interdisciplinary bilingual education program. This was followed by the United Consolidated Independent School District in Webb County, Laredo, Texas, by the San Antonio School District in Austin, Texas; and a dozen others who replicated the program in 1964. By 1967, 21 states had bilingual education programs concerned with Spanish, French, and Portuguese languages.

Realizing the necessity for such an education, Senator Yarborough from Texas introduced a bill on January 17, 1967 putting such programs on an official basis. He chaired a Special Sub-Committee on Bilingual Education to hold hearings during May, June, July 1967 in various parts of the Country. With President Johnson's backing, the Office of Education established the Mexican-American Affairs Unit on July 1, 1967 to lobby in support of the bill. Congressman Scheuer of New York amended it to include all non-English speaking children from the different ethnic groups: placing emphasis on teacher training, development of materials, and pilot projects. This bill was signed into law on January 1968 and is now known as Title VII, the Bilingual Education Act.

In 1968-1970 the Migrant Program of the Michigan Department of Education created a bilingual education program with both interdisciplinary and linguistic development activities.

It was also in 1968 that Mabel Wilson Richardson reported that a bilingual education program was effective for both English and Spanish-speaking subjects in achieving progress in the language arts and arithmetic in the regular curriculum.

Following the Yarborough program,

Massachusetts became the first state, in December 1971, to offer mandatory bilingual education programs for non-English speaking pupils.

The intent of the Title VII law is to use bilingual education as an approach that brings together three distinct elements, namely, bilingualism, bicultural education, and curriculum.

Phase IV (1970-1976)

As an example of how states implemented bilingual programs, under the state of Illinois Bilingual Education Act, bilingual centers were funded in 1970 to provide such an education for the state's non-English speaking pupils. State funds to expand this program are presently provided through Senate Bill 1157.

In June 1973 the Spanish-Speaking People's Study Commission initiated the introduction of House Bill 1223. This established a Department of Transitional Bilingual Education in the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. It further established that every child in the state of Illinois be provided with an educational program relevant to his developmental level and cultural heritage.

In September 1973 this bill was signed into law for implementation in 1974. Academic years 1974-75 and 1975-76 were to be transitional years to close the gap between voluntary programs involving a minority of needy students and mandated programs enrolling most of them. Beginning in July 1976 bilingual education is mandated by this law for all attendance centers enrolling 20 or more limited—or non-English speaking students of the same language background.

Conclusion

The point about the American melting pot is that it did not happen. The fact is that in every generation, throughout the history of the American Republic, the merging of the varying streams of population, differentiated from one another by origin, religion, and outlook, has seemed to lie just ahead, a generation perhaps in the future. This continual deferral of the final "integration" of different ethnic ingredients suggests that we must now search for some systematic and general course of action for the American pattern of sub-nationalities. It is time that the diversity of American cultures was recognized and channeled more conscientiously into a creative force. Bilingual education is moving towards that direction.

Its expansion is slow for it is a reflection of the economic recession in which we find ourselves; although we must also remember the limitations represented by the Bilingual Education Act. It is designed "to meet the special educational needs of children of limited English-

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speaking ability in school districts having a high concentration of such children from families with income below $3,000." In view of these limitations the U.S. Office of Education has tried especially to encourage exemplary demonstration programs, but so far without much success.

The obstacles to success are indeed formidable. Perhaps the greatest of these is the doubt in many communities that the maintenance of non-English languages is desirable. It has not yet been demonstrated that a Latino child can become literate in English best by first learning or becoming literate in Spanish. To resolve this doubt in the public mind we shall need to mobilize all available resources behind a few really convincing demonstrations.

Still another massive obstacle is the education of bilingual teachers. Teacher-preparing institutions are only beginning to become aware that new and better programs are urgently needed to educate qualified teachers in the numbers required.

The achievement of truly exemplary bilingual programs will not be easy. As we have seen, many communities are by no means convinced of the desirability of linguistic and cultural pluralism. Even those that are, are handicapped by the lack of adequately qualified teachers and other personnel, by the shortage of adequate materials, by inadequate evaluation methods and instruments, and by a lack of collaboration between school and community. Most important of all is the gathering of social data in the planning of such programs.

Finally, to predict that a bilingual education program in the United States will succeed would depend on its quality of teacher training and commitment to its philosophy. For it is a source of pride, a focus of initial loyalties and integrations from which broader loyalties and wider integrations can proceed. If the proponents of this program fail to achieve a newer and higher level of workmanship, we may expect this exciting trend in our schools to languish and fade away as have so many other hopeful educational ideas in the past.

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TEACHING STANDARD ENGLISH TO DIALECT SPEAKERS—THIS IS ESL, TOO

By Susan Kulick
Jane Addams V.H.S., N.Y.C

During the past few years a non-traditional kind of student has been entering the ESL classroom. These young people already speak non-Standard English fluently and imaginatively, but lack a command of the Standard dialect which has been the cause of a great deal of reading and writing interference. On our equally-weighted Spanish and English tests of linguistic dominance (L.A.B.), these students have been scoring below the competence level in both languages.

Such students have no difficulty in communicating with peers in both English and Spanish, yet are having academic problems in both. These problems arise from their dialect's interference with the structure, conceptual framework, grammar and vocabulary of the Standard English and Spanish. Yet these students are often sophisticated young persons who are neither amused nor motivated by standard ESL texts and approaches. They are often bored by the subject content and generally slower pace of the ESL classroom, and yet often benefit from more time on a particular structure than the traditional student since things must be unlearned before they can be relearned. Also, these students are often belligerent at being placed in the same class as students with an overt non-native command of English.

What to do? Generally speaking, there should be a dual ESL and NLA (Native Language Arts) approach because the student is often speaking both an alternative brand of English and a creolization of his native language as well. However, as an ESL teacher, my suggestions are geared towards the ESL component.

During the past few years I have developed a list of guidelines based, in part, upon error analysis, and, in part, on my own observations. I vary my approach to them and add to them year by year. I place the students involved in the most advanced ESL class so that they don't feel out of place in terms of verbal fluency with the rest of the class. Basically, I've stressed the following:

1. Consonant-cluster distinguishing

This includes hearing and distinguishing between such pairs as: guess/guest; tan/tank; car/card; heart/hearts; study/studying; walk/walked; quick/quickly. The surface structure meaning of the sound should be taught as well, i.e., that the sounds of -ed signify past tense,

or that the word an signals that the sound that follows will begin with a vowel sound, or that the s signals plural or possessive at the end of a word.

Many of our students systematically slur or don't pronounce the final sounds of words and are unaware of the link between morphemes and meaning. This should be stressed.

2. Vocabulary expansion

The language of these students is very generalistic and undifferentiated and it is hard for them to describe specific things, ideas or people with any degree of specificity or concreteness as they lack the vocabulary.

I usually approach a vocabulary lesson by centering it around one idea or place, and teaching very concrete and descriptive vocabulary to fit that one situation. For example, during one lesson we studied words such as: arched eyebrows, cupid's-bow lips, high cheekbones, heart-shaped face, pursed lips, heavy eyelids, etc. Then I passed out pictures from magazines and each student had to write a paragraph specifically describing the picture that she had. Then, each paragraph was read and the class tried to match the description to the collected pictures. The next day we reviewed the vocabulary again and each student used it to describe her neighbor. The next day each student described a "mystery student" in the classroom, and we had to guess who was being described.

3. Specific syntactic structures

A. Difference between "would" and "will".

B. Use of past and perfect tenses.

C. Subjunctive.

D. Uses of "was" and "were".

E. Uses of "do", "does", and "did" in statements and questions.

F. Adverbs and adjectives.

G. Differences in usages of words from the same root—i.e., quick, quickly; quickness; quickening, quicken.

H. Meaning-bearing conjunctions—This includes words such as: since, therefore, because, hence, thus, and, so, unless, although, so, and consequently. It is important that the student realize the meaning constraints that the use of these words place upon sentence meaning: i.e., I will do it unless it rains.

4. Spelling

I don't use traditional lists. I use the students' spelling errors from their own paragraphs and compositions.

5. Other concepts to stress

A. Recognition that you, as the teacher, are trying to provide the students with an alternative dialect to use when it best benefits the situation, and that you are not casting aspersions upon their own speech. Realistically speaking there are times when the use of Standard English would benefit dialect speakers in a generally Standard English speaking country. These circumstances should be discussed, and role-playing techniques used to illustrate the discussion.

B. Geography—concepts of city, state, country and continent should be taught. Also, different religions, outlooks and cultures should be used as subject matter in drills and stories used to teach grammar and writing. Many of the students are very immersed in their own culture and welcome the opportunity to learn about and appreciate others. Much student intolerance comes from fear of the unknown rather than knowledge of it and this is particularly true of dialect speaking students whose contact with other cultural groups in our society may be very limited.

C. Pride of culture—contributions of second-generation French, Chinese, Spanish, German and Hawaiian Americans, etc.

D. The use of local transportation, and the glories of other parts of the city than their own. In New York City I develop many lessons with reading the intracacies of subway and bus maps included in reading paragraphs.

These ideas which I have mentioned are among those which I've tried; they are the methods I had to develop because I could find no texts that specifically helped bilingual dialect speaking high school students and adults. Doing intensive error analysis of written work, listening to students grapple with Standard English and writing down the major difficulties they encountered, and realizing that much student inadequacy to master curriculum is caused by vocabulary limitation were among the contributing methods to my data collection. I hope my suggestions, combined with your experience and student dialect problems (my students are all Hispanic,) will prove of value. TN 9/78

5

SUGGESTIVE LANGUAGE

By Brooks Shearer

"SUGGESTOPEDIA" is yet another way to learn a foreign language in a month. The process has been invented by a Bulgarian scientist, Dr. Georgi Lozanov, who is the founder and director of the world's only Institute of Suggestology. This is a state-supported research organisation, where he and his staff of 45 specialists study the power of suggestion and experiment with ways to improve memory.

The principle of "suggestopedia," the name Lozanov gives to the practice of suggestology, is to expand the individual's mental capacity. Tone of voice, facial gestures and music are used, because Lozanov believes that non-verbal "suggestive" factors are of great importance in teaching and learning. He believes in "humanising" the learning environment. "This can be done by music, soft lights, the personality and manner of the teacher, comfortable pleasant facilities in the classroom and the method of instruction itself," he explains.

The typical Lozanov classroom is like a comfortable living room. *The teacher reads a lesson dialogue in an expressive way accompanied by theatrical gestures* and the students repeat sentences after him, occasionally breaking into Bulgarian to ask a question. This finished, the teacher sits back in his armchair and closes his eyes. The students do the same and Vivaldi wafts softly into the room.

While the students recline in their armchairs, trying to empty their minds and listen only to the music, *the teacher re-reads* the same lesson, this time to the rhythm of the classical music. A few minutes later, he stands and his class joins him in a few stretching exercises. He then *reads the lesson once more and the class is over for the day.*

Sessions like these continue four hours a day, six days a week. There is no homework. Lozanov claims that within a month, students with no prior knowledge of the language will have learned 2,000 to 3,000 words and have a good enough grasp of the grammar to use them in conversation. Western experts who have visited his institute support his claim.

Lozanov's claims go further than merely teaching a language quickly. "After a working day my students feel better than when they began. They are not at all tired," enthuses Lozanov. He tests his pupils with a battery of equipment such as oscilloscopes, and electro-cardiograph instruments. "Physiologically speaking, they are more fit after their lessons than before." His work is backed by hard cash from the Bulgarian Government, which is putting up money for a new building for the Institute.

4/78

SITUATIONAL REINFORCEMENT

By Eugene Hall

Situational Reinforcement is an approach to language learning which makes language meaningful from the beginning by using and practicing the material in situations which the students can understand without difficulty. Not only is vocabulary presented in this way, but so also is structure. Because the material is arranged according to the situations, structures are presented in clusters instead of one by one. This means that:

1) various structures occur over and over again in different situational contexts;

2) there is a continuous review of the structures in a process of gradual familiarization;

3) the student can begin to analogize and to generate his own sentences from the beginning when the context is slightly varied.

It will help the teacher to use this material more effectively if he keeps in mind two concepts about language and the language learning process:

The first is that language is a total experience. Learning a language is a process of gradual familiarization with all of its parts through real communication rather than a process of assembling isolated fragments through drill on out-of-context material. A native speaker of English, for example, does not wait to learn the passive until he's five years old; he learns to understand and use it a little bit at a time from his first experience with the language.

The second is that language is a system for creating and understanding completely new utterances rather than a fixed body of material to be "got through." The language learning process then becomes one of internalizing phonology, structures, and vocabulary by analogy until original utterances can be generated.

The frame of reference for the situations is the classroom, the obvious choice for a beginning student. The situations are those to which the student can re-spond on a direct stimulus-response basis. This is the first spiral, so to speak, in mastering language.

There are some general points that the teacher should keep in mind:

1) The student should always be reacting to the situation, not to a memorized question-and-response frame. When the teacher has been able to fuse situational reaction and correct response, he has been completely successful.

2) Because of the importance of reacting to the situation, it is necessary to time the question and response. It may be better, for example, to use *walk around the table* than *walk to the door* if the students are slow in responding.

3) It is often necessary for the teacher to prompt the students to get the correct response. It is preferable to do the prompting sooner than later. Trying to force the student to say something that is not in him is a quick way to destroy motivation.

4) The teacher will also have to correct the students often, both for pronunciation and for structure. If the mistake is a particularly bad one, the teacher should reinforce the correction by stopping the practice and using choral repetition. Correcting mistakes is a vital part of any language teaching system, but it is particularly important for SR since we feel that it is more effective than stopping to do drills out-of-context.

5) A conventionally well-disciplined class, with everybody silently awaiting his turn to be called on, is almost certainly a bad SR class. In a good SR class the students should be eager to respond and to help each other. It is recommended that the teacher not call on students in any fixed order but at random.

6) The goal of each lesson is to have the students themselves do the complete sequence, both questions and responses, with the teacher only prompting and correcting. The students should also be able to do the sequences with alternate items, either those suggested in the text or others that have been presented on the teacher's initiative.

7) The further one gets into the material, the more often the possibility of variations from the text will occur. If the student gives a variant response which is possible within the situation, it is not wrong and should not be corrected. The students, in other words, should be taught to use language as communication, not to memorize the text.

4/78

PRAGMATICS

By Ronald Yaubitz
ACHNA, Madrid, Spain

The purpose of this paper is to show that in both America and Europe emphasis has shifted from concern for language as such to concern for language as manifested in a communicative context in a particular situation. In one sense, then, interest has moved almost full circle from the situational or direct methods of the 1920's and 1930's through audiolingualism and cognitive-code theories to contextualization and realistic communication. Two popular exponents of these latter persuasions are John Oller in the United States and L. G. Alexander in England; both have made the transition from earlier, more narrowly linguistic positions to broader-based theories. It is important to trace this change in their positions and the reasons which helped bring it about so that language teachers everywhere can begin reexamining their own approaches to TEFL in the light of these developments.

In an article entitled, "Transformational Grammar, Pragmatics and Language Teaching," (*English Teaching Forum*, March-April, 1971) John Oller expressed his dissatisfaction not only with audiolingualism (pattern drills and the mechanical manipulation of language in the classroom) but also with mentalism (transformational theory and its derivative cognitive-code applications). In both cases, the "false assumption that language is a self-contained formal calculus" (Oller:8) underlies the theories and leads to the notion that language is isolated, "unrelated to the communicative contexts" in which it is normally used. Oller summarizes his argument by noting that "transformational theory incorrectly assumes that language is a self-contained system and can be understood by asking the question: 'How do sentences and other units of language relate to each other?' Without a doubt this question is important, but it leaves the following more significant question masked: 'How are the sentences and other units of language used to convey information?'" (Oller:8)

Oller defines his alternative view of language as "pragmatics," which he defines as "the correspondence of linguistic forms to situational settings," or in question form, "how does linguistic form relate to contexts?" To illustrate his meaning, Oller quotes a humorous anecdote from the book *Pragmatics of Communication* (Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson, 1967:20): "In a fenced-in grassy field near a rural house, a bearded man is creeping around in figure-eights looking back over his shoulder and 'quacking' without interruption (quack, quack, quack). A curious crowd of passersby begins to form at the fence. One man with a look of horror runs off to a phone booth to call for the men in white. The man engaged in the bizarre quacking behavior is Konrad Lorenz, the famous ethologist. Far from being insane, he is performing an experiment in which he has substituted himself for the mother of the little ducklings who are following him, hidden in the tall grass, out of sight of the curious crowd."

The point of the story should be immediately evident, "if we want to understand the basis of complex behavior, we must consider the context in which it occurs." The language learner, then, must go beyond such purely linguistic considerations as phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon and consider the situation in which the language act takes place if he is to be able to decode and properly encode information. And the language teacher must be able to present linguistic structures in meaningful contexts "that observe normal sequences of events" and that permit the students to work first from ideas, concepts, or notions that they want to communicate to linguistic forms in the target language.

L. G. Alexander, in an article in the *English Language Teaching Journal* (January, 1976) entitled "Where Do We Go From Here? A Reconsideration of Some Basic Assumptions Affecting Course Design," presented some thoughts of his own on recent developments in language theory which parallel those of Oller in important ways, although Alexander takes as his point of departure the structural syllabus found in most language courses that employ audiolingual and audio-visual techniques. As Alexander sees it, "the framework adopted in virtually every up-to-date language course is a structural one. Structural or linear grading, as it is often called, is the embodiment of the cumulative experience of language teachers. It is based on steps which are ordered in terms of apparent increasing difficulty. For instance, most language courses begin with *be* + *noun/adjective* combinations, proceeding to *have/have got* + *noun/adjective* combinations and then on to the present continuous, the simple present, the simple past, and so on."

Alexander finds three main weaknesses to the structural syllabus, which he uses to introduce an alternative approach which is called a functional syllabus. The first weakness is that each lesson is focussed on some particular grammatical point, often without reference to its practical application in a real situation. (Oller would agree "completely.") The second weakness is the reliance on both high and low frequency grammatical items, some of which have little or no practical value. (Oller would no doubt agree again.) The third weakness results in the students' not being made aware of "the stylistic register and the kind of language that is really appropriate to a given situation." (Oller would certainly agree here as well.) At this point Alexander would have language teachers ask themselves "what the student wishes to do through language, that is, which functions he wishes to perform." (Alexander:92) Alexander is prepared to reconcile the structural syllabus with a functional syllabus having six general categories of functions: imparting and seeking factual information, expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes, expressing and finding out emotional relations, expressing and finding out moral attitudes, getting things done, and socializing. The emphasis on this hybrid syllabus would not be on the grammatical items, but rather on the functions represented through the grammar.

Oller defined "pragmatics" as "the correspondence of linguistic forms to situational settings." Alexander noted that "the presentation of language in situational dialogues is as old as formalized language-teaching itself, and has served as the only effective antidote to the surfeit of tedious mechanistic drilling" (Alexander:95) used by some teachers. But beyond the refinements of audio-visual presentation and grammatical contextualization, "the technique has not been further developed." Oller's pragmatics, then, appears to be a restatement and justification of a well-established approach to language teaching, while Alexander's position appears to pick up where Oller's leaves off and introduce a greater refinement of the practical needs of the students in a variety of real-life situations.

The important point, however, is the emphasis which both Oller and Alexander place on the practical requirements of the language learner and his basic need to communicate and understand ideas, feelings, etc. for a variety of reasons. Language teachers should be aware of this change of emphasis and reexamine their own approaches, incorporating some of the insights described above where needed. 4/73

PUBLICATIONS

17

THE UTILITY OF ORAL READING IN TEACHING ESL

By Donald Knapp, Temple University

Should we use Oral Reading to teach "reading" to our ESL students? It is an interesting question to consider, since oral reading is an area in which the recommendations of specialists (in reading psychology and TESL) clash with the wide consensus of teaching practice.

Most teachers in early or intermediate level ESL classes use oral reading, students reading out loud to the teacher or other students, as a major technique for teaching reading. Almost all primary grade teachers use oral reading in their ESL or bilingual ESL classes to teach reading. But most specialists oppose oral reading as a practice to teach reading in elementary school or in beginning and intermediate levels of ESL. They approve of the teacher reading aloud and the students following along in their books, but they feel it is a bad teaching practice to have students read aloud to the class, bad for them to read aloud at all, except in a few special situations.

There are many reasons why teachers use oral reading, some good, some not so good:

(1) It gives the student an opportunity to have immediate feedback from the teacher.
(2) It involves everyone in the same activity (perhaps more useful for those moments when everything is going to pieces).
(3) It supplies the teacher with an identifiable role, how s he can be helpful, it gives a basis for praise or criticism.
(4) It can give the student a basis for a feeling of confidence, offering the shy, reticent student a task that can be performed with self-assurance.
(5) It allows the student to "show off" his accomplishments, encouraging practice at home, even though it may be a false sense of reading ability.
(6) It can be used as a diagnostic test, a basis for error (miscue) analysis, and inferentially used to evaluate comprehension.
(7) Is a way to "share" the printed content (disseminate information, enjoy the essence of a passage, appreciate a play, a dialogue, or a poem, to "tell" a story to children or someone otherwise unable to read to himself).
(8) And, admittedly, teachers do use oral reading on occasion to "impress visitors" and "because everyone else does it", and because, in most instances, students expect it and enjoy it.

What is Reading

But what students think reading is and what teachers think reading is are not necessarily the same. Word-calling is not reading. Reading is a meaning-gathering activity. Sophisticated readers do not read every word, but they comprehend the meaning of the passage. Three processes are involved in reading: (1) making a correspondence between symbol and sound, (2) getting meaning from the context, and (3) getting meaning from the sentence structure.

In oral reading, every word must be read. In oral reading, intonation, pitch, stress, juncture, and expression are important. At worst, the oral reader must look at each letter and sound out the word. The oral reader often becomes so preoccupied with and frustrated by these mechanics that the meaning of the passage is lost. The reading deteriorates to word-calling and the reading rate grinds to a halt . . . not to mention the boredom and suffering of classmates who must follow along.

In proficient silent reading, written symbols are put directly into meaning. Only absolute beginners decode written symbols to oral symbols and then, only when necessary for special purposes, to meaning. Good readers should decode written symbols to meaning and then to oral symbols. The essence of the reading process is deriving meaning from written language, not from the oral counterpart of the written language.

Making Predictions

The reader is directly involved in making predictions while reading. S/he makes guesses that may, or may not, be confirmed. For example, "The cowboy got down from his horse and led his   ." What comes next? Did he lead his horse to the barn? That is the answer that one might have predicted. But the sentence actually reads "The cowboy got down from his horse and led his girlfriend to the bar", the unconfirmed guess would cause the reader to do a 'double-take', to regress, to go back a few words. Good readers do regress in silent reading as they make large-scale guesses, based on context: lexical, syntactical, informational. However, good readers regress less and correct better than poor readers. In the special circumstances of a student reading to a teacher trained in miscue analysis, a student's "mistakes" and his/her very awareness that he needs to make correction are important in helping him improve his reading skills. Ordinary teacher correction doesn't help the student learn the reading process; it just pushes the student along. The self correcting of miscues is associated with superior readers. Silent reading gives practice in making guesses and in self-correction when necessary.

Decoding and Performance

True reading is actually silent reading. Oral reading is a school exercise that emphasizes word-calling to the detriment of meaning. Students say just what is on the page rather than what the passage means. Oral reading emphasizes the application of the mechanical aspects of reading and is, therefore, not a good teaching practice, generally speaking. Reading experts accept the fact that at the very early decoding stage, the transference of oral skills to visual symbol, oral reading is a good check of the process. They agree that on an individual basis, (the student reading alone with the teacher), oral reading may be used for diagnosis (miscue analysis) and they suggest that oral reading otherwise is best reserved for performance. It is hard to think of a reason, other than performance, that a person would have to read aloud.

There is no reason to ignore performance, especially when students enjoy it. But it requires special skills, "story telling", acting, or declamatory skills, if you will. And it is best done with a great deal of practice, repeatedly reading the same piece. Often the pronunciation, since it is symbol oriented, is different from normal conversational pronunciation.

Reading Skills

But the skills one wants a student to acquire in 'reading' are silent skills; skimming, reading for information, reading to understand, reading that requires the ability to take large chunks (rather than individual words) and process them internally. Reading is a process that allows for regressions and hypothesizing.

Oral reading is not a skill that is often used by students outside the classroom. Oral reading in the classroom may be a conventional practice and may even be enjoyable to the students for a variety of reasons including the students occasional pleasure in performing. But the teacher must be cautioned that oral reading is not usually a useful goal in the ESL class; it may actually be harmful to the development of good reading habits. Students and teachers should not equate students ability to read orally with the real objectives of reading instruction: reading efficiently for understanding and meaning.   TN 6/78

HELP A FRIEND LEARN ENGLISH

By Lilian Butovsky

Ministry of Culture and Recreation
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A pilot program was organized to evaluate the usefulness of the phrase book as a self-study tool. Eighty students participated in a three-month program. Each student was given a phrase book, the seven cassettes and an explanation of the purpose of the program and how they could help. A spot survey of the students was made during the first two months and a complete one in the last month. The findings confirmed something already suspected. The ability to benefit from this kind of self-study hinged on the strength of motivation, and on an adequate learning experience to guide and help. Although no testing was undertaken, each student was contacted and asked to give his personal evaluation. Eight students completed the book and expressed great satisfaction. Twenty-one students completed Part 1 and some sections in Part 2: they expressed satisfaction but with reservations. Their zeal and enthusiasm seemed to diminish in direct proportion to the problems they were not able to resolve without help. The remaining students struggled through Part 1 and then became apologetic drop-outs.

The message was quite clear. A book, cassettes and a desire to learn English were not enough. This realization produced a follow-up program. The approach chosen was the provision of bilingual lesson leaflets and the recruitment of English-speaking telephone tutors. This approach was chosen to remove, or at least minimise, the very real obstacles to learning faced by very many newcomers to Canada.

Very briefly, the Lesson Leaflets attempt to present E.S.L. instruction in bite-size pieces. Each leaflet contains the student's work for one week, divided into four 15 minute sessions. DAY 1 is a preparation session: the student is asked to read and try to understand the material he will be practising with his telephone tutor. DAY 2 is the oral practise session by phone with his English-speaking friend. DAY 3 is devoted to reading brief explanations of essential grammar and pronunciation points. DAY 4 the student is asked to practise the material taught by providing him with graded exercises.

There are 35 Lesson Leaflets plus a test leaflet after every fourth lesson. Each leaflet tries to isolate a common situation in which a newcomer would need English to communicate in an adequate way. The situation is presented

in a cartoon illustrated dialogue format. The student is encouraged to make full use of the phrase book by practising with his English speaking friend the phrases in the book which deal with the situation contained in the lesson. The lesson leaflets also tell the student where to look in the grammar and pronunciation chapters if he wants more information about the structure or sound being explained. Notional phrases pertinent to the situation, or certain aspects of it, are introduced and practised and every leaflet tries to persuade the student to practise what he has learned with his friend as a guide.

The name of the program is "Help a friend learn English". The name was chosen to give a little push towards multicultural understanding. We hope that the program will promote this, and at the same time go some way to meeting and solving the problems confronting the adult language-learner, problems which prevent him from making the progress he deserves.   TX 9/78

TEACHING BEGINNING READING IN ESL, BILINGUAL AND ADULT LITERACY CLASSES THROUGH LANGUAGE EXEPERIENCE

By John F. Haskell
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Like so many good ideas from other fields, the Language Experience Approach (LEA) for teaching beginning reading, which comes from the elementary language arts area, lies virtually unused and untried by most ESL, bilingual and literacy teachers. When I bring up the idea to a group of ESL teachers (in my best Moses-from-the-mountain manner), the immediate, and unfortunately, often sustained, response is either (a) if they are elementary school trained, "Oh, I already know about that." (though it is still unused in their classes), or (b) "You see, it proves that oral reading is valid after all." (obviously missing the point both of LEA and the criticisms of oral reading).

The Language Experience Approach was first suggested by Roach Van Allen, in part, as a means of teaching reading (decoding) skills to native English speaking children. It has been discussed at various TESOL meetings by such ESL and Reading specialists as Stanley Levenson and Pat Rigg (see bibliography below). According to Van Allen, Language Experience is based on the following:

A. What a student can does think about, he can talk about;

B. What a student says can be written (or dictated to the teacher);

C. What has been thus written can be read.

The Language Experience Approach, when used by classroom teachers with second language learners, child and adult, has been extremely successful because it provides a way for the student to acquire the basic skills of reading, whether he is literate (able to read) in his first language or not, with comfortable, familiar and non-threatening material . . . his own.

It is an admirable approach, not only because of its simplicity but also because it allows for manageable individualization and utilizes the student's knowledge and interests. Best of all, it virtually eliminates the need for readability formulae, word frequency counts, and testing—where measurement is often inadequate and inappropriate if not impossible.

Essentially, the procedure includes the following elements, though there is no strict sequence of procedure and flexibility is the by-word.

I

The student's "experience" may be a drawing, something he brings to class such as a picture, a souvenir, a recording or the like; or participation in an experience such as a trip or visit, a film or party, etc., planned by the teacher. Or it may simply be a discussion of some topic or event that the student relates to. The need for and the kind of stimulus will depend upon the level of the student (age) and the kind of lesson (individual or group).

II

The student is then asked to tell about his experience. The student may be telling the teacher, another student, a group of students or the whole class, depending upon the student's ability to communicate, the kind of follow-up exercise planned, and the reading need of the student. The goal is to get the student to talk about something he wants to talk about and for him to use his own words.

III

The student then dictates his "story" or "experience" to the teacher (or to another student), using his own words. The writer copies down the story just as it is told—errors and all. The teacher or fellow student may help the one dictating to find words, but it is crucial that the dictation be written down just as the student says it, that the student's (not the teacher's) words, phrasing, syntax be written down. Remember, you are teaching reading—how to decode the relationships between the spoken and written language—not grammar. At this stage the student will not learn incorrect language because he sees it in his reading materials: he doesn't see it. He is much too concerned with the experience and the process. Rigg points out that the greatest incidence of teacher failure occurs at this point, when teachers, to be helpful (i.e. to "teach"), edit and repair the student's story as it is being put onto paper, rather than copying it down exactly as the student tells it.

IV

The teacher then reads the story back to the student while the student reads along. In the very beginning the teacher may want to read the dictation back at the end of each sentence, helping the student to make immediate connection between his spoken words and their written forms. It also gives the student a chance to edit his dictation for the first time.

When the student is ready, he may want to read the story aloud to the teacher or to another student. Of course, he may read it silently to himself at any time. The more re-reading he does, the better. The teacher may help the student, pronouncing words or rereading the story with him. The student knows the words and understands the story; he is, at this point, learning to identify the written symbols of the words he has already spoken.

V

The student may also want to try writing the story himself. Students will gradually begin correcting and changing their own stories as they begin to recognize errors and as their vocabulary increases. As a normal process, second and third readings often result in self-editing.

Stories that the student has told and dictated or re-written can be made into individual readers. With children, the "readers" may include their own drawings thus becoming their own illustrated library, one they can share with other students, their families and friends. For adults they may become notebooks of "stories" which they can use to practice with or share. These notebooks then become a measure for the students (and the teacher) of their progress in language and writing as well as reading.

VI

When the basic skill of decoding has been achieved, teacher-prepared or commercial materials may be introduced. For children, these may be basal readers, storybooks and other activity materials. For adults, the materials might be application forms, driver's test materials, grocery store flyers and labels. Letter writing or diary keeping might be good transitional and on-going activities in view of their built-in experience or story-telling nature.

The Language Experience Approach can be used as a class, small group or individual activity. Rigg suggests, in her discussion of ideas for whole class presentation, the use of wordless picture books to initiate the "experience" telling.

Language experience takes advantage of student interests and knowledge rather than relying on the arbitrary selection of topics and materials that, though they may be interesting to some, are seldom motivating for all. It can be a step towards the understanding and use of vocabulary and materials in other areas of the student's life, helping him along in other courses or a job, rather than focusing solely on literature or culture. As Van Allen puts it,

the basis of children's oral and written expression is their sensitivity to their environment, especially their language environment, both within the classroom and in the world at

9

large. The continuing responsibility of the teacher is to help (the student) at all levels of ability become increasingly aware of the world in which they live—to 'talk' about . . . and to relate their observations and impressions to their own experiences.

In a bilingual program, the LEA allows students to begin with reading and writing in their first language almost immediately, as well as providing a means of moving gradually into the second language. (Although this may result in the students using both languages on occasion, the admonition that what the student says is what should be put to paper, still holds.) In adult literacy or ESL classes, where the students may be illiterate in their first language, Language Experience provides a simple way of moving the student into the process of decoding, just as it does for the child.

In all cases, since the approach is individualized and ungraded, it avoids the problems of "ability" grouping. Students can begin when they are able to express themselves; "readiness" becomes a matter of the student having something to say. Students learn to recognize the regularities and irregularities of spelling. Van Allen believes that this is because Language Experience makes no distinction between the development of reading skills and the development of listening, speaking, spelling, and writing skills. All are essential provide reciprocal reinforcement. All facets of language are used as experience related to the construction of printed materials. All the student's experiences which he can express, especially in oral language, are included as the raw material out of which reading refinement grows.

Unlike most commercially prepared materials, the Language Experience materials that the student reads tend to be "culture-fair" and meaningful to him because they are his words and his experience. Almost equally important, the student is not placed at a disadvantage because his oral skills are unequal to the material he is asked to read. As Levenson states it, Language Experience "values the language of each (student), faulty as it may be, as a beginning point for further development." In so doing it puts the thinking of each (student) at the heart of the teaching learning process.

Although I have emphasized Language Experience as a means of acquiring the decoding skill (so essential in the initial stages of the reading process), in order to establish a limit to oral reading practice, Language Experience is, in truth, a rationale for the entire language learning using experience. The student's entire knowledge, his every experience is the catalyst, the stimulus, the impetus for communication, whether in reading, writing, listening or speaking; whether in the classroom or at home, on the job or on the street. It is his needs and his thoughts that will lead him, take him to successful language acquisition. It is the teacher who must be ready, prepared to navigate.

TN II 78

For further reading:

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SYLLABUSES: STRUCTURAL, SITUATIONAL, NOTIONAL

By Sandy McKay
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One major decision that all teachers face is which text to use. In order to make a wise decision, it is important to recognize the assumptions that the materials make about what should be taught in an ESL class. Although the selection of materials has implications for the way they are presented, what is studied and how it is presented are separate components of the classroom. Linguistic structures, for example, can be presented either deductively or inductively, with the teacher as model or facilitator.

First of all, what is a syllabus? Clearly, a syllabus is not the same as a method. Anthony and Norris maintain that a method must include the "selection of materials to be taught, the gradation of those materials, their presentation, and pedagogical implementation to induce learning." In my mind, the first two concerns—the selection of materials and the gradation of those materials—provide the foundation for a syllabus. A syllabus provides a focus for what should be studied, along with a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered. Currently, the literature reflects three major types of syllabuses: structural, situational, and notional.

I. STRUCTURAL SYLLABUSES

The primary focus of structural syllabuses is the grammatical structure of the language. Girard in describing the components of a structural lesson maintains that "the modern language lesson must be first of all a lesson in the *language*, aimed at building up linguistic competence and performance." In view of the focus on linguistic structures, the question of what to include in the syllabus is relatively easy; namely, the full range of grammatical structures in English. The question of how to sequence this content is more difficult to answer. According to Wilkins the standards that are typically applied are: simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty. These criteria, however, may be at odds with one another since a structure with high frequency may not have structural simplicity (e.g. polite request forms, "could you tell me?", "do you happen to know?", etc., while frequently used are not structurally simple).

Structural syllabuses are associated with pattern practices and text translations. There is, however, nothing inherent in a focus on linguistic structures

which necessitates this type of classroom presentation. Grammatical structures could be symbolized by charts or objects, with the teacher acting primarily as a facilitator rather than a model. (This, of course, is exactly what occurs in classrooms which use The Silent Way).

II. SITUATIONAL SYLLABUSES

Situational syllabuses focus on language as a social medium by recognizing that language use is affected by such things as the participants, the topic and the setting. The basic assumption of situational syllabuses is clearly reflected in Kitchin's comment: "Structures are dead without the situations which engender them." In discussing situational syllabuses, Kitchin maintains that it should be possible to "devise a learning system based on graded situations rather than graded structures."

In most situational syllabuses the selection of content is based on a prediction of what situations the students will have to deal with. Selecting materials on this basis certainly provides the opportunity for highly relevant content. However, as Wilkins points out, the social situation alone does not determine what will be said. An individual at a bank could have a variety of intentions (opening a savings account, registering a complaint, seeking employment, etc.).

In general situational syllabuses do not demonstrate clearly defined criteria for the sequencing of the material. Some syllabuses are ordered on the basis that the learner will encounter the situations (e.g. a text for a foreign student might proceed as follows: landing at the airport, finding a place to live, registering at the University, etc.). Other situational syllabuses rely on the structural complexity of the dialogues within the situations for the sequencing of the material.

Traditionally the classroom presentation of situational syllabuses involves role playing and dialogues (at times combined with pattern practices). Given the focus on the social dimensions of language, other techniques could be equally effective in promoting the students' awareness of language variation. One technique would be exercises which require students to observe language use outside of the classroom and note how it varies according to the participants and setting.

III. NOTIONAL SYLLABUSES

Wilkins maintains that the essence of a notional syllabus is its priority to the semantic content of language. The aim of such syllabuses is to ensure that the students know how to express different types of meanings (e.g. disagreements, compliments, disbelief, etc.). Like situa-

tional syllabuses, the question of the selection of the content is related to the needs of the learners. Wilkins maintains that the first step in designing the syllabus is to predict what types of meaning the learners will need to communicate. In view of the tremendous number of semantic categories (Wilkins himself lists 339) the problem of selection is a formidable one. The question of selection is further complicated by the fact that a variety of linguistic forms can be used to express the same meaning (e.g. asking for permission can be couched in various forms ranging from "Can I use" to "I wonder if I might use"). Wilkins suggests that the selection of which forms to include be based on the stylistic dimension of formality and politeness, the medium (speech or writing) and grammatical simplicity. The syllabus designer needs to predict in which contexts the student will be using the language (spoken or written, formal or informal) and select the forms on that basis.

At present there appears to be little rationale for the sequencing of materials in a notional syllabus. Wilkins recognizes that the designing of a notional syllabus could result in linguistic and thematically disconnected units. He suggests introducing a story line to ensure thematic continuity, but he considers this technique extrinsic to the idea of a notional syllabus.

The method of presentation for notional syllabuses is still largely undefined. Most existing syllabuses involve role playing, and reading and listening to authentic language materials (newspaper articles, broadcasts, journals, impromptu dialogues, etc.) in order to analyze the various intentions that they contain.

Clearly each syllabus has its strengths and its weaknesses. While each one focuses on an important component of language (grammatical form, situational constraints and semantic uses), each presents unique problems in the selecting and sequencing of materials. The teacher alone, who knows the proficiency and needs of the students, can best decide which syllabus to use when.

TN 11/78

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WALES UNIVERSITY GROUP WORKS TO DEVELOP NEW INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

The Communication Studies Unit of the University of Wales Institute of Science and Technology in Cardiff, Wales, is making a year-long study of a specific type of technical documentation under a grant from the L. M. Ericsson Co. of Stockholm, Sweden. The study is to determine the feasibility of developing a highly restricted subset of English words and sentence structures that would be adequate for use in the Ericsson Company's international documentation.

The concept of controlled English is not new. The question the Welsh study is to answer is whether it can be applied to the Ericsson's product line. Controlled English of various sorts are already in use in international documentation by numerous companies including such giants as IBM, Kodak, and Rank Xerox. It's advantage is that it is less expensive to train natives in many countries to use operation and maintenance manuals written in a controlled English than it is to translate the manuals into all the languages where the products will be used and then print relatively small quantities of the manual.

The controlled English approach was first developed by the Caterpillar Tractor Co. Caterpillar researchers prepared a list of 784 English words that conveyed the concepts used in tractor repair and maintenance. To that list they added the names of the parts of the equipment being dealt with and defined those names largely through illustrations of the equipment. They then wrote the manuals using the equipment-part names, the words in their limited vocabulary, and a very limited set of simple English sentence structures. Having written some documents this way, the Caterpillar researchers then went to a number of foreign countries and found that, with the help of an instructor who understood both the native language and English, they could teach people with some background in mechanical servicing to use the new manuals effectively in from 30 to 60 hours of instruction even though they knew no English at all when they started. It would not really be true to say that the mechanics "understood" English in any significant sense after they had learned to use the manuals, but Caterpillar's objective was not to teach English but rather to devise an internationally usable set of manuals: and *that* it succeeded in doing.

The Caterpillar-devised language has now become a marketable item and is available commercially under the trade name "Basic 800", which is available in the U.S. from Smart Communications, Inc., and under the trade name "ILSAM" (International Language for Service and Maintenance), which is available outside the U.S. from M & E White, Consultants.

In trying to devise a controlled language, not only must the word list be limited, but also each word, unlike standard English, must have only one meaning and so must be used as only one part of speech. If, for example, you are going to use "right" to mean "the opposite of left", you cannot also use it to mean "the opposite of wrong". If you use "drop" as a noun that might be applied to a small quantity of oil) you cannot also use it as a verb meaning "to release".

Another consideration, which often runs counter to the rules for effective writing in English for English-speakers, is that one should include in the international vocabulary that one word, of several synonymous words, that will be most widely recognized by readers whose native languages are not English. Thus, while for English speakers "help" is often preferred to "assistance", in the international context, more people will recognize "assistance" as being related to a similar word in their own language.

Also, in a restricted language, the number of verbs is reduced to a minimum to avoid having to introduce irregular verb forms. That can be accomplished by using non-verb combinations such as "make an alignment" instead of "align". Again this approach runs counter to the rules for vigorous English that encourage maximum use of strong active verbs.

To keep the structure of the international language simple enough, only four types of sentence structure are used: statements that describe or explain, instructions or commands, combinations of conditions with either descriptions or instructions and questions. The sentence structure is kept as simple as possible, always using two sentences to express two thoughts if one is not a condition for the other. Different instructions are placed in different sentences, not hooked together by conjunctions or punctuation.

Among the virtues of the limited English approach is that it is not a distortion of normal English, simply a subset of it. Thus the manuals prepared in the limited English can be used effectively by English readers as well as non-English readers. In fact, when Caterpillar first published their new international manuals they were not recognized by English-users as being significantly different from the previous manuals. In addition, since the words are restricted

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to one meaning and the sentence structure is simple, these manuals are particularly easy to translate into another language in case one wants to provide a native-language version. TN 6/78

TEACHING LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE MEANINGS USING FOOD VOCABULARY

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During the preparation of a class dinner, while my ESL students were preparing their national dishes, and occasionally asking the names of the various utensils they were using, I realized that some of them did not know this basic vocabulary, and that they all needed to refine their understanding of the vocabulary in this "household" area. For example, most students knew that "chop", "slice" and "dice" are all verbs that come under the gross classification of "cut", but they had no clear idea of the differences in meaning between these verbs. I therefore decided to prepare a lesson on the exact meanings of various terms which are used in cooking. Noting that many of these terms also have figurative and idiomatic uses, I added some exercises on these figurative extensions of the meanings of these terms. With this series of lessons, I hoped to give my students a clearer understanding of the following characteristics of the vocabulary of English:

1) that terms which have very similar general meanings may differ in their specific meanings;
2) that ordinary, concrete language may often also be used in a figurative sense, and
3) that many idiomatic expressions are appropriate only within certain socio-linguistic contexts.

The lessons I've described were spread over four days, using approximately fifty minutes of class time each day.

Lesson I: The Literal Meanings of "Cooking" Terms

Teacher Preparation: I prepared multiple copies of the three recipes shown below for Mulligatawny Soup, Cranberry Bread and Impossible Pie. I chose these recipes because they were interesting and used a variety of vocabulary (Students had asked me for the recipe for Impossible Pie, which I had made for our dinner.)

I brought various kitchen utensils to class, including a knife, 2 mixing bowls, a grater, a spoon, a cutting board, a strainer and measuring spoons. I also brought some things to cut, sift and strain, including a carrot, a stalk of celery, a bit of flour, an apple and some water.

Procedure: 1. The class was divided into pairs. Each pair, working with a different recipe, read their recipe and made a list of new vocabulary, pronunciation problems and any structure they did not understand and listed them on the blackboard.

2. Returning to the large group, the students examined the list of new vocabulary words, etc. which had been written on the blackboard and explained or demonstrated as many as they could, using the kitchen tools, which had been placed on a table nearby. I acted as a resource person, when necessary, explaining words the students could not work out (especially ingredients, such as "curry powder"). I knew that my students could do all these activities and, everyone contributing a bit of information, could probably work out the specific meanings. I also occasionally found it necessary to expand on the student demonstrations, for example, by asking someone, after "grate" had been demonstrated, to grate a carrot and to shred an apple.

3. Each team of students read its recipe aloud and answered any questions about vocabulary from the rest of the class. Again, I acted as a resource of last resort, allowing the students who knew these terms to explain them to the rest of the class. The new vocabulary that the class found and the demonstrations that they did are listed below. The vocabulary I had to explain is starred.

New Vocabulary

grate	*shortening
rind	*fluffy
grease	diced
dust	*curry
batter	*nutmeg
push in slightly	*sprig
*tsp.	canned
*tblsp.	sieve
shredded	sift
extract	pureed

dice-chop-slice-cut
sieve-strain-sift-spoon
puree-mix-beat

Demonstrations

grate vs. shred
peel vs. pare
grease vs. butter
dust vs. sprinkle

Lesson II: Follow-Up Exercise

The following lesson gave the students more experience with the vocabulary and generated additional vocabulary not used in the recipes the students had read in class.

Procedure: 1. The class was divided into teams. Each team wrote a simple recipe, for example, for making a grilled

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Mulligatawny Soup

4 tblsp butter
¼ cup diced onion
¼ cup diced celery
¼ cup diced carrot
1 finely chopped pepper
1 sliced apple
1 cup diced raw chicken
⅓ cup flour
1 tsp curry powder
½ tsp nutmeg
2 cloves
1 sprig parsley
salt and pepper
1 cup chopped tomatoes
5 cups canned chicken broth

Put into a deep pot: butter, onion, celery, carrot, chopped pepper, apple and chicken. Cook slowly until brown.
Stir in the flour.
Add the remaining ingredients. Simmer 1 hour. Strain and reserve the liquid. Pick out the pieces of chicken and set aside. Rub the vegetables through a sieve.
Add the pureed vegetables and the chicken to the liquid and season to taste. Re-heat and serve with fluffy, boiled rice.

Cranberry Bread

1 orange
boiling water
2 tablespoons butter
1 egg
1 cup sugar
1 cup chopped cranberries
½ cup chopped walnuts
2 cups flour
½ teaspoon salt
½ teaspoon baking soda

Grate the rind of the orange.
Squeeze the juice and add boiling water to make ¾ cup of liquid.
Add the grated rind. Also add 2 tablespoons butter. Stir.
Put 1 egg and 1 cup sugar in a bowl.
Beat well and stir the orange liquid into this. Add 1 cup chopped cranberries and ½ cup chopped walnuts.
Sift together 2 cups flour, ½ teaspoon salt and ½ teaspoon baking soda into a large bowl. Stir in the egg and orange mixture.
Spoon the buttered loaf pan. Bake at 325° for 1 hour. To test: center should spring back when pushed in slightly.

Impossible Pie

4 eggs
½ stick margarine (⅛ lb.)
½ C Baking Mixture (See recipe below.)
3½ oz. shredded coconut
¾ C sugar
2 C milk
1 tsp vanilla extract

Mix margarine and sugar together in a bowl. Add all the other ingredients. Beat 3 minutes.
Pour batter into an ungreased pie pan and bake for 55 minutes in a pre-heated 350° oven. *Do not open oven while baking.*

*Baking Mixture

Mix together (or rub together with fingers) until no large lumps remain:
2 C flour
1 tsp salt
1½ tsp baking powder
2 tblsp sugar
1 tblsp shortening

IT WORKS!

cheese sandwich or a cup of hot cocoa. I emphasized the fact that *all* the directions had to be written, as another team would follow these directions in making the recipe. After the recipes had been written, one team wrote their recipe on the board. Two volunteers from another team, one reading and the other following his directions, made the recipe. The volunteers should understand that they must follow the recipe exactly. The class and I observed and the entire class made suggestions for improving the recipe directions afterwards. The recipes may be written on one day and prepared on another, giving the students time to assemble all the needed materials, or they may be acted out on the same day, using imaginary props (an empty jar labeled "sugar" can provide all the sugar you need).

2. As an alternative to the above lesson, the teacher might ask volunteers from the class to follow a simple recipe that the teacher has provided, for example, for Cornstarch Pudding or for a Grilled Cheese Sandwich. The procedure is the same as that described in number 1 above, but in this case the teacher will have to provide all the necessary ingredients and cooking tools.

Now aware of the exact meanings of some food preparation vocabulary, the class was ready to consider figurative application of these words to other situations. I used a multiple-choice, fill-in exercise and a role play exercise to give the students this opportunity.

Lesson III: Some Figurative Uses of Cooking Terms

This multiple-choice fill-in exercise was based on words that the students had demonstrated in class; however, some other related items were also included. Each item was a descriptive or emotionally charged one.

1. After knocking over the lamp, the little boy looked at his mother with large, sad eyes and said, "I sorry". Immediately, all her anger _____
   buttered   peeled   melted

2. Angela looked at him for a long time with those soft, loving eyes. Then she turned and ran out. He rubbed his hands over his face. Her look had _____ him deeply.
   stirred   cut   mixed

3. The children's constant fighting . . . _____ on my nerves.
   boiled   sliced   grated

4. On hearing the sudden scream, terror _____ through her like a knife.
   cut   sliced   chopped

5. The snow was everywhere. It had _____ through the openings in the cabin and outlined the walls in white.
   stirred   spooned   sifted

6. I was already angry with Bobby for his carelessness. But, when he didn't even say he was sorry, I really started to _____
   squeeze   boil   sift

7. Myra was beautiful *and* seductive. She walked over to Henry, said, "Hello, Tiger", and began to _____ off her dress.
   grease   beat   peel

8. The snow had _____ the town with a covering of white.
   buttered   sifted   dusted

9. I love parades. Marching music is so _____
   mixing   stirring   beating

10. The cartoon character was trying to _____ up his wife so that she would let him go bowling. He said, "You're the best little wife a fella ever had."
    butter   stir   grease

Teacher Preparation: I prepared multiple copies of the exercise and distributed them to the class.

Procedure: 1. The students were divided into pairs, in order to give them a chance to discuss their choices with one other person before discussing them with the entire class. The students' consideration of the semantic properties of each word is more important than the answer which they finally arrive at.

2. When the exercise had been completed, the entire class went over the exercise, each student reading one question aloud, and decided on an acceptable answer for each question. I, again, only participated when the students were unable to arrive at the answer by themselves (those questions are starred).

3. We then made a list of other cooking vocabulary figurative expressions that the class thought of.

Lesson IV: Follow-Up Exercise on Figurative Meanings of Cooking Terms—Role Plays

The role plays should be short descriptions or directions using the figurative meanings of cooking terms. The ones I used were:

Butter someone up.
Something melts your heart.
Say something in a choppy manner.
Do something as if you were boiling.
Cut someone off.
Stir up jealousy in someone.
Say something in a grating voice.
Pour out your heart to someone.
Peel off something.
Say someone's name in a melting voice.
You hear some music that stirs you.

Teacher Preparation: I put the role plays on slips of paper for the students to draw out of a hat. I then described what role plays were and emphasized the fact that these role plays could be very short. I mentioned the necessity

of each student's deciding whether the role play he selected needed words or actions or another person or all three. I then demonstrated one. A list of vocabulary words used in the role plays (but not the role plays themselves) could be put on the board to help the students in guessing, later; however, I didn't do it and it didn't seem to hamper my students.

Procedure: 1. The students each chose a role play and, without showing it to anyone, spent 5 minutes deciding how to act it out. I was the resource person for emergency help; however no one needed my help.

2. The students acted out the role plays one by one. After each one the students described what happened using their own words. They then tried to guess what the role play was. In order to help them determine the proper social context for each expression, I then asked some questions. For example, Would this expression be used in a formal or informal situation? Would it be used in speech or in writing? Is it stereotyped? Would a man or a woman use this expression?

One of the features of English that students should be noticing is its flexibility. In order to take advantage of that flexibility, the students have to develop a sense of the varied levels of the language. I feel that this series of lessons gave my students the opportunity to do this in the area of cooking vocabulary, and to do it on their own, without my saying, "look at how this word is used". It also allowed everyone to contribute to the class, generated a lot of conversation between students in deciding on which word was appropriate, and pulled out "the ham" in everybody, briefly. We also had a good time doing it.

The next day the class worked on writing endings to stories. This is what one student wrote (Expressions from the "cooking vocabulary" lesson are underlined.):

After she passed the man started to follow her, very quietly, on tip toes. He was too shy to say "Hello" or something else. Therefore he only walked behind her. But as she almost reached her friend's house, he decided to tell her how beautiful she is and to ask her if she would like to be his girlfriend. He stopped her and told her *in a choppy manner:* "Hello . . . my name is George . . . you know . . . I was admiring your beauty . . . I was watching you for many months . . . Would you like . . . to . . . to take my hand and . . . have me beside you in . . . your life?" She looked at him very surprised and then she told him unkindly: "First of all, I'm not interested to know who you are. Second, I'm married!"

After that she turned her back to him and went to her friend's house without telling him "Goodbye". He was *deeply stirred* and slowly he began to go back home.   4/78

6

GOING TO THE CONVENTION?
MAKE A LESSON OF IT!

by Linda Zinn, Chinatown Resources Development Center, San Francisco and Judy E.W.B. Olsen, Alemany Community College Center, S.F.

Judy: When Linda first agreed to take my classes while I went to Miami for TESOL '77, she suggested that it would be fun to have my students write to me there. The idea grew into a series of class activities before, during, and after my trip, which are reported below.

The classes were adult beginners at the Chinatown Resources Development Center. The time was late April, 1977. Some of the students had been in my class for two or three months, others since the previous fall.

The Thursday and Friday before I left, I wrote on the board, "Next week I won't be here. Do you have any questions?" They did, of course—why was I going, where would I go, what would I do, who would be their teacher while I was away, when would I come back, etc. As students asked the questions, I wrote them word for word on the board. Less-than-perfect grammer became obvious to the questioners or their classmates (sometimes with a gentle hint from me) and, in most cases, they were able to tell me how to correct the graminar. I varied the form of my answers to their questions. Some I answered orally, some in written form on the board—this for variety as well as practice in connecting oral and written forms and getting meaning from both.

After the usual who-what-where questions, we had some interesting "how long" and "how much" questions which raised the subject of time zones (my flight was 5 hours, the time difference 3 hours) and fare differences for night flights, excursion fares, etc. I wished I had had some brochures and timetables from various airlines for class comparison.

We spent about half an hour both Thursday and Friday going over these questions and the topics they raised—two days because of the elementary levels of the classes, and because class population varies somewhat from day to day.

At the end of the second discussion session, we produced a class composition dictated by the students and written by me on the board. The subject was my trip the following week—good practice of future tense. As the board became filled with sentences, we did a little editorial work, connecting some thoughts with "and", "but", or "because", moving some sentences to produce a more logical sequence, discussing why the sentences should be moved and where to put them. As with the earlier questions, I wrote the sentences verbatim and the students made any necessary corrections, prompted only occasionally by me. When all were satisfied, each student copied the board composition—and so did I, onto a ditto master, for future use.

Linda: On the first day the following week, I primed students by asking them to reflect on what they talk about when they write home to friends and relatives. We also discussed some of the kinds of feelings that prompt people to write letters—for instance, concern, interest, curiosity. I announced to them that on the next day, we would all sit down together and write letters to Judy; I would expect contributions from everyone in the class. They were to go home and think about what they wanted to write.

On the second day, we wrote our letters, with the students telling me what to put on the board. The "advanced-beginning" class had lots to say. There was a fair amount of paper correction and suggestions of alternatives and variant forms that the contributors thought were better than those initially offered. In the "beginning-beginning" class, students were more hesitant, and produced mainly questions, and needed reminders from me to make the kinds of statements they would naturally write in their own letters to friends.

Throughout, I was concerned with encouraging self-correction, having them rework their sentences before I wrote them on the board. Finally, recorders were chosen to copy the letters down. The recorder for the advanced-beginning class was so enthusiastic that he couldn't resist adding in a few lines of his own!

Judy: The first thing I did on reaching Miami was find postcards and send them off to my classes, so they would be there by the end of the week and could be used in class discussion, as well as reinforcement for the letters I knew the students were writing me.

I hadn't realized, though, how much I would enjoy the letters from my students. They arrived that Friday, thanks to Linda's special delivery postage.

The week after the convention, when I appeared in class, there was again a flurry of questions, this time in the past tense, which were recorded, self-corrected, and answered in the same way as before. This time I had pictures, a route map of the airline, and other "realia" to show them and prompt more questions.

In my beginning-beginner class, this was followed by a cloze on the subject of my trip, which I wrote on the board. Students read and discussed it among themselves, then we went over it together. When I had filled in all the blanks, students copied it.

In the advanced-beginner class, we reviewed the board composition of the week before, which I had put on a ditto. (A few dittos in your desk drawer can come in handy on such occasions.) We read through the composition, confirmed what actually had or hadn't happened, and after a few minor changes in the original, the students used it for a controlled composition, changing the future to the past.

I felt good about this experience. It gave the class something real to talk about and vicariously share with me. It raised a number of topics that were of interest to them, such as the different air fares, and geography, climate and time zones in the U.S. It also provided some carry-over and focus for Linda as their new teacher for a week.

QUIET: PEOPLE COMMUNICATING

By Lise Winer, Concordia, University, Montreal

Do your students hate writing? Do they view it as a useless painful exercise necessary only for exams? If so, help is a pen in the hand. Silent writing can help not only to improve writing itself, but also to help the student develop effective communication skills.

As Michael Sharwood-Smith has pointed out (1976: 18), the great disadvantage of the speaking situation is that much of the information a non-native speaker wants to communicate can be understood from non-linguistic cues such as facial expression, gestures, and general context. It only takes one unusual question or comment to show that the learner's command of the language is not as good as it appears. In a situation in which only writing is permitted, however, the learner is forced to perfect his/her communicative skills in the target language itself.

The idea of the "silent class" was developed by Lavonne Mueller, a high school English teacher in Illinois, for a 9-week remedial English course (1975). No talking of any sort was permitted, and all communication was carried out by written "memos". Specific problems were dealt with individually in writing, or on posters for the whole class. The immediacy and high degree of individualism this entailed encouraged the students tremendously, Mueller reports. Although it seemed very demanding—even impossible—at first, students became both more consciously aware of errors and more able to deal with them.

In adapting this approach for intermediate ESL classes, I have made silent memos a regular part of classroom activity. Not only are memos good for days when you just don't feel like talking, they also help to teach students to read and follow directions, to depend on themselves and other students instead of just the teacher for help, to pay attention to their own work and that of others, and to realize that writing can indeed be an effective and even enjoyable form of communication.

If you'd like to try it, here are some ideas. When I use memos in class, I usually write the assignment on the board under a "No Talking Please" heading. I add that anyone who has a question can ask me in writing. This technique may, at the beginning, make students laugh or become panic-stricken. Refuse to speak, and don't let them speak either. Then wait it out—students usually get the idea in two to three minutes.

During the writing, you can add written information to the board, or call their attention to something already written there by tapping on the board and pointing to the appropriate spot.

Memos can be short or long, simple or very complex. They may or may not be directly related to another class assignment. They may involve writing between students only, between students and teacher, or both. (It should be made very clear that memos between students are absolutely private and will never be seen by the teacher.)

Sample Assignments

The following are some examples of simple memos.

1. Give another student in the class directions on how to get to your house. (Find out first where she/he will be coming from.)

2. Ask another student, in writing, for suggestions about a good restaurant. What kind of food does it serve? How much does it cost?

3. Ask another student for help with a problem (e.g. I've lost a library book/my boy-(girl) friend/my job).

These questions may, of course, be posed directly by the teacher, for example: "I'd like to take my 16-year-old sister to a movie for her birthday. What do you recommend and why?"

The recipient of a question, either a student or the teacher, can then ask, in writing, for clarification (including "I can't read this!") or further information ("Does your sister like spy movies?"). This may involve quite a lot of note-passing back and forth; students who regularly pass notes in their other classes may be delighted to utilize this talent, previously unappreciated by the teacher.

Other memos involve two steps: usually a student-to-student task first, and then a report from one or both students to the teacher. The teacher does not see the first step, only its reported result.

One such memo I use at the beginning of the term is a useful variation of "Tell us about yourself." The first part of the assignment is: "Introduce yourself, in writing, to another student in the class." The student who receives this introduction must then write down at least three questions requesting further information; these questions are then answered, also silently, by the first student. When the second student feels s/he has enough information, s/he then writes a memo to the teacher, introducing his/her new friend (the first student). The teacher can then ask the "interviewer" further questions about the first student. The answers must be obtained from the first student by the interviewer; the information is then incorporated into the written introduction.

The usual problem with this type of "interview" conversation is that students give a minimal reply and then stop (e.g.

"Do you like reading?" "Yes."). Repeated requests for expansion, in writing, from another student or the teacher (e.g. "What do you like to read? Who is your favourite author? Do you like Kurt Vonnegut?") allow students to see "conversation" techniques much more concretely than in oral work.

An Advanced Memo Assignment

A similar but more advanced memo exercise consists of the following instructions, which students find on the board when they come in.

Part I: Work in pairs. One person is a terrorist, and the other is a negotiator. All phone lines between you have been cut, so all your communication will have to be done in writing. The negotiations you undertake are top secret!

A. Terrorists: Make your demands and threats. Establish your situation. (Whom do you represent? What resources do you have? What do you have to bargain with?) Try to make the negotiator give you what you want. (Suggested acts of terrorism: hijacking a plane, kidnapping a bank manager, threatening to put LSD in the water supply.)

B. Negotiators: Establish your situation (Whom do you represent? What resources do you have? How firm are the terrorist's demands?) Try to convince the terrorist to give up or to make concessions. And try to negotiate a settlement with as little damage as possible.

Part II: Newspaper Report

After the problem with the terrorist has been resolved, the editor of the newspaper will need a report on the incident. One report should be submitted by each team. Include relevant information, such as the identity and aims of the terrorist, what happened during the negotiations, and the final outcome of the situation.

Of course, you must judge the acceptability of such a topic in your classroom, but I have not generally found it to be a problem politically. One day, when there was an uneven number of students, I got to be a terrorist in Part I; I can testify personally that it requires a great deal of involvement. Students constantly looked up words in their dictionaries and referred to their past writing. Meanings obviously had to be very precise since "countless lives" depended on a lack of misunderstanding. Students became inventive, planning strategies furiously. My own negotiator, in fact, started a whole series of stage directions, in parentheses, so that I would know how to play along and fall into her trap! The reports from Part II were remarkably clear and well organized, in addition to being realistic and exciting.

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TENTH ANNIVERSARY

SUNDAY, MAY 20, 1979

QUIET:

Why writing? Why silence? Why silent writing? Because communication is not all talk. Silent memo writing is one of the clearest and most effective means of impressing students with the potential of writing, and having them explore, manipulate and utilize its possibilities.

References:

Byrd, Patricia, et al; 1977 "Memo Writing and Silence in the ESL Composition Class." *TESOL Newsletter* 22:2.

Mueller, Lavonne, 1975. "The Silent Class." *Illinois English Bulletin* 63:2.

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(Excerpted from the *TESOL Communique* Fall 1977.)

A GUIDED WRITING TECHNIQUE FOR ADVANCED ESL LEARNERS

By Bob Weiseberg
New Mexico State University

Editor's Note: This article is abstracted from a paper delivered at the 1977 MEXTESOL Convention.

The techniques of guided writing have come into wide use as a practical means of helping second language learners achieve fluency in writing. These techniques have been found particularly useful with beginning students; however, advanced learners, especially university level students in technical fields, often find guided writing practice to be inappropriate to their needs. From the point of view of such learners, existing instructional materials in the area suffer from one of three basic failings: (1) manipulative practice with discrete language items may be stressed, but little or no formal provision is made to assist the student in using these items appropriately in the context of his freer writing; (2) situational contexts, often of little interest to the advanced technical student, are emphasized, while his problems with discrete language items are glossed over; (3) writing practice revolves around cognitive development exercises which the student may perceive as condescending, and thus, unmotivating.

Granting the basic validity of guided writing practice at the advanced level, the materials developer thus faces a dilemma. He must provide for intensive practice of discrete language items, but within a contextually based format relevant to the student. He must also provide the learner with freer writing activities while holding the learner's attention to specific language items. A technique featuring progressive decontrol through deletion meets these objections.

The technique proposed and illustrated here was developed at New Mexico State University for use with ESL students enrolled in graduate programs in various technical fields. It combines the advantages of intensive practice in the use of specific language features common to technical writing in English with the need for providing students the opportunity to employ the practiced items in self-generated contexts. Where controlled contexts are provided, they are in keeping with the sophistication and interest level of the learners.

The technique consists of a series of contextually based exercises featuring systematically expanded deletions. Each series deals with a specific language item (e.g., the passive voice, relatives,

GUIDED WRITING FOR ADVANCED ESL

gerunds, etc.) As students work through the exercises, they are allowed progressively wider opportunities for original writing, while maintaining focus on the particular item under study. Beginning with a controlled context, the students eventually control the context themselves, i.e., they are writing freely.

The sequencing of exercises is as follows: (1) identification of all instances of a particular language feature within a written model; (2) deletion and subsequent replacement (or restatement) of the feature at each occurrence within the model; (3) deletion and subsequent replacement (or restatement) within the model of whole clauses or phrases containing the feature; (4) paraphrasing the model; and (5) writing an original composition thematically related to the model, illustrating correct use of the target feature.

A useful feature of progressive decontrol is its adaptability to a variety of teaching-learning objectives. Although the examples given deal with a sentence level grammar item, the focus of the exercises could just as well be on discourse level features or on the microvocabulary of a specific technical field. Whatever feature is chosen, progressive decontrol provides for its systematic integration into the advanced learner's active writing repertoire. Thus it proves to be a useful addition to existing guided writing techniques.   TN 6/78

BOOK REVIEWS

IT WORKS

By Darlene Larson
New York University

LANGUAGE PLAY: AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

By Don L. F. Nilsen and Alleen Pace Nilsen, Newbury House Publishers.

Reviewed by Carol Qazi,
Arizona State University

"Language play is the newest frontier of American English," state the authors of Language Play, and students, as readers of this fascinating book, become frontiersmen and women as they follow the authors' orderly and insightful new approach to linguistics; they become language players.

The Nilsens have become well-known for their efforts in making basic linguistics accessible and relevant to students who would otherwise not find it so, and Language Play is their finest book to date. Students learn that the "mystery" behind everyday slang, CB jargon, advertising techniques, graffiti, etc., is no mystery at all, but is the result of the interaction of phonology, morphology, and semantics. Students are led to this discovery chapter-by-chapter as the Nilsens discuss language play in a highly readable and conversational style which is sure to capture every student's attention. Moreover, at the end of each chapter, there are production and analysis exercises which require students to find examples of language play on their own. Language Play, therefore, becomes perhaps one of the most vital and germane books available for use in either an introductory linguistics class or a freshman composition class.

As the title indicates, this book covers all areas of basic linguistics. The Nilsens begin with a general discussion about the nature of language (paralanguage, phonetics, etc.), and a discussion of "What exactly is language play?" It is the "creative and unusual" use of language, students are told; this creative use is expressed in metaphors, graffiti, exaggeration, citizen-band radio jargon (this section of chapter four is especially delightful with its run-down on all the CB terms used for highway patrolmen), euphemisms, logos, etc. Students are given specific, often amusing, examples of where these types of language play are used in the real world, familiar to all of them. For example, bumper stickers often feature instances of the expression of the driver's individuality: "I'm not a dirty old man, I'm a sexy senior citizen." Rock groups often choose two word names for themselves that are contradictory and are therefore fascinating:

A COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH

By Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, London, Longman's, 1975

Reviewed by Paul D. Roberts,
Free University of Berlin

Leech & Svartvik have written a noteworthy book for those teachers of grammar in ESL/EFL who are interested in using the "communicative" or "notional" approach. It is especially valuable to those of us who require a published reference book of English grammar but write our own exercises.

The book is divided into four parts dealing with the varieties of English, intonation, grammar in use and a grammatical compendium completes the last third of the book. In the first rather brief part of the book dealing with the varieties of English there is a treatment of such matters as geographical variety; written and spoken English and levels of usage. In the second part dealing with intonation there is a five page discussion of that area as it relates to grammar. In part three a number of pertinent points are taken up. First of all, grammatical concepts such as duration, frequency, place, manner, cause, etc. are presented. Next, information, reality and belief; mood, emotion and attitude; and meanings in connected discourse are discussed in detail. The fourth section, the grammatical compendium, serves as a grammatical index for the student, much in the manner of the various handbooks put out by publishers in the United States for freshman English courses.

While this is a British book, the authors have taken great care in including the American grammatical forms where they differ from that of "received standard". As a grammar reference for students who are studying the American variety of English it is quite satisfactory in that respect. It must, however, be remembered that this is indeed a reference text and does not include any exercises although it does include a large number of examples to illustrate the grammatical points which are covered.

The authors state in the preface that the book is based on another work, A Grammar of Contemporary English (Longman's, 1972) which is, no doubt, familiar to most teachers of English grammar. Part four, the Grammatical Compendium, is cross-referenced to this monumental work.

The authors also recommend that the book be used with advanced foreign

The goal of incorporating natural language into the English-as a second language classroom is not a new one. Classroom visitors, the radio, songs, and taped interviews are just a few of the sources that teachers have been using to accomplish this goal. Nevertheless, the strategies which make the exercise an effective one is of concern to all of us.

The following two articles give suggestions based on different teachers' use of the same source: the all-news radio station in their areas. One comes from NYS ESOL BEA's IDIOM, and the other from the Alemany Gazette. Both reach a portion of TESOL's membership. In the belief that many metropolitan areas have a station which features constant or often-repeated news, I would like to share these articles with all TESOL members.

From New York, the IDIOM of NYS ESOL BEA, "Lessons That Work" by Darlene Larson, Vol. 7, No. 2, p. 3. "'All News All The Time' Becomes an All-Round Aide"

"'You give us twenty-two minutes, we'll give you the world,' the announcer intoned. The students made a heroic, if futile, effort to take notes. During commercials I turned down the volume and waited for feedback. Even the most reticent student joined in the ensuing clamor," writes Joann Girgis, ESOL Instructor at a former RCA-DOE Education Center. She's sharing a lesson idea which she used with colleague Rashida Aziz, to improve listening comprehension. At the same time, this technique expands vocabulary, provides up-to-the minute information about current affairs, and encourages students to express their opinions.

Joann's students were intrigued when she entered the room with a small radio under her arm. She explained that the daily news bulletins are an excellent source of topics for conversation, and asked them to listen and take notes on any two items. Then she switched on WINS 1010, "radio ten-ten" as some say, the AM station which gives from three to five items of news, then commercials, then repeats the news bulletins.

When the commercials came and the volume went down, some of the comments she heard were, "I couldn't understand the vocabulary. I couldn't get the end of the sentence. I couldn't write fast enough." The "vocabulary problem" was solved by her writing on the board new or difficult words and phrases, items that seemed "different" in the stream of discourse, and high-interest names and

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relevant data such as "a high of 80." The desire to "get the end" of the utterance caused concentrated listening when it came round again. Joann reports that one commercial break found students eager to discuss a current highly sensitive moral issue which led to suggestions as to how a similar situation would be handled in their countries.

Several outcomes of this lesson are worth attention. She feels that it led to good practice in "getting" the final parts of sentences. That, alone, is an excellent achievement, and it is closely related to predicting what the final part might be, a reading skill that teachers often 'ponder over how to develop. This radio experience also provided an incentive to read the daily newspapers which, in turn, led to systematic instruction in class. She feels that the best part came when the students realized that as they continued to listen to the news, their listening proficiency improved considerably. They had acquired a learning tool which they could use by themselves, long after class had ended.

From California, the Alemany Gazette, 22nd Edition, March, 1978. "A (Fairly) Easy Listening Comprehension Exercise" page 4 by Tom Tragardh

This semester, I wanted to develop a listening exercise based on radio news reports for my ESL 500 class. It had to fit the following criteria:

1. Take an hour or less to make from recording to typing out the exercise,

2. Require listening skills for general meaning as well as specific detail,

3. Not require much recall ability, if any, and

4. Be easily scorable.

I have been able to evolve something (it's still in an evolutionary state) that fits the above criteria and which I can give to my students at least once a week.

I record five news stories on a "news only" radio station (KCBS). This can include a commercial. I find local news and the weather report usually require less background information than political, national and international news. If I'm lucky, I can record five stories straight through. Otherwise, I have to stop the recorder if something comes on that's too technical or complicated.

The topics of the five stories are arranged in random order on each student paper. As the students hear the recording, they put a "1" next to the first story they hear, a "2" next to the second, etc.

On another paper, one specific question for each story is given to each student. They hear the recording again and answer the questions. (These ques-

tions are in the same sequential order as the recording.

The exercises are discussed and scored in class. Students record their percentage score for the combined exercises on individual student progress charts.

The students themselves are enthusiastic about the exercise and their scores as they accumulate indicating improvement in listening comprehension. The exercise is easy enough to make that I don't cringe when I throw it away after one use. I feel that the students have a right to news that's less than 24 hours old.

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An IT WORKS column of the past, Vol. X, No. 4, of the TESOL Newsletter, p. 5, "A New Theme on an Old Angle" suggested using the development of geometric proofs to give students insight into the development of a paragraph. This article came from the work of Mary Hines and her experience in community college and university writing classes.

Teachers who work in comparable programs and find Hines' idea useful would appreciate the insights and message in an article on page 48 of the April 3, 1978, issue of the Chronicle of Higher Education, "The Reciprocity of Words and Numbers" by Joan Baum, associate professor of English at York College of the City University of New York. A sub-title states: Teachers ought to take advantage of the common foundations of writing and math. The article supports the view that "there should be practical benefit in presenting math to students in English classes and English to freshmen in math." Although the author is not writing for those concerned with English as a second language, I believe her insights can be useful for us, as well.   TN. 6/78

LANGUAGE PLAY

for example, "Iron Butterfly". Advertisers depend on advertising effectiveness by using pure and simple language play. The advertisements used by the various pantyhose companies are the best examples of this, say the Nilsens, who refer to pantyhose ads as "The great cover-up of the 1970's". L'eggs, for example, plays on the word legs (obviously, legs are where women use L'eggs) by turning it into L'eggs, and marketing the stockings in a plastic egg.

Many students reading Language Play will be aware of these phenomena before they read the Nilsen's book. But certainly few of them will have appreciated the extent to which their native language, the most taken-for-granted tool at their disposal, not only works for them but amuses them as well.

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TESTING SURVEY EXTENDED

The first phase of a U.S. Office of Education sponsored survey of current activities in language testing research has been completed. Because it became obvious during the course of the survey that many scholars who are actively engaged in language testing research or development had not been contacted, it was decided to extend the project for an additional year.

If you did not have an opportunity to fill out a survey questionnaire and are now involved in a research project which deals with language testing, have recently been involved, or are soon to begin such a project, I would appreciate it if you would write to me and request a survey form. If you did complete a survey form, but would like to update the information, please send the additional information or write for an additional survey form.

Language testing research should be understood here as any formal or informal study or experiment concerning methods of evaluating language proficiency, achievement, aptitude or attitude. The development of a language test which is of general interest to other users would also fall into this category.

Please write to: Randall L. Jones, Department of Modern Languages, Morrill Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. 14850

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students such as those who are in their first year of college or university. It is designed for those students who have had a previous course in English and have received a foundation of the grammar of the language.

It is indeed a suitable book for use with students who have several years of "school English" and a certain mastery of basic structure. While the book presents English grammar as it functions, it does not exclude the necessary structural frame which students must have in order to "communicate" in the language beyond a basic level. With well-written exercises to practice the functions presented by the book and the teacher, a great deal of success can be expected in a grammar course which is intended to teach students how to "use" the grammar of the language rather than simply internalize its grammatical structures.

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COMMUNICATION STRIPS

By Mary Ann Boyd and John R. Boyd
Illinois State University

What starts shy, self-conscious adults communicating in the ESL classroom? What process supplies meaningful yet controlled content that gives these students the impetus to participate? For us and for our intermediate level ESL students of several first language backgrounds one answer to these questions has been the strip story.

The idea of using strip stories with our students evolved after we read Robert Gibson's article in the June 1975 *TESOL Quarterly*. The procedure he described consisted of breaking down a story sentence by sentence and typing each sentence on an individual strip of paper. These sentence strips were then to be randomly distributed to the students. The students' task was then to communicate the contents of their strips to the others in the class and in so doing, to orally re-assemble the strips putting the sentences of the story into a logical sequence.

Our first attempts to use this technique in our classes did not meet with much success. After much thought and experimentation however, we made three alterations in the procedure as outlined by Gibson and have since seen the technique flourish with our students. had initially thought that it was that the students memorize their strips as suggested in the article. But the adult students resisted this and the struggle to memorize their strips became the paramount issue facing them to the detriment of communication. We therefore decided to let them keep their strips in front of them making only the request that they did not show their strips to the others in the room. Being sporty about it all, they carefully kept the written strips to themselves.

Secondly, it was suggested that the students mingle with each other in a manner similar to a cocktail party while communicating their strips. Our students wanted and seemed to profit from more order. Thus they group themselves in a circle and say their sentences one after another around the circle. This allows maximum student input in the problem areas of vocabulary identification, pronunciation assistance and overall comprehension of the sentences. We try to stay with one sentence until all in the room are familiar with the vocabulary items, pronunciation, and meaning of the strip.

This does not mean however that we as teachers dominate the proceedings.

On the contrary, we become the observers, assisting only when the collective knowledge of the class cannot solve a problem. We feel that it is crucial that the students turn to each other and rely on that collective knowledge to decipher the meanings of the strips rather than to turn automatically to the teacher for answers.

Our third innovation came about because of the difficulty involved in choosing material to be used. We discovered that not many stories lend themselves to this technique without massive rewriting on the part of the teacher. A story too difficult to comprehend will frustrate the students and one without adequate sequence clues will perplex. In neither case will the objective of the lesson be met. After trial and error, we decided to write our own strip stories to tailor them to our specific purposes. To meet the students' needs the stories all revolve around life-coping situations, contain vocabulary and sentence patterns common to oral English and employ clues to sequence as a matter of course.

Depending on the class we follow various procedures with the strip stories. Most commonly we hand each student a strip without explanation of content or technique. (Our students are now quite familiar with the technique although we did explain it at the outset.) They take a minute to read over their strips, look up an unfamiliar word if they like and begin to feel comfortable with their sentences. Then they assemble themselves in a circle and the first round of speaking begins. This first round takes the most time because all of the vocabulary, pronunciation and comprehension problems have to be ironed out to everyone's satisfaction. When this has been accomplished, second and subsequent rounds of oral communication of the strips continue until the students begin to get a feeling for the context of the story. Then, and at this point a leader always seems to emerge, the students start to try different sequences of sentence order until the completed whole seems "right." Discussion and debate ensue with one student defending his rationale for a particular sentence order while others point to the illogic and/or impossibility of such an order. Finally, when the sentences have been arranged to the satisfaction of all and a proper sequence has been obtained, follow-up exercises can be done.

If the story lends itself to one, a role play can occur with student prompting

of the actors from individual strips. A pantomime can be used to set the sequence of actions if desired. To make the students more aware of the need to communicate clearly, a dictation can follow with each student dictating his sentence to the others in the class in order until the whole story has been given.

With a less advanced, more inhibited class, the teacher may wish to follow another procedure which we have used successfully; namely, a reversal in the above order. With this procedure the teacher begins by writing potentially unfamiliar vocabulary words on the board and elicits the meanings from the class. When this has been done to everyone's satisfaction, the teacher sets the scene of the story orally or through a picture if possible and briefly introduces the characters. (A danger here is for the teacher to talk too much—this step should be carefully self-monitored by the teacher.)

At this point the sentences are read randomly by the teacher to all of the students as a dictation. When the dictation has been completed and corrected, the teacher distributes copies of the already-dictated strips and the students orally put the story together. This sense of familiarity with the strips and the context can certainly aid a less self-confident class to communicate.

Whatever the procedures followed, the goals and the value of the technique remain essentially the same. Each student is forced to communicate a small slice of information without which the whole cannot be achieved and yet each student is given the exact information to be communicated. The students thus concentrate on communicating without the pressure of sentence constructing as well. This blend of controlled content and communicative responsibility tends to result in a productive, profitable and enjoyable class session each time it is employed. What more could an ESL teacher want?

Follow-up exercises:

1) Students can role play the story with the other students prompting the "actors" from individual strips.
2) Each student can dictate his strip, in story order, to the rest of the class until the whole story has been given.
3) One student can change the story into reported speech and retell the story to the class.

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A VISIT TO THE OCTOPUS'S GARDEN

By Darlene Larson
New York University

In 1978 it is not necessary to make the case for the value of using songs in the second language classroom. Every publisher of second language materials is adding records, cassettes, and books of suggestions about how to use songs in learning a language. What's more, they're fun. Students think so, and teachers do, too. Intonation and stress patterns of a language become a bit more clear to students when melodic patterns are going along with them. And if repetition is good for language learning, songs have got to be the answer. What other lesson will students repeat and repeat and repeat to themselves when class is over? None that I can think of. Thus, it is with pleasure that I offer a song I have used for an obvious several years (since the Beatles are no longer recording.) But students like it as much today as they did the first time I used it.

Following are the words to IN AN OCTOPUS'S GARDEN as sung by the Beatles. The recording is currently available in a collection of Beatles' hits called "1967-1970 Selections of the Beatles", also previously released by Apple Records, Inc. 1700 Broadway, N.Y.C. 10019.

IN AN OCTOPUS'S GARDEN

I'd like to be under the sea
in an octopus's garden in the shade.
He'd let us in knows where we've been
in his octopus's garden in the shade.
I'd ask my friends to come and see
an octopus's garden with me
I'd like to be under the sea
in an octopus's garden in the shade.

We would be warm below the storm
in our little hide-away beneath the waves.
Resting our heads on the sea-bed
in an octopus's garden near a cave.
We would sing and dance around
because we'd know we can't be found.
I'd like to be under the sea
in an octopus's garden in the shade.

We would shout and swim about
the coral that lies beneath the waves.
Oh, what joy for every girl and boy
knowing they're happy and they're
safe.

We would be so happy, you and me,
No one there to tell us what to do.
I'd like to be under the sea
in an octopus's garden with you
in an octopus's garden with you . . .

I have the song in its entirety on tape about three or four times with a minute or so between each recording. Begin by asking students to listen the first time through. Without any discussion, pass out copies of the words and let them listen a second time. Sometimes they listen and read a second time without any remarks, but usually I ask if there are any questions. A few of the vocabulary items that students routinely ask about are: cave, shade, and beneath. "Beneath" only proves that we drill away on the word "under" and forget to mention its twin, "beneath." Tell them that in this case, "beneath" equals "under."

I have a picture or two that I have found in travel brochures and magazines of scenes that were supposedly snapped underwater. Pictures of the sea-bed, of coral, of underwater caves and hide-aways are not hard to find if you don't need them tomorrow. If you are not an artist, you can, nevertheless, draw a sun in the upper corner of the blackboard, put a tree in the middle, then draw a tree horizontally on the side away from the sun, trunk bases touching. Put a cat in the middle of the horizontal tree and you'll have a cat "in the shade." It's time to listen to the song again.

There is no rule that says that a song must have a grammar focus, a cultural focus, or a pronunciation focus. A song is worth doing for the song. You could end the lesson here and bring it out again another day as background music for cleaning up after a party, or let them sing it again on a day when you finish five minutes early. But just in case you are interested in a grammar focus, I will tell you about one I have used.

When students are acquainted with the song, have them identify the parts which tell what the Beatles would do. They may underline these structures, read them to you, write them on the blackboard. Second, find the words that tell us the answer to: How would the Beatles feel? How would they be? That's another group. If these are going on the blackboard, keep the answers to "What would they do?" on one side, those to "How would they be?" on another side.

About this time, I tell the students that I wouldn't like to be under the sea. I'd like to be in Paris. I'd buy perfume. I'd visit the Louvre. I'd write post cards to my family. I wouldn't teach English. I wouldn't get up early. I wouldn't be busy. I'd be free, be relaxed, be happy. I'd eat delicious French food and stay

up late. I wouldn't speak English. I'd speak French. I wouldn't shout and swim about the coral in an octopus's garden. I'd drink coffee in a sidewalk cafe and watch people walk by.

With the information about the Beatles and the information about me, there are many model sentences to manipulate in yes/no and Wh- questions and answers. I'm sure you have carried out such practice many times. But just because they can ask and answer, that is, manipulate the word order of some structures just given them, it doesn't mean that they have attained communicative competence with the same. They need to plug into these forms some new information and relate information to you that you haven't told them, may never have heard before, and may find surprising, newsworthy, dull, doubtful, interesting, extraordinary, ho-hum, or frightening. They need to use these forms in other places, integrated with other structures. Remember, if you're following these suggestions with a group of fifteen, you've probably used "would" in every sentence for the last twenty minutes. And nobody but nobody ever does that in real life.

One contrast I like to make is between "would" sentences and "is/are" sentences. (Would you like to be in Paris? Are you in Paris?) One mistake that some students make is that they add "like" to every "would". The "would like" statement is an introductory one. It sets the scene and vanishes. Once we move into that imaginary scene, "'d" continually signals that we're there. So now and then I bring them back to reality with "is" and "are", then slip back to Paris with "'d."

You've taught this form before. In grammar books it is always found with the conditionals and connected to confusing forms like "If I were in Paris." In written, formal language, we must connect these two clauses, but that is not the way it works in conversation. "Would like" or "want" structures can set the imaginary scene and "'d" will take it from there without a speaker ever uttering an "If I were." No wonder students have trouble relating their study of English to their real experiences.

Of course this lesson needs a little emphasis on the fact that we don't emphasize "would." The whole idea that we're talking about the unreal is reduced to a pint-sized /d/.

If you've taken your students through all of these steps, you're just about safe at third base. But, of course, that's not home and there isn't any score until you get home. The goal we're headed for, I'm sure you've guessed, is to find out what places in the world the students

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would like to be, what they would wear,
what they would eat, what language
they would speak, what they would
buy, how they would feel, how the
weather would be, where they would
go, what they would do. Have them get
into groups or partners and get as much
information as possible from each other
about what he or she would do in the
place he or she would like to be.

Follow-ups to this might include some
of the following: An investigation as to
where the Beatles really are today and
what they are doing, a comparison of
the popularity of the Beatles in 1967
and the popularity of a certain musical
group today, a writing assignment about
a place the students would like to be
and what they would do there, some
research about the sea-bed and current
studies in marine biology or oceanog-
raphy, a comparison of what a tourist
would do in Paris and what the resi-
dents of the city probably do, or a
"floor-plan" of an octopus's garden. A
song can lead you anywhere, if you'll
follow.

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USING PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUES IN THE ADVANCED ESL CONVERSATION CLASS

By Myrna Knepler
Central YMCA Comm. Col., Chicago

The teacher in the advanced ESL conversation class must attempt to encourage students to produce natural speech in an unnatural setting for conversation—the classroom. How can twenty people participate in a conversation? Many teachers find conversation classes easier to handle if they divide the students into small groups and then move from one group to another: stimulating, responding to, and correcting each group's discussion.

However, the small group method can backfire; the discussion may fizzle as soon as the teacher is out of earshot. Advanced ESL students are not yet fully comfortable in their use of the new language and may not be able to sustain a conversation on a topic—no matter how stimulating—that has been casually tossed out by the teacher.

I would like to describe a technique I have used in my advanced conversation classes which has worked well in sustaining interest and participation throughout a long class period. Rather than simply stating a topic and asking for a comment, I pose a problem to be solved in the form of a story. Thus, rather than asking students to discuss, "What kind of job would you like to have after you graduate?", I construct a story in which a young man is faced with choosing between three actual jobs, each with specific advantages and drawbacks. The whole class reads the story with me and we discuss it thoroughly to make sure all students understand both the situation and the dilemma. Then they break up into small groups, each of which is charged with finding a solution to the problem and defending that solution. Each student has a copy of the story in front of him and may draw upon it for structures and vocabulary to use in the discussion. After the group has come to its decision, its chairman presents the solution to the class.

Many discussion topics can be written in the form of problem solving stories. Choosing an apartment or a school, deciding whether a mother with young children should return to work, turning down an unwanted invitation are some possibilities. During the first weeks of class the stories are short and relatively uncomplicated. Later they increase in length and complexity. One rather long story that I have written deals with a family who must decide whether or not to move when one parent is offered a job in another city.

MOVING TO ANOTHER CITY

The Thompson family lives in a large city in the Midwest. They all like city life for a number of reasons. It is easy for them to see new plays and movies and to go to concerts and sporting events. They enjoy shopping in the large department stores. Because they have lived in their house for a long time, they have made many friends.

Both parents work; the two children attend a nearby high school. One parent is an engineer, and the other is a school teacher. They are both paid quite well, but the engineer's job has become very boring. Also, it doesn't offer much chance for advancement.

Yesterday the engineer received a long-distance phone call offering a new job in a small town a thousand miles away. The pay would be a little better, but the most important thing is that the job would be much more interesting. The engineer could do important research and maybe be head of a department after a few years. The new job seems very attractive even though it means moving the family away from their home.

The problem is that no one else in the family wants to move. They will miss their friends. They will miss the excitement of city life. Also, because teaching jobs are hard to find, the teacher will probably not be able to find a job right away.

Your group must decide the best thing for the family to do and give the reasons for your decision. Think about the advantages and disadvantages for each member of the family.

We think the family should move.____

We think the family should stay.____

Reasons ____

TEACHING "MOVING TO ANOTHER CITY"—1 HOUR CLASS

1. *Warm-up* "Many of you have moved to Chicago recently. It's difficult to move, isn't it? What are some of the problems? Advantages?"

2. Have a student *pass out the text* while you write difficult vocabulary on the board. (5 min.)

3. *Read the story aloud* as students look at their copies. Ask one of the students to summarize the main points? Do not attempt to use the story as a listening comprehension exercise. Students need to have the text in front of them to be aware of all the details which they must consider. (10 min.)

4. *Set the problem:* "The Thompsons really have a problem don't they? What do they have to decide?" (2-3 min.)

PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUES

5. *Divide the class* into groups of 3-5 persons by helping them move chairs into small circles. Select a chairperson for each group who reports to the class. (5 min.)

6. *Explain* that each group has two tasks: (1) to decide the best solution to the problem (2) to give several good reasons for their decision. There is no right answer. If members of the group disagree (and you hope they will) each person should try to convince the rest of his group. Emphasize that while the chairperson of each group will make the report, everyone in the group must contribute to the solution. (5 min.)

7. Groups begin their *discussion.* Tell them they must be ready to report their decision and reasons in 10 minutes. Setting a time limit to discussion is important.

During the group discussion the teacher:

(1) Circulates rapidly to see that each group understands its task and is beginning.

(2) Visits each group again to see that they are working towards a common solution. If agreement comes too quickly, the teacher should be prepared to play devil's advocate.

(3) Visits each group one more time to check to see that the groups can give reasons for their decisions.

8. The Chairperson of each group *reports to the class* followed by class comments and discussion (10 min. or until the end of the period). It is sometimes good to run a little short of time. I like to have my students still arguing as they leave the classroom.

The exercise can also be spread over two class periods, with the story introduced and discussed the first day, and the small-group work done in the following class meeting.

"Moving to Another City" has an additional twist which can be used to stimulate more class discussion after each group has reported its solution to the problem. The story itself does not identify the sex of the engineer and the school teacher. Most students assume that it is the father who is the engineer and base their solutions on that assumption. I have often surprised my students by asking them towards the end of class whether they think Mrs. Thompson is a good engineer, thus sparking a whole new discussion.   TN 9/78

CLASSROOM APPLICATION OF STEVICK PRINCIPLES

By Arunas Staskevicius

Students at the Canadian Forces Language School in St. Jean receive 25 hours of ESL instruction a week, until they attain the level of proficiency required for the trades they will follow in the Canadian Armed Forces. The exercises described here were done with a group of beginners after roughly five weeks of language training. The class was composed of nine students ranging in age from 17 to 20, all of whom had finished high school in Quebec.

These exercises were devised in an attempt to apply some of Earl Stevick's principles of verbal memory, as presented in *Memory, Meaning, and Method* (Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1976). Partly to extend the students' vocabularies, and partly to strengthen their grasp of the simple present (the verb tense which they'd just been studying), a "brainstorming" session was started. The format was such that each exercise had a thematic centre; a profession. Students were asked to suggest various actions that a person in a certain profession performs regularly. Thus, within the constraints of a language exercise, the students were enabled to supply input that *they* considered important. As Stevick points out, "What is important and emotionally charged tends to be more rapidly embedded than material which is emotionally neutral or unimportant".

Each student was asked to suggest at least one sentence in each exercise. Dictionaries were provided, and the teacher was used as an additional resource, in case the dictionary version proved too stilted. Although students could draw on materials practiced in class, they often attempted original sentences, and thus were not merely reviewing previously learned vocabulary. One student acted as secretary and wrote the sentences on the black board.

After a dozen or so suggestions, students read the list of sentences aloud and asked questions to clear up any confusion about meaning or pronunciation. Choral or individual repetition was avoided because "the requirement of active vocalization at presentation interferes with effective coding operations". After the students had studied the list silently for a few moments, the board was erased. The class was then asked to supply sentences from the list, in any order, to test Stevick's hypothesis that "prior free recall increased quite dramatically the subject's ability to recall words later on".

Amazingly enough, the class as a group was able to supply all of the sentences previously listed within five min-

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STEVICK

utes, although there was no pressure for speed, nor any time limit imposed. This implies that Stevick's suggestion that "memory was considerably better when the subjects were allowed to move from one letter (sentence in this case) to the next at their own pace" has some application in the classroom. (Incidentally, the students generally remembered not those sentences originally their own, but those presented by their classmates.)

In reference to the practicing of newly presented items, Stevick contends that "in studies that contrasted 'massed practice' with 'distributed practice', distributed practice consistently proved to be superior." To test this, various activities were attempted after the free recall session. One list was easily recalled by the class an hour after the original presentation. The teacher also asked students Wh- questions based on the sentences, to elicit structured responses. (The answers were generally quick and correct.) After another free recall period, students themselves asked such questions. With another exercise, the students were asked to write out the sentences from memory.

Considering the absolute amount of time spent on these activities, the students' performances were generally better than after comparable lengths of time spent repeating and practicing structures and vocabulary directly after their presentation.

TRY A DIARY IN YOUR SECOND LANGUAGE

.Dr. Ruth M. Schneider
Catholic University, Ponce, P.R.

One of the best ways I know to individualize instruction and to lay the groundwork for future writing assignments is to have students keep a diary. Although keeping a diary, or a journal, is common practice in many writing classes and even in some literature classes, it is not a technique generally found in the ESL classroom. I suggest that diaries are an excellent way for students to become comfortable with their new language.

For one thing, a diary can help provide each of twenty-five to thirty students in a classroom with a vocabulary tailored to his or her personal interests. Oh, don't think I haven't given out those vocabulary sheets. My students have learned, perhaps in meaningful segments, about "The Supermarket," or "The Drugstore," until almost anyone can ask cheerily, "How much is it?" and can even understand the answer. But what if he or she wants to discuss a film, religion, nuclear disarmament, or environmental pollution? It is my responsibility as a language teacher to help the student feel adequately prepared to talk in the area of his special interest. *No adult learning a new language should find himself caught discussing the price of cars or coffee in his second language in a situation where he would be discussing politics or romance in his first.* And nothing assures me that the vocabulary sheet I give is what the student needs or wants in order to talk about the same things in his new language that he does in his native tongue. By correcting his diary, however, I can quickly ascertain these needs and give him the words he wants with a slip of my pen.

How does it work? Simple. On the first day of class I tell students that they are to buy a small notebook and keep a diary in English. I explain that I only want them to write a few sentences each day about what they have done, or what they are thinking. Nothing fancy, just a few sentences. The next day I ask everyone to read what they have written, and sometimes I even read the diary I am writing in Spanish to show them that mistakes are acceptable (look how many *she* makes!), to build rapport, and to demonstrate that anyone can do it. I spend only a short part of the period doing this, perhaps fifteen minutes. My focus is totally on content. Occasionally I ask a question or two, "What did you buy at the store?" I never comment on the

SECOND LANGUAGE DIARY

use of the language. Then each day thereafter I have at least two or three people read their diaries, and I remind everyone to keep writing.

On the day of their first in-class writing assignment, worksheet, or quiz, I pick up as many diaries as I can read during their working time, and quickly correct them. From then on, whenever my students are busy in the classroom, I read diaries. It is necessary to keep in mind that I am merely correcting, not criticizing, and not explaining the corrections to any extent. Therefore, the reading goes very quickly. In the beginning I can read through four or five diaries in a class hour. Occasionally I will chat with a student about his/her diary while I am reading, and perhaps I will point out a consistent misuse of a tense or a structure. Now and then, in order to show that they've communicated, I draw a face, or I say "I agree!" or "Yes!"

Which brings me to a warning. You must not be judgmental when you read a student's diary. Don't be picky. Give information, give vocabulary, give correct structures (I simply put the correct word or phrase above the incorrect one). Diaries must always work *for a* student, never against him. I grade with an Ok, Ok+, Ok−, and occasionally a +.

After I have read everyone's diary once (which usually takes the first three or four weeks of class, since my reading time is so spread out), I suggest certain developments in writing style. Initially students tell me the most elemental things about their lives: "I get up. I go to class. I study. I come home. At night I watch T.V." After a few days in class, and a reminder about the past tense (not necessarily related to their diary writing) I often read, "During the weekend I went to church. I studied my lessons. I visited my friend yesterday afternoon. I read some newspapers last night." At this point I suggest that they write more about their thoughts, and that they try ordering their ideas in some sort of logical form. By the end of the semester, I have read all of the diaries at least three times, and I begin to look for paragraph structure. By this time I am apt to read, "This was a beautiful day. The birds sang and the flowers smiled. My boyfriend writes from New York that he loves me and I am very happy."

My students are pleased with the personal attention their diaries receive, and they like having a place to try out language structures of which they are uncertain, knowing that no penalities are attached. I seldom have to have a class on sentence structure, and my students are comfortable writing sentences or short paragraphs on tests because they have been communicating with me in writing every day. We've got a nice thing going.

EVERYDAY EVERYWHERE MATERIALS FOR YOUR CLASSROOM

Editor's Note: The following is excerpted from Everyday Everywhere Materials as Teaching Resources in Adult Basic Education by Marilyn B. Shaw and Mary Roark. The ideas are applicable for teachers of all levels: Sadae Iwataki

Resource Sources

Collecting can be a worthwhile and enriching experience. Even a walk around your own home will turn up many materials that can be converted or used "as is" with classes. A walk around your community, regardless of its size, will produce an almost endless variety of materials for enhancement of classroom activities.

We have adapted a concept of the Australian aborigines, who are tuned in to every subtle marking in their environment. Their survival depends on knowing intimately all possible human and natural resources. They make extensive use of the signs and substance of all that is present; they notice everything. Their example provides us with inspiration to exploit *our* environment and to discover a wealth of productive stimulation for learning. We have found that people in the business world are generous with materials and with encouragement, support, and even advice. It should not be time-consuming to build your collection of everyday, everywhere materials, since you can gather them as you do your own errands.

The following list is not all inclusive; it provides only a sampling of resource sources. We hope it provides you with encouragement to exploit your environment for teaching materials.

Motel/Hotel: maps, recreational brochures, weekly "points of interest" magazines.

Physician's Office: patient information form, child care pamphlets, patient care instructions, health history form.

Restaurant: bills, menus.

Bus Station: travel brochures, bus schedules, luggage tags, Western Union forms, Western Union Money Order.

Gasoline Station: application for credit card, maps.

Fire Department: safety brochures, poison prevention charts, fire prevention brochures.

Telephone Company: personal phone and address booklet, information leaflets on charges, telephone books.

Motor Vehicle Office: change of title form, driver's manual, license plate applications, safe driving brochures.

Industries: job applications, benefits in-

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formation, work forms.

Bank: account applications, withdrawal statements, deposit slips, application for credit cards, brochures on banking services.

Stores: brochures describing items, sales slips, sales tax chart, new car ads

Homes: (Yours and students') appliance manuals, guarantees and warranties, greeting cards, product labels, game instructions and playing materials, cookbooks, measures, containers, tools, bills, dressmaking patterns, occupant mail.

City Hall: job application forms, application for Social Security, application for Copy of Birth Record, tax forms, instruction booklets for tax forms.

(Reprinted from the *CATESOL Newsletter*, January 1978)   TN 9/78

ANECDOTES FOR CROSS-CULTURAL INSIGHTS

ITEM: Janet Hafner of Palomar College tells of an incident in her beginning ESL class for Vietnamese students. One night she wore a favorite piece of jewelry, a large pendant in the shape of an owl. The students, normally warm and relaxed, froze. Finally one of them was able to tell her that, in Asian culture, the owl is the portent of death. An owl perched in a tree outside a house means someone there will die soon.

Comment: Consider the number of educational materials with the "wise old owl" theme, and the commonness of the owl motif in American gifts and decorative accessories. Janet's anecdote could be the beginning of an interesting and relevant discussion for intermediate and advanced classes with Asian students, and help us avoid an upsetting symbol for shell-shocked Indochinese refugees.

ITEM: Pat Anesi of Alemany CCC and Jerrilou Johnson of Oxford U. Press tell of Arab and Latin students who have hissed for a waiter's attention—and have nearly been thrown out of the restaurant for doing so.

Comment: These students' "mistakes" give us another insight into a bit of American cultural behavior which should be discussed, perhaps practiced, in ESL classes which have students of these backgrounds. How many of us would think to talk with our students about polite ways of getting others' attention in this country—unless we knew about this?

ITEM: Elena Garate of USC tells of, and has shown on videotape, the Latin American who was insulted by a well-meaning North American who, when asking about the height of one of the Latin's children, used a gesture that is reserved for animals in many parts of Latin America (arm outstretched, palm down).

Comment: Another "mistake" reveals another aspect of culture that we might wish to cover in class. How would we know unless someone had made that mistake? Would someone from that culture think to tell us about gestural differences? Only if they had been made overtly aware of those differences—probably through someone's mistakes.

The anecdotes above may make you think of others—mistakes made because what was appropriate in one culture was not in another. We may discover them inadvertently in class as Janet did, or from a student's anecdote about his own experience here, as Pat did, or from our own experience with someone of another culture, as in Elena's example.

A collection of these anecdotes would make a useful body of knowledge for teachers to have: 1) for our own interest and heightened sensitivity; and 2) for indications of direct points of inter-cultural conflict—a very practical place to begin in "teaching culture" in the classroom.

Won't you help with this collection? You have probably shared stories like Janet's, Pat's, and Elena's around the teacher's room coffee table. Perhaps your students have anecdotes to tell. You could make a real contribution to other teachers by sharing these anecdotes. Bob Lindberg in the Adult Education Field Services Section of the California State Dept. of Education has offered to distribute the collection to all contributors.

Please send your anecdotes to me (don't forget to include your name, affiliation, and mailing address). Put them down on paper now while the inspiration is fresh, and send to:

Judy E.W.B. Olsen
c/o Alemany Community College
Center
750 Eddy St.
San Francisco, CA 94109

Or, if you prefer, send a cassette tape of your anecdote and I'll type it out myself. Maybe it's time to revive an oral tradition! TN 9-78

VOCABULARY AND THE USE OF CONTEXT IN SCI-TECH ENGLISH

By Robert J. King
University of Florida, Gainesville

Vocabulary—for the student, studying it is the "passport to English"; for the teacher, teaching it is often a panacea for unpreparedness. This would seem to be especially true in scientific/technical English (henceforth sci-tech English), where sentences bristle with esoteric words from Latin and Greek. And although vocabulary is indeed important, there are other, even more pressing considerations in reading to understand. In this article, while I shall look at some specialized uses of general English vocabulary, I shall also emphasize the need to make students aware of the importance of context in English (or in any language, for that matter). I feel that we must make students realize that English is not merely a curious concatenation of phonetic and syntactic units, but that most (or at least many) utterances in English have meaning. Just where that meaning comes from will be discussed later in the article.

This article deals with vocabulary, and yet should we even look at words in isolation? Communicative competence is the current shibboleth in TESOL, and looking at isolated words would seem to run counter to this model. Yet there were my students, screeching to a halt when they did not understand a word in the passage. The braver ones might have gone on, but if they encountered some or two more unfamiliar words, they usually gave up on the passage. Even when I explained the unknown words, the students had problems with the meaning of the passage.

Why, I wondered, do my students worry so much about words (even the students at the advanced level were concerned with learning a large vocabulary)?

According to Halliday, meaning is the function of words in a context, so it is *context* that determines meaning, *not a specific word or group of words.* And this is, I believe, what communicative competence is largely about—learning a language in its various contexts.

We can now turn to the second part of this article, viz. vocabulary in sci-tech English. What do we mean by "general English vocabulary"? In this case, it means all the words in a scientific/technical text, minus the technical words. We shall see that this statement is not entirely accurate, but it will suffice here for the purpose of general description.

When looking at scientific texts, I saw four categories of words: 1) obviously technical words; 2) words appropriated by science; 3) words using less frequent definitions; 4) general usage words.

Consider these sentences:

(1) With the introduction of *instrumental* methods of silicate analysis during the last decade, ...

(2) An electronic computer processes the punched tape by *subtracting* the *backgrounds*, . . .

(3) The inhibitory effect of glucagon is not influenced by a *sympathetic* blocking agent, . . .

(4) . . . it seems fairly certain that a good deal of the *scatter* on our calibration plots is due to wet chemical errors. (I have italicized only some of the words that I consider to be in categories 2 and 3, which are the categories I shall consider in this article.)

In (1), we can see examples of categories 1, 3, and 4. The majority of the words are general usage words, but *silicate* is obviously a technical word. *Instrumental* has the infrequent definition of "using a mechanical instrument" (instead of the more usual musical instrument; also, we usually see this word in sentences such as "His vote was instrumental"). Thus, I would classify *instrumental* as a category 3 word. Looking at (2), we see that *subtracting* is probably a category 3 word, while *backgrounds* is a category 2 word. (3) contains another clear-cut category 2 word (*sympathetic*). In (4), *scatter* should probably be included in category 3, since students might well be able to understand this word through extension. *Wet*, on the other hand, seems less amenable to this consideration.

From these examples, we can see that category 1 is obviously not general English vocabulary; hence, we shall not look at it. Category 4 is general English, most of which the students (i.e., advanced students) should know; in terms of this article, it would not be profitable to look at such words. Category 3 is also general English but uses words in a manner not usually found in general reading. This category might also include words with extended meanings, e.g. *subtract* in example (2). For category 2, some may claim that it, like category 1, should be excluded from this paper, since it includes technical words. Yet, since the words in this category *look* like general English vocabulary, the students may try to fit one of the general dictionary meanings onto these words. Thus, this category is of interest to us.

How, then, are categories 2 and 3 important? Usually, when we teach vo-

cabulary, we try to make the students understand that they can often get the meaning from the context (if they do not already know the word). In this case, we are trying to get the student to realize that, even though they know the word, their general knowledge is probably not enough to get the meanings of these categories of words. In short, we are trying to get the students to see that these two categories of words require special handling.

How can we do this? It seems to me that the first important step is to make the students aware that sci-tech English sometimes uses general vocabulary words in special ways; that is, we must help them see that sci-tech English uses different contexts from general English. Dr. Byrd of the University of Florida has suggested that the student skim the passage to determine the general context. Once the students realize that a certain text is of a scientific/technical nature, and if they know that these texts sometimes use general English in a special way, then we have made an important first step.

Grammar and or function can often help in determining meaning. In example (4), the syntactic clues (viz. the definite article with *scatter*) clearly rule out the possibility of the word being a verb, the usual function in general English. From here, the students might extend the meaning of the verb to the noun; in this case, it works. *Transitional words and phrases* help in obvious ways. *Affixes* can be especially helpful in sci-tech English. Strevens has pointed out that every scientist should know about fifty prefixes, thirty suffixes, and one hundred roots. These and other contextual clues should help distinguish category 2 from category 3. More specifically, if the students can understand the word from contextualization or through extension, then the word probably belongs to category 3; if they cannot, then it is likely to be category 2.

There are problems with this approach, however. If a student fails to get the meaning of the word by contextualizing, s/he may decide that this word is a category 2 word, when in reality, there may not have been enough contextual clues, and the word is actually a category 3 word. With practice however, I believe much of this problem could be overcome.

To sum up, then, the most important step in facilitating foreign students' scientific/technical reading is to make them realize that these texts sometimes use seemingly general English vocabulary in non-general ways. From there, we might be able to help them recognize the differences between categories 2 and 3 by teaching them to effectively use contextual clues. TN 9/78

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IT WORKS

By Darlene Larson
New York University

The last few years have seen our profession sharing many ideas about how to get students talking. "Mistakes" may not be nearly as important as we used to think they were. It may very well be that in language acquisition, communication comes first and grammar later. (Widdowson, TESOL 78 plenary) Experience has led a number of classroom teachers to ease their concern for accuracy and get students talking first. But sooner or later, students become aware of the difference between their pronunciation of English and a native speaker's pronunciation, and they often ask for help. Other students are being misunderstood and need to have help offered. What kind of help can we give?

An experienced teacher at NYU, the late Professor Milton McPherson used to tell us, "An explanation has to be simple. A complicated explanation is a description, and it is of little use to students. The useful aids are the simple ones." It is difficult to think of improving on Mac's work, but I think a better word for explanation is direction. An explanation and a description are often one and the same. And many students can understand the explanation—are, indeed, fascinated with it—but can't translate that understanding into production. What kind of direction can we give students once they want to make a change in their oral production?

McPherson's wealth of experience has not yet been put into print but he left notes and we all hope they'll be made available eventually. Among other gems that he shared freely are these:

R = WR. For those students who have some facility with written English but trouble with pronunciation, tell them to "think WR" for R. It works. For those who are not burdened by an orientation to the written form, but, nevertheless, have trouble with R, the key is lip-rounding. We often stress a few tricks with the tongue when aiding students to pronounce the American R, but rarely mention lip-rounding. Try it.

Timing. Many vowels in the accented parts of the American English intonation contour are held far longer than average syllable time in other languages like Spanish or Chinese. The glottal stops in Chinese make unbelievably short syllables. According to McPherson, an instruction to a speaker of Chinese to hold the ah in hot is far more important than to work on the production of the final t. Vowel length in the stressed words of the English intonation contour is so long that McPherson pre-

ferred the term "drawl." It is especially important before t, p, k, f, th, ch, and sh.

Exaggeration is a third direction he recommended. He claimed that "punching" "blowing" and "drawling" to an exaggerated degree on the part of the informant, usually brought students somewhere close to the norm when they thought they were exaggerating.

A few more techniques that I have found useful:

For those having trouble with L, bite the tongue (gently, of course), and try to make a sound.

Intonation marks on the blackboard aid pronunciation immensely for some students but I have never found textbooks filled with large dots and small dots of any efficient use. Many visual systems adopted by textbook publishers are too complicated.

A problem pronunciation pair for many students is an eraser and a razor. I have explained and described these two from every angle. Articles, syllables, /s/ vs. /z/. Students listen and nod in wonderful comprehension. But when I hold up a picture of a razor, I am likely to hear 80% of the class speak of the eraser behind me. A couple semesters ago I wrote — — — for an eraser, and — — for a razor. To my pleasure, the percent of success was just about reversed.

Another benefit of an easy direction is that students sometimes practice it by themselves. After stressing lip-rounding for R, I have noticed students at break practicing by themselves. With — — / — in their notebooks, I have seen students tapping their pens on the desk while looking at the notes they have just taken.

Student initiative is an essential ingredient for moving these isolated successful productions into the stream of speech. Student-operated tape recorders are another method of helping students take charge of their own pronunciation efforts. The opportunity to listen to himself while free of the burden of getting his thoughts together is valuable. Students who begin listening to their own English are often more critical than anyone else about what they hear.

Comparison with a native speaker can be helpful for some students. I have recently suggested that teachers might tape a short news announcement or commercial on the radio. Transcribe that short announcement and give it to the students in its written form. Let them practice changing the written form to spoken English and when they are ready, have them record themselves. After students have recorded themselves, play the recording of the radio announcer that you originally made. Let the students make whatever comparisons that are important to them.

One minimal contrast may be enough. I recently asked Florence Baskoff of NYU what works in her classes. Since she has written a book on guided composition, I expected to hear about a technique for teaching writing. Much to my surprise, she came up with a pronunciation technique. And it is simple. Everyone in her class gets a name of a famous person. The name contains the problem sound of the student. For example, Baskoff suggests that a person having trouble with /ch/ might be "Charlie Chaplin" in English class. I've already decided that my Japanese girl who is having trouble with both initial and final l is going to be Lauren Bacall. Baskoff claims that as the semester moves along, there is a carry over to other pronunciation activities, other oral occasions, from this practice of just one name.

This reminds me of another experience I've had which seemed to work. It comes from an early lesson with a junk box containing a number of things which put minimal pairs into reality— a pin and a pen, a net and a knot—in which students had to ask for something, i.e. "Give me a pen." The impact of being given a pin when one thought one was asking for a pen seems to be a profound experience regarding the importance of those two sounds in English. Student care and attention to those two sounds following such an experience long outlasts any results from the repetition of 100 minimal differences.

Some teachers are afraid to move students toward normal speed and intonation in their oral production, fearing that such speech habits will hinder writing habits. "If I encourage him to drawl the vowel and slight the t in hot, for example, he'll forget to write the t when writing," is a common reaction in some circles. It points to the necessity of addressing ourselves often, both in ESL classes and in teacher education programs, to the difference between speech and writing. One is not a careful representation of the other and we do our students an injustice to lead them to believe that the two go together smoothly.

One of the best exercises to re-emphasize this important difference is dictation. I use it early and give students three possibilities from which to choose. Their papers may read:

1. It is a bathroom.
   It is a bedroom.
   It is a bad room, but

I will pronounce only one of these at normal speed and intonation. They have to circle what they hear.

Later, they have to fill in parts of the utterance. Their papers may show: It __ bedroom. And I'll pro-

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NEW BL PUBLICATIONS

language maintenance and language shift, political perspectives on bilingual education and several others.

Each chapter presents a thorough, well-documented discussion together with valuable references for further reading.

While the first book under review is essentially a one-man contribution, the second book, *Bilingualism in Early Childhood*, edited by William F. Mackey and Theodore Andersson, is a collection of twenty-nine papers by thirty-four authors or coauthors. These papers, some of them written by outstanding experts in their respective fields, such as Joshua A. Fishman, Sarah Gudschinsky, Mary Ritchie Key, Wallace E. Lambert, William F. Mackey, Bernard Spolsky, to name only a few, were originally presented at the Conference on Child Language, held in Chicago in 1971.

The editors rearranged the papers into eight separate sections indicative of the broad scope of the book's coverage: theory and method, early language learning, family bilingualism, bilingualism and society, planning preschool and planning the primary curriculum, case studies of school bilingualism, policy and research.

Each section can be read separately and many papers present a wealth of reference sources for further study.

Professor Henry Trueba and a group of his graduate students at the University of Illinois, one of the few doctoral programs in bilingual/bicultural education, have complied a most useful bibliography on bilingual/bicultural education and on related topics. Their book is divided into three parts. Part I contains six major divisions. Each of these divisions has several subcategories, bibliographies, and bilingual/bi-cultural perspectives. Part II presents a combined author and subject index. Part III contains a complete list of all references listed alphabetically by authors' names.

What makes this bibliography especially valuable is the distinct effort of the compilers to treat bilingual bicultural education not as a separate and distinctly delimited discipline but rather as a wide area of overlapping fields of study. Their impressive work includes over one thousand entries consisting of books, articles, papers, government documents and other materials, even from areas only indirectly related to bilingual/bicultural education.   *TN 11/78*

IT WORKS

nounce, "It's a bedroom," at normal speed and intonation. Or, their paper may have: Fork   spoon   table. And I will pronounce, "Forks 'n spoons 're on the table."

Mary Hines has devised a format for this type of slotted dictation exercise which will provide students with immediate comparison of speech and writing. If Hines were preparing an exercise of the utterance just mentioned, her paper would look like this:

Fork   spoon   table.
   s   and   s are on the

Students would be instructed to fold the bottom of their papers up to the top until all they could see would be the first utterance. (One has to plan things that will fit across one line.) After listening to the pronunciation, students attempt to write the written form of the speech they just heard, then slide their paper down to see what the intended answer was.

None of these techniques contains any magic. One technique may be useful for three students, another for two, and a third may help two more. Then, the fact that those seven students are improving their English will influence three more. (Some learn from their peers exactly what their peers learned from the teacher the day before.) Then ten students have moved closer to their goals. But there are several more students in the classroom. Every teacher has effective techniques. What additional suggestions can you add? Send them to the *Newsletter* for future additions to this column.   *TN 11/78.*

HOT RODS

By Larry Cisar
Tokyo, Japan

A lot of teachers have been buying Cuisinaire rods to teach grammar. The Silent Way has made them very popular for this. But a lot of us have other types of classes. Can the rods be used in them? At Athénée Francais, I have taught several speech conversation classes. I have had fairly good success using the rods in them. I have been using them in several different ways. Following are six different techniques that I use in class to promote conversation. They are not the only techniques that I use but they are some of the more effective ones.

Before getting into how to use them, there are two important points to keep in mind. First, rods are tools. As tools they are not perfect. They do not solve all the problems of conversation classes. Some students will not like working with rods. Others will get bored with them after a short time. The teacher must be aware of this. The second point is that the specific technique is not as important as the language experience. If students start altering your carefully laid out rules, do not panic. Unless you have a specific reason for that rule, let them change it. Being familiar with Community Language Learning will help you to keep these points in mind and to work effectively with them.

As to the techniques themselves, the first one is called Islamabad. A good demonstration of this was given by Betsy Bedell at the KALT meeting in March of this year. One student takes the rods and builds a place that the others have not seen. The student describes it to them. The others ask questions, add commentary and redescribe it. The teacher acts as a language counsellor. His or her role is to provide unknown vocabulary or structures. If the target language for some idea is not available it can be glossed over. One or two minor points do not destroy a language experience. My students like it. They usually do something simple the first time. After that, they get more complex as they build their confidence.

My students came up with three variations of this which they like. The first was to have one of them build the area around his house. He would describe the neighborhood telling what stores, buildings, and other features there were and where they were. The others would listen carefully and freely ask questions. They needed to find out and remember as much as they possibly could about the neighborhood. After the students understood the map, the first student would give directions on how to find his house. The others had to follow the directions and locate the house. After-

wards, they discussed why they had hadn't had trouble locating the house. Again the teacher was there primarily to offer the language.

The second variation was to build a map of a well-known area and talk about it. Although it was familiar to all of them, there were a lot of disagreements. They found that there were different ideas as to what was where. They became so involved in what they were doing that they did not realize how involved their language had become.

The third variation was to design a model city. The group decided what they would like to see in the perfect city and where they would want to live. They set the limit of only what was possible with modern technology. They did not want to try to use future developments. As they went along, they had to compromise as to what was to be included and excluded. They made themselves justify what they did to the city. When they located their home in the city, they had to explain why they wanted to be in that neighborhood. All of this was organized by them.

Islamabad and the variations presented here are good activities for students who are using Morley's Improving Aural Comprehension. Once they have done the unit on spatial relationships, they are ready to work with their own ideas and concepts.

I find that the above work best with upper level students. The lower level students tend to be overawed by them. The second technique is also for use by upper level students. This activity is often used on native speakers of a language to show how imprecise they are when talking. I use it to show students that they need to be precise when trying to convey ideas.

The actual procedure is really very simple. You have two students sitting at desks facing each other. Between them you put a barrier that they cannot see over or around. Each has the same number and color rods. Student A starts to build something and tells B what he is doing. B tries to duplicate exactly what A is building. I provide limits as to the type of conversation that can take place between the two. Four simple limitations are 1.) B cannot say anything. 2.) A can ask yes/no questions and B can answer only using yes or no, 3.) A can ask "WH" questions and B can answer them, and 4.) B can ask the questions and A can answer. There are more variations that can be used. During this exercise the teacher must establish how much vocabulary he will give. To check survival ability, give no vocabulary. To encourage more information exchange, give a lot of vocabulary. The important thing is to decide the limitations at the beginning, announce them to the stu-

dents and stick to them.

This exercise is more difficult than it at first seems and can easily lead to frustration. I usually put a ten-minute time limit on each team. With a really weak student, five minutes is a good maximum.

The third technique works best with low intermediate students. You have them sit in a group (a circle around a small table works nicely.) One person spells out a word with the blocks and then tells how it relates to him. One example, a student spelled out the word "mountain" and then told the group about her trip to Mt. Akegi the day before. The group asked her about visiting mountains. The discussion that followed resulted in several students talking about the word.

The fourth technique is closely related to the third. Instead of a word, the student makes a symbol and tells how it relates to him. The activity becomes more personal as symbols often do not mean much to others. One student made a peace symbol. It was something personal, out of his life, that he wanted to share. The conversation centered around his ideas and did not expand into others' ideas as technique three did. This was done in a low intermediate class.

The fifth technique builds up from the previous two. Here the discussion is established without the rods. The rods are used to help illustrate a point, show a position or just give a picture of what they mean. The rods are used as moveable drawing tools. The students are not using them to initiate the exchange. The exchanges are initiating the use of the rods. If the students can use the rods well in this type of exercise, they are ready to use the first two techniques mentioned in this article.

The last technique I will present can be used with almost any level. A value is placed on each color. For example, black might mean present perfect and yellow personal pronoun. A student picks up the colors that he wants to use and makes a story using them. The first few times the student should be allowed to choose what he wants. Once the student is good at it, he can be given a blind draw. With the blind draw the student needs more time to think over his story. Also he should not be limited to only what he draws. The important point is to get him to use them correctly in his story. The blind draw should be limited to five so it does not get too complicated.

This technique can also be used for group work. The group writes the story or dialogue using the rods drawn. The number of variations to this simple technique is unlimited.

HOT RODS

These are only some of the ways that rods can be used in conversation classes. A little thinking and you can probably come up with more. The best source for these are your students. They have shown me more about using rods than I have shown them. One important thing I have found is to let the students do the activity. Let them talk and use the language. If the teacher takes over, interest dies. Moreover, the students do not get to express themselves. Language is expressing yourself. Freedom to work with the rods is vital. PN 11 78

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INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION — GEORGETOWN U. ROUNDTABLE ON LANGUAGES & LINGUISTICS

Robert Illwitzer
Northeastern Illinois University

The annual Round Table, long an event in applied linguistics, continues to expand in size, but the seats are no softer and the Hall of Nations, no larger. This year's Event saw (heard) over forty speakers, each granted thirty minutes to disseminate his knowledge to an over-capacity crowd. As expected, some speakers said nothing well, while others said it badly, but there were more than enough good papers to uphold the tradition of information and stimulation that we associate with the Round Table. The University, the conference staff and the participants are to be congratulated.

Noel Epstein of the *Washington Post*

NATIONAL CLEARINGHOUSE FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION STARTS OPERATIONS

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) recently opened its offices in Arlington, Virginia. As authorized by Congress under PL 93-380 (amended, 1974), the National Institute of Education in cooperation with the Office of Bilingual Education awarded a three-year contract for Clearinghouse operation to InterAmerica Research Associates, with the Center for Applied Linguistics as subcontractor, to provide technical assistance.

The main goal of the Clearinghouse is "to promote and enhance the quality of bilingual education by serving as the principal national information center designed to collect, analyze, and disseminate information to meet the needs of the bilingual education community." The in-

LIMITED LEGAL VICTORY FOR LIMITED SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

In late February, a limited legal victory was won by a limited English speaker who alleged that he had been discriminated against because of his inability to speak English fluently.

In the case, the defendant had been arrested for driving under the influence of alcohol. The police, after "warning" the defendant, in English, of his rights against self-incrimination (the so-called "Miranda" rights), took a number of potentially incriminating statements from him. The police also read to the defendant, in English, his rights under the complexly worded "Implied Consent Law," which indicates one's rights to refuse to take a blood test. The police claimed that the defendant "consented" to take such a test after having understood their reading of those rights.

At an evidentiary hearing called by the defendant to supress that evidence, the police claimed that the defendant understood English sufficiently to comprehend those rights. In opposition to that testimony, the defendant called Donna Ilyin, as an expert witness in the field of testing English as a foreign language. Mrs. Ilyin testified that she administered four tests to the defendant —the Ilyin Oral Interview; two "cloze" tests, one involving the wording of the "Implied Consent" statute and the "Miranda" warnings against self-incrimination; and an oral examination concerning the wordings of those items. She testified that on the basis of those tests, it was her expert opinion that the defendant had only a "limited" understanding of English and could not have understood the warnings which the police read to him.

The defense argued that since the defendant had not effectively understood those warnings, the law required suppression of the evidence obtained in violation of them. The judge agreed

with a substantial portion of the argument of the defense. He first held that notwithstanding the testimony of the police, he was convinced by Mrs. Ilyin's testimony that the defendant in fact had not understood the warnings which the police had read to him. He held that the statements taken by the police were not preceded by an effective warning to the defendant of his constitutional rights against self-incrimination, and they therefore could not be used by the prosecution at the defendant's trial. As to the blood tests taken by the police which were not preceded by the required statutory warnings, the judge reasoned that since unconscious persons are deemed to have consented to take such a test, the defendant, although not unconscious, similarly should be deemed to have consented.

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

By virtue of the authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and statutes of the United States of America, and in accordance with the provisions of the Federal Advisory Committee Act (5 U.S.C. App. I), it is hereby ordered as follows:

SECTION 1. *Establishment.* (a) There is hereby established the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, hereinafter referred to as the Commission.

(b) The Commission shall consist of not more than twenty-five members to be appointed by the President, one of whom shall be designated by the President to chair the Commission.

SEC. 2. *Functions.* (a) The Commis-

LIMITED LEGAL VICTORY

(*Editor's note: The following is excerpted in part from a letter written by Donna Ilyin, explaining in detail the tests and procedures she used at the hearing discussed above.*)

"I used the following four evaluations:

(1) **Ilyin Oral Interview.** He scored 43 points. (No appropriate responses; two were grammatically correct, and he had 9 complete misses). He was consistent in the errors he made. He had trouble understanding instructions, which had to be repeated, but he finally understood tasks. His speech was accented, but understandable. The score of 43 placed him at the beginning-intermediate level (in the San Francisco Adult Education ESL Program).

The judge accepted the man's test page as evidence relative to the case. Although it was not customary to have three scorers for my interview, I wanted to check scorer reliability and had two other people score with me when I gave the man the interview. They scored his performance at 41 and 42.

(2) **The Poor Simpleton**, multiple-choice cloze test by Jon Jonz. ("Improving on the Basic Egg," *Language Learning*, 1976)

The test is easy to take and provides diagnostic information. My *Oral Interview* had given the man an ESL rating at the beginning of our 'intermediate' level. In the spring of 1977, we had given the Jonz test to 705 students at the intermediate levels. 137 at the same beginning-intermediate level as the defendant also took the test. The scores at that level ranged from 7-30 and the median was 21.37. The defendant in this case scored 13. The judge accepted the defendant's test as evidence.

(3) An **Oral Listening Comprehension Test**, based on the statements of the "Implied Consent" and the "Miranda" requirements. The procedure was as follows:

(a) I read the Implied Consent statements at a "normal" rate of speech.
(b) I asked simply worded and structured questions about the implied consent section: (the man was instructed to base his answers on what I read, not on what had happened to him).
(c) The man answered in English and then expanded and elaborated in Spanish, telling me what he thought the statements in the Implied Consent meant. He did not understand that he could choose to take only one test. He didn't believe he could refuse a policeman anything. He didn't

know what would happen if anyone did refuse. He confused *blow* with *blood*.
(d) Then I read the Miranda Statements, again at a normal rate and again only one time.
(e) Again I asked a series of simple questions with alternate ways to get at the same information.
(f) Again the man answered first in limited English and then elaborated in Spanish. He thought he had to talk to the police. He thought he could get a lawyer if he needed one, if he were guilty. He did not know he could be silent and wait to talk to an attorney first.

(4) **A Cloze test** based on the Implied Consent and Miranda Statements. Alice Pack had noted ("Instant Involvement—Those Valuable First Minutes in the ESL Classroom," *TESL Reporter*, Winter 1976) that often listening comprehension is much lower than reading comprehension as content can not be reviewed. I wanted to see if the man could even understand the statements if he had time to read them over and over.

To get a reading comprehension level for the material, one which would probably be higher than the simple listening comprehension test I had devised on the same material, I used Haskell's recommendation for determining if material is too difficult to be read. (John Haskell, "Read This! But How Do I know if they can?", *TESOL-Gram* Dec. 1974, and "Refining the Cloze Procedure for ESL", *English Record*, Winter 1975). The student scored at the frustration level, but he did understand what he was expected to do when he began. He did put in words.

Since I wanted to know how his level would compare with students in our ESL levels; the cloze test was administered to 16 students in a lower level class (a second level beginning class), (Remember, the defendant had been very low on the Jonz test), and to 31 students at a slightly higher level (a second level intermediate class). I scored the same way, giving one point for each time the student used the original word. The highest score was made by a student in the second level intermediate class, 33%, which meant that even at a higher level, the material was at the frustration level.

In addition to the above tests, I showed the Implied Consent and Miranda statements to about 10 "experts" in ESL. These were teachers of ESL with MA's in Language and Linguistics or in TESL/TEFL and with at least 5 years teaching experience with adult ESL teaching. They all agreed that statements were too complex for the students at the beginning or intermedi-

ate levels (levels as determined by our program).

During the one and a half hours I was on the witness stand, the District Attorney asked me questions about the relationship of the intelligence and education of the client to his ability to understand the statements. She quizzed me in general about the relationships of intelligence and levels of education of English proficiency.

I emphasized that our beginning students, in adult programs, had wide ranges of education in their own school systems and that even in our advanced classes there were wide ranges of education levels.

Perhaps others in TESOL will have similar experiences helping foreign language speakers. Dr. Eugene Briere at USC recently was an expert witness for a Thai who had a high educational level in his country but a low English proficiency. *TN 6/78*

ENGLISH-LANGUAGE NEWSPAPERS OVERSEAS: MATERIAL FOR EXTENSIVE READING

By Michael Dobbyn
University of Nairobi

Lady Middleton . . . . exerted herself to ask Mr. Palmer if there was any news in the paper. 'No, none at all,' he replied, and read on. (Jane Austen: Sense and Sensibility)

A good supply of materials for extensive reading by intermediate and advanced students is difficult to provide where money is scarce and classes are large. With the rapid expansion of secondary education in developing countries there has been little chance of building up sizeable school libraries. Even where there has been, those responsible for the allocation of funds have been understandably reluctant to be generous in the 'reading for pleasure' section. Typically, purchases in the area of science, vocational education, social sciences, hobbies and sports have been of the near-textbook type. Students go to such books for detailed information —for intensive rather than extensive reading. Again, the literature on the English shelves is more likely to include unsimplified classics, few of which are contemporary in setting or deal with topics of passionate interest to the average or below-average student and fewer still of which are short and can be skimmed.

The one cheap available source of up-to-date material is the newspaper. A lot of pupils want to know how sports teams are doing, or who married whom. Even adults keep an eye on local scandals and business news.

This is no discovery. For years teacher trainees have been urged to build up files of newspaper and magazine cuttings to supplement class libraries. Moreover, many school libraries take the local English-language newspaper.

A question which has seldom been pursued with much rigour is that of the appropriateness of newspapers for EFL readers. As to suitability of content there is little doubt: a good newspaper has something for everybody—provided he can read it. And here is the crux. How readable are English-language newspapers in countries where English is a foreign or second language? Who can read them with comprehension and enjoyment?

The answers to these questions will vary enormously with the paper and the situation in which it is published. The *Athens News*, for example, is written almost solely for the foreign community in Greece. The *Times of India* is a high-level newspaper for educated Indians. The *Nation* (Kenya) is essentially an

English version of the Kiswahili *Taifa*, for the majority of Kenyans whose mother tongue is not Kiswahili. Whatever the context, however, we are still left with questions about the readability of the paper, questions such as "Is the editorial too hard for the sixth form?" and 'Which class is able to read the sports page?'.

Klare (1976) has shown that, without special training, few professional writers can subjectively rank a number of passages according to ease of reading. Assigning isolated passages to particular classroom levels is even harder. The inexperienced class-teacher is unlikely to fare better than the professionals.

Luckily we have a plethora of 'readability formulas' which can be applied more or less mechanically to a text to determine its level. Some of these formulas appear naive. Lewerenz (1929) judges readability by comparing the number of words beginning with 'l' and 'c' with those beginning with 'h', 'b', and 'w'. Other formulas, e.g. Patty and Painter's (1931), are cumbersome, though possibly more reliable. Cloze procedure measures of readability take a more pragmatic 'try-it-on-the-dog' approach and essentially find out from the children themselves which passages are hard and which easy. This, however, is all back to front for the classroom teacher's purposes.

A simple readability formula and one which correlates reasonably well with other widely used techniques is Robert Gunning's 'Fox Index', as described in his *The Technique of Clear Writing* (1952). It is based on two factors, both of which he defines and qualifies: (1) average sentence length, and (2) the percentage of three-or-more-syllable words in the passage. The Fox Index indicates the number of years of formal education a reader will usually need to be able to read a passage easily. For example, a passage indexed as '9' will be suitable for Form 2 secondary-school pupils in a 7-primary + 6-secondary school system. The indexing technique is described later in this article. It is quite quick. A passage of one hundred words (an adequate sample) can be 'fox-indexed' in four or five minutes without difficulty or reference books.

The present writer suggests that EFL teachers round the world might, with profit, use Gunning's technique to index their local English-language newspapers so as to establish their suitability for assignment as extensive reading material. An African example follows.

The two most widely read English-language newspapers in East Africa are the privately-owned *The Nation* (Kenya) and *The East African Standard*. The *Nation* has a daily readership of about 600,000. *The Standard* about 100,000.

Between them about one tenth of the adult population of Kenya is reached. *The Nation* appears seven days a week and *The Standard* six. Each regular issue costs the equivalent of 7p and contains about thirty pages. If the readability level is right, this is good value as extensive reading materials go.

During April 1977 five consecutive issues of each paper were chosen and ten passages of approximately one hundred words each were selected at random from each of the following categories:

(1) Front page story; (2) World news; (3) Local news; (4) Yesterday in Parliament; (5) Editorial; (6) Mailbox; (7) Business news; (8) Film reviews; (9) Small advertisements; (10) Sports. A total of one hundred passages, fifty from each paper, was thus established as the corpus. Each passage was then separately indexed for readability and the averages for each category obtained. The results were as follows:

Category	STANDARD	NATION
(1) Front page story	13.84	11.92
(2) World news	13.34	14.76
(3) Local news	14.42	13.12
(4) Yesterday in Parliament	16.20	11.42
(5) Editorial	23.34	14.20
(6) Mailbox	15.28	9.76
(7) Business news	12.82	12.26
(8) Film reviews	15.42	13.68
(9) Small advertisements	20.68	15.36
(10) Sports	10.72	10.02
Overall average	15.61	12.65

At first sight these results appear so unlikely that some explanation is called for. It would seem from the above figures that the *Nation* is suitable only for fifth-form pupils and above and that the *Standard* would require an education even beyond the sixth.

The facts, however, appear to confirm the accuracy of the indexing. First, we have comparable figures from other papers, and second we must consider the nature of Gunning's norms.

(1) Research at the Center for English Language Research and Teaching of the American University of Beirut a few years ago provided the following indices using the Gunning formula:

True Confessions 7
Ladies' Home Journal 8
Readers' Digest 9
Time Magazine 10

Readers of these periodicals would probably agree that they seem subjectively 'easier' than the average newspaper.

(2) All Gunning's norms were derived from observation of native speak-

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ers of English. If the indices for the East African newspapers seem high, then we should remember that for second-language-English speakers they would be even higher, possibly by a year or more.

On the other hand, it is manifestly not true that, for example, of the 600,000 readers of the *Nation* most have completed secondary education. We know in fact that less than half have done so.[1]

How then do we explain the paradox that for most of the people who read the paper it is too difficult, yet circulation increases steadily from month to month.

The solution lies in the concept of 'readership', about which we may make three observations:

——(a) A newspaper is bought, typically, by a family. It may be read in several different ways. One member, say the father, may have enough education to read it comfortably and quickly (extensive reading). Another, say the mother, with less education, may read the women's page slowly (intensive reading), and with partial comprehension assisted by the pictures. A third person —a child for example—will do no more than read the comics and look at the

[1] Information from *Readership Statistics*, National Media Survey, Nairobi, 1975.

illustrations. All three appear as 'readers' in the statistics.

(b) A newspaper is bought for information. Only a very low level of reading ability is required to discover what is on at the cinema, who won the match, or which lottery tickets have been drawn.

(c) As can be seen from the above figures, the reading index will vary considerably between the various sections of the paper. e.g. Mailbox 9+, small advertisement 15—. Most readers can read something, but not everyone can read everything.

To return by way of conclusion to our main theme, the suitability of English-language newspapers as extensive reading for our pupils, we must regretfully admit that as far as the East African papers are concerned they are appropriate only for the fifth form and above.

As suggested earlier, other TEFL teachers elsewhere might do well to calculate the reading index of their local English-language newspapers. By way of persuading them to do so the present writer would simply add that he spent several sessions with the staff of one of the papers concerned, who gave him every help and encouragement. After all, they want to increase their circulation figures, and if this can be done by lowering the readability index, the techniques for doing so (e.g. using shorter sentences and fewer polysyllables) are something they want to know about.

Calculating the Fog Index

A. 1. Take a sample of approximately 100 words, cutting off the sample at the nearest full stop.

2. Break up compound sentences (but not complex ones) into simple sentences.

3. Calculate the average sentence length in number of words. We will call this figure ASL.

B. 1. Calculate the percentage of three-or-more syllable words. In this count do not include: (a) proper nouns (b) composite words of the type *nightwatchman, innkeeper, softhearted* (c) words that have a third syllable only because of simple tense or number inflection, like *resisted* or *dispatches*.

2. We will call the percentage of words thus obtained TSW.

C. Now add ASL to TSW and multiply the result by 0.4. The result obtained is the readability index in terms of years of schooling.

Example:

The first 107 words of this article (beginning 'A good supply ●' and ending with '. . . extensive reading') contain five sentences. ASL, therefore is 21.4. Of these 107 words, 22 contain three or more syllables. TSW, therefore is 20.6 per cent. Adding ASL to TSW and multiplying by 0.4, we get a readability index of 16 plus. (Suitable for graduates)

TN 11/78