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Language Ecology*

Joe Darwin Palmer

Most people, including language teachers, lack knowledge and understanding of the true situation of language in the real world. Such teachers perpetuate folk beliefs and attitudes to the detriment of their pupils. People in authority who make policy decisions about languages are often the most ignorant in regard to language. They inadvertently use language policy to maintain repression and confusion because they are ignorant of the ecology of language. Language ecology is a metaphorical conceit that enables us to organize our knowledge about the spoken and written manifestations of language. It gives us a set of questions that helps us know more about what we ought to do in the classroom, and about the political, social, cultural, and psychological consequences of language teaching.

There are a thousand ways of talking and words don't help if the spirit is absent.

—Henry Miller, The Colossus of Maroussi

One of the greatest problems facing a foreign language teacher is that he and his students often have nothing to say to each other. As Stevick has pointed out, a teacher cannot teach effectively unless he organizes the lessons so that their social and topical dimensions lead to occasions for language use which the students find useful, specific, stimulating and open ended (1971: 54). I have on occasion observed futile and even harmful classroom exercises, weakened even further by the inability of the teacher to relate the lesson to the when and how of language use, that is, to animate it, to give it spirit, in spite of his training as a foreign-language teacher. If the teacher and his students have nothing to say to each other, we can be sure that the students will not learn anything to say to anyone else. In such a situation we cannot blame the students for reticence. They are usually so respectful of the teacher that they dare not intrude. Furthermore, their first goal in the course is probably a good final grade instead of language competence. So the responsibility for having something to say to the students falls on the shoulders of the teacher. And how is he to have something to say?

* An earlier version of this paper was read at the 1973 TESOL Convention, San Juan, Puerto Rico, under the title “The Language Policy Course and Language Ecology.” Mr. Palmer is Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Sir George Williams University TESL Centre, Montreal, Quebec, Canada. He has taught in Greece, Egypt, Somalia, Thailand, and Quebec, as well as at the University of Michigan ELI. He is at present working on a reading-English textbook and a contrastive study of Canadian French dialects and General American English and has just completed a novel about Siam that he hopes to publish soon.
I suggest that an answer to this question may be implicit in a common observation: A good teacher is more effective during his second year on the job than he is during the first year, and consequently we expect a good, experienced teacher to do a better job than a beginner. With experience a teacher acquires an understanding of his students that is informed by his knowledge of the groups to which they belong. One might say that the teacher’s effectiveness is proportional to how well he understands his students’ culture, in the broadest sense.

But culture is not quite the right word. Many well-educated native speakers of English with years of foreign residence and strong foreign acculturation become weak and fumbling foreign language teachers when they are pressed into service, mostly because, I think, they are ignorant about language. Given in-service training in foreign language methodology, they improve somewhat as teachers, yet they cling to false ideas about language—their own and their students’. Like the laymen that they are, they perpetuate folk attitudes toward language and society and the individual. It is often not knowledge of culture that they lack; it is knowledge of the place of their students’ language in determining and reflecting culture. Likewise, they do not understand the “systematic covariance of linguistic structure and social structure” which sociolinguistics tries to demonstrate (Bright 1966).

In his Sociolinguistics Bright shows the dimensions of the sociologists’ concern with language: (1) the existence of class dialects as they reflect social stratification; (2) special linguistic forms which show respect or the lack of it; (3) the settings and contexts of certain styles; (4) the relation between synchronic and diachronic language study; (5) folk linguistics; (6) the extent of diversity of languages within a group; and (7) how language policy is applied in social planning, in education, and in public administration.

Now all this material is the same subject matter that is studied, with different particular interests and approaches, under the names ethno-linguistics, linguistic anthropology, sociology of language, language change, bilingualism, language variability, language contact, language standardization, and even to some extent psycholinguistics. These several names of fields of study subsumed under the rubric sociolinguistics suggest kinds of knowledge which are probably outside the purview of most language teachers and difficult to attain, given the small amount of time we have in which to train teachers. Yet it is exactly knowledge of these areas that the well-trained and well-acculturated teacher of a foreign language needs to have at his command in order to be able to adapt his teaching materials in such a way that his lessons will become useful, specific, stimulating and open-ended.

That a knowledge of politics and society is necessary to successful foreign language teaching is suggested by Cripwell in his article “English as a Communication Skill: Implications for Teacher Training” (1972).
He says:

The two main causes of failure are that too little attention is paid first to the demands made on the school system, and secondly to the political, social, and economic setting of the educational system.

The implication is quite clear: those who are concerned with language acquisition ought to be aware of all the social factors which affect the teaching, learning, and use of the language.

One successful approach to the problem is a course in language policy in which students prepare studies of institutional support for the teaching of languages. Such an elective course in language policy has been offered to EFL teachers at the University of California at Los Angeles, the American University in Cairo, Egypt, and at The University of Michigan. This course has generally been concerned with the relationship between language use and the formulation and implementation of official and de facto political, educational, religious, economic, and artistic attitudes toward languages, especially in developing countries.

In one case the aims of the course have included helping the teacher view his “professional skills within a social and educational framework broader than that of the classroom,” and to consider the place of English in language policy vis-à-vis national and official vernaculars and second languages, and their relation to education and official policies, and the consequences of colonialism (German 1972).

These aims show that the course is organized around politics and language, or glottopolitics, if one prefers synthetic words. Politics is one of the legs of the tripod called social science, the other two being sociology and anthropology. As such, politics is a pertinent and topical study which leads the student into sociological and anthropological concerns, since none of these studies makes much sense without the other two.

When I spoke to members of Professor Clifford Prator’s class in language policy at the American University in Cairo in 1972 on language policy in Thailand, I was amazed at the great wealth of material on this topic, and I was chagrined at my lack of ability to organize it adequately. I realized first of all that everything I was to say depended in some basic way on the audience having a knowledge of the physical and political geography of Southeast Asia, something I could not assume. Then I saw that the demography of Southeast Asia is so complex that I did not really begin to understand it myself, even after two years’ residence in the area. How could I possibly give the students an understanding of the complex, patternless facts I wanted to get across? With the help of maps and an indulgent audience I spoke for an hour on the topic. At the end of the session I realized that I could go on talking for many hours and not exhaust the subject, for I had no conceptual framework in which to capture the generalizations I was making about the facts I was presenting. I was fortunate in having at hand Richard Noss’ Language Policy, Higher Edu-
cation and Development in Southeast Asia (1967), a truly stunning work and a model of its kind. But I felt that the facts it contains were beyond the understanding of an unsophisticated audience, including myself. And so I began to think about the sort of concepts which could inform one's knowledge of sociolinguistics insofar as this knowledge would make one a better teacher of language.

In surveying the literature of sociolinguistics and language planning I came across Einar Haugen's The Ecology of Language (1972), a collection of essays selected and introduced by Anwar S. Dil, and there in the title essay I found a rationale which seems to promise a way into the complex situation that every modern language is in. Haugen calls "the study of any given language and its environment" the ecology of the language. This environment is in part the society that uses the language, but part of its environment is in the minds of its users, so the ecology is part psychological and part sociological in that the language interacts with other languages in the minds of its speakers and it interacts with society when it is used for communication.

There are several metaphors that serve to define the elusive kind of behavior we call language, among which are the biological, the instrumental, and the structural metaphors. Languages have structural form, as does the Eiffel Tower, they are used instrumentally as tools, and, most importantly, they have life and purpose, that is to say, they live in some sense. This biological metaphor, it seems to me, offers the best way of seeing a language in its true state. And to understand a living thing necessitates a study of its ecology. As Alan Watts (1972: 84) has observed:

"...every scientific discipline for the study of living organisms . . . must, from its own special standpoint, develop a science of ecology—literally "the logic of the household"—or the study of organism/environment fields."

But Haugen has shown that the environment of language is two-fold. It is both the minds of its users and the society in which they use it. And Watts (1972: 63) supports this observation:

We think in terms of languages and images we didn't invent . . . We copy emotional reactions . . . We do not exist apart from society [which is] . . . our extended mind and body.

So how do we discover the environment, that is to say, the ecology of language? For any language, we answer these ten questions.

1. What is its classification? What is its relation to other languages? These questions are answered by historical and descriptive linguistics.
2. Who are its users? This is a question for linguistic demography to answer, as it defines the geography, locale, religion and social classes of its users.
3. What are its domains of use? Properly a question for sociolinguistics,
it has to do with the extent of use of the language, socially and geographically.

4. What are the concurrent languages? That is to say, what other languages might its speakers know or be in contact with? Is diglossia an expected feature?

5. What are the internal varieties of the language? What are the regional dialects of the language? To what extent do social registers or styles reflect a knowledge of the language?

6. What are the written traditions? Is the language a part of a larger culture? Do philological traditions and religion play a part in determining what is acceptable?

7. To what extent is the language standardized? Does prescriptive linguistics support traditionally correct forms? Has the language been codified and unified in any way?

8. What institutional support does the language have? Do government, education, business and general culture give it a definite place?

9. What are the attitudes of the users of the language toward it? To what extent does it reflect the intimacy or status of its users? How does it relate to the user’s personality?

10. Where does the language stand and where is it going in comparison with other languages of the world and those languages which its users come into contact with? That is, where would you place the language in a typology of ecological classification?

These ten concepts can be listed for convenience as follows:

1. Classification
2. Users
3. Domains of use
4. Concurrent languages
5. Internal varieties
6. Written traditions
7. Standardization
8. Institutional support
9. Users’ attitudes
10. Typology of ecological classification

Using this framework it is possible to ask and answer many pertinent questions about the languages involved in the school situation. I would like to point out briefly a few directions such inquiries can take, and point out some of the interconnections among various studies which can be included in language ecology.

**Classification.** William Gage’s “The African Language Picture” presents ten language zones which are overlaid to some extent by two linguae francae—Swahili and Arabic. This study rests on historical and descriptive studies of the languages of Africa and their classification in language families. This
is the sort of information which ought to be available for every language in the world. The Voegelins’ Languages of the World . . . (1964) promises to provide such information.

**Users.** Linguistic demography is a branch of geography, many studies of which are generally available for various parts of the world. The point here is that locating the users of the language and defining them by social class and religion is best got at by the study of demography.

**Domains of use.** This is the province of sociology proper as it uses language as a defining factor in studies of society. For example, a language can sometime be shown to be a restricted code, such as Schwyzertütsch, Cairene, or Yiddish, or the opposite, a lingua franca.

**Concurrent languages.** The study of bilingualism has informed much of our knowledge of psycholinguistics. Stewart typed languages as (1) standard, (2) classical, (3) artificial, (4) vernacular, (5) dialect, (6) creole, (7) pidgin (Stewart 1968). Haugen offered further useful concepts such as importation, substitution, contactual dialect, learner’s dialect, and linguistic accommodation; and a study of bilingualism in which the second language is seen as supplementary, complementary, or replacive (Haugen 1971). I would suggest that Selinker’s recent notion of interlanguage, the language acquirer’s variety of the second language, neatly intersects certain concepts of bilingualism and leads through the idea of fossilization to psycholinguistics (Selinker 1972).

**Internal varieties.** Information on regional varieties is available for many languages, but the study of registers and styles has only begun.

**Written traditions.** The extent to which speakers of a language use it in sharing part of a larger culture depends to a great degree on whether the language is written. The use of the language in literature and in written communication—newspapers, textbooks, and magazines—reflects its readers’ sophistication as regards their participation in national and regional culture.

**Standardization.** Most languages are not written and are not standardized, for the unification and codification of a language depend, as do the written traditions, on the place of the language in a larger culture, or on a government’s attempts to impose standards by way of unifying the people politically and socially. Ray’s Language Standardization (1960) is the basic work in this field.

**Institutional support.** At this point we return to our starting point in language policy. Some language policy problems are caused by misconceptions about particular languages, relationships among languages, and relationships between languages and culture (Noss 1971). Indeed, in the language problems of newly independent states, the cultural questions are the most fundamental (LePage 1964). Case studies and analyses of such questions can be found in Rubin and Jernudd (1971), in Fishman, Ferguson, and Das Gupta (1968), and in Rice (1962). Some practical effects of language policies around the world can be found in Kaplan’s report on the ELS Teacher Program (1971).
Users' attitudes. People's attitudes toward each other are closely reflected by their language, as we know through studies such as Labov's (1968) of stratification. They use special forms under certain conditions—for example, Javanese and Thai forms of respect—and certain styles for certain people—for example, Nootka has special styles for children, dwarfs, hunchbacks, the one-eyed, and the uncircumcized (Bright 1966). Factors of language use such as status and intimacy help define users' attitudes (Brown and Gilman 1960). Recently Keenan (1971) has suggested the importance of status among several factors of presupposition in linguistic semantics. He contends that

Many sentences require that certain culturally defined conditions or contexts be satisfied in order for an utterance to be understood . . . These conditions are naturally called presuppositions of the sentence. They are

a. status and kind of relations among the participants
b. age, sex, and generation relations among the participants
c. status, kin, age, sex, and generation relations between participants and individuals mentioned in the sentence . . .

[This list is incomplete here]

Thus a knowledge of ethnology, how the individual regards himself and others, may be essential in theoretical linguistics, just as it surely is essential in the ecology of a language.

Typology of ecological classification. In order to type a language, all of the previous nine concepts must be applied to the language in question. The resulting information may be used to give intellectual substance to the studies we are calling sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

In summary, the ecology of language offers a set of concepts and questions about the environment of a language, both social and psychological, such that answers to the questions and illustrations of the concepts give us knowledge about the users of the language which can be used to inform those decisions of language policy on which we may have some influence as teachers and administrators, and to inform our own teaching of English, that we may do it better.

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Kaplan, Robert B. 1971. A follow-up evaluation and a model of utilization of the ELS teacher education program, University of Southern California.
Rubin, Joan, and Bjorn Jernudd. 1971. Can language be planned?: Sociolinguistic theory and practice for developing nations. East-West Center, University of Hawai'i.
A Psycholinguistic Study of the Relationships Between Children's Ethnic-Linguistic Attitudes and the Effectiveness of Methods Used in Second-Language Reading Instruction*

Benita T. Tang

This psycholinguistic study investigated the relationships between Chinese children's attitudes toward their native dialect (Cantonese) as well as the second language (English) and the effectiveness of certain methods used in the teaching of second-language reading. The two methods compared in the experiment were the Translation Method and the Non-Translation Method.

The main hypothesis states that the Translation Method is the superior method for children who have a very positive attitude toward their native language and culture while the Non-Translation Method ("English only") is superior for those who do not hold their native language in very high esteem.

Eight special ESL classes at three elementary schools in Chinatown, San Francisco were randomly assigned to the two treatment groups. Attitudes toward the two languages (inclusive of the cultures and speakers) were measured with a matched-guise test. On the basis of the lessons taught in the 20 forty-minute sessions, a science reading comprehension test was constructed by the experimenter. The same test was used for both pre-testing and post-testing purposes, and the gain-scores served as the dependent variable.

The findings of this experiment provide substantial evidence to justify the acceptance of the hypothesis stated in the second paragraph.

Problem

A careful review of the literature shows that no controlled experimental research study has ever been designed to study the relationships between attitudes and teaching methodology in a second language class. The effectiveness of using or not using translation has always been an area of concern to many second language teachers, yet it is hardly ever thought of as being

* This paper was presented at the TESOL Convention in San Juan, Puerto Rico, May, 1973.

Ms. Tang, Assistant Professor of Education (TESL) at the Catholic University of P. R., conducted the experiment in San Francisco while she was a Ph.D. candidate at Stanford University. The basic rationale of this research Project was an outgrowth of her many years experience in TESL and work as a reading consultant in the Philippines as well as in the U.S. She would like to thank Professor Robert L. Politzer, her dissertation adviser, for his generous assistance, and the San Francisco Unified School District for granting her the permission to perform the experiment.
dependent on or conditioned by the attitudes of the learner toward his native language. In recent years, much has been said about the use of the students’ native tongue in a classroom where English is taught as a foreign or second language. Some educators believe it should be used while others object vehemently to the idea. The pro and con arguments are usually founded on subjective value judgments and assumptions which have no empirical basis. Hence, the question remains unanswered.

**Purposes**

This psycholinguistic study proposes to investigate the relationships between Chinese children’s attitudes toward their native dialect (Cantonese) as well as the second language (English) and the effectiveness of methods used in the teaching of second-language reading. The primary purpose is to study the effect of interaction between method and student-attitudes. More specifically, it purports to answer the question of how science reading achievement in a second language correlates (1) with attitude toward the native language and its speakers, and (2) with attitude toward the second language and its speakers. Both correlations are to be found under the following conditions: (1) when the method of instruction requires that all verbal activities be carried out in English (2) when the method of instruction involves the use of native language translation.

Of secondary importance is the objective of comparing the relative effectiveness of the two methods in the teaching of reading to Chinese students learning English as a second language when attitudes toward both native language and second language are evenly distributed between the control and the experimental groups.

It is also expected that through the use of the matched-guise technique, this study will make a contribution to the analysis of Chinese children’s attitudes toward two ethnic-linguistic groups, namely: the Cantonese-speaking people and the English-speaking people.

Finally, it is expected that through this experiment, a structure-based technique of teaching reading to second-language learners will be developed.

**Rationale**

It is now widely accepted that learning a foreign language is affected by many motivational variables, and that one’s attitude toward the language to be learned is, in fact, one of them. However, when the area of native language is brought into focus, it seems hard at first to accept the assumption that people do have certain attitudes toward their native tongue, let alone that such attitudes, whether positive or negative, affect certain aspects of foreign-language learning.

However, there is research evidence in social psychology showing that attitudes toward the native language and culture do affect second-language acquisition to a certain extent. The study of Gardner and Lambert (1959: 266–7) supports the following idea:
Adults who are dissatisfied with their positions in their own cultural group tend to learn as rapidly as possible those aspects of the other language which will allow them to become members of a new group.

Since language is closely intertwined with culture and people may become dissatisfied with their own culture, the idea of dissatisfaction with one’s native language is, therefore, not difficult to conceive. On the basis of this assumption, it seems plausible to hypothesize that success or failure of using or not using native-language translation is in part attributable to the learner’s attitudes toward his native language as well as the other language. When the method of instruction requires exposure to the native language of the learners in addition to the language which is being studied, learners are expected to differ in their performance depending upon the nature of each individual’s affect toward the native language. For those with positive affect, the presence of the native language may help motivate learning, but for those with negative affect, instead of being a motivating factor, it may become a deterrent in the sense of creating a distasteful atmosphere for learning. Hence, in dealing with those who look upon the native language with disfavor or regard it as the less prestigious language, it would seem more logical to expect better performance from the method of non-translation.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been tested statistically:

1. There is a positive correlation between favorable attitude toward the native language (Cantonese) and second-language reading performance when the method of instruction involves the use of native-language translation. In other words, the more favorable a learner's attitude toward his native language is, the more effective is the method of “translation.”

2. There is a negative correlation between favorable attitude toward the native language and performance in reading a second language when the method of instruction is one of “non-translation.” It is expected that the more favorable a learner's attitude toward his native language is, the less effective is the method of “non-translation.”

3. There is a positive correlation between favorable attitude toward the second language (English) and second-language reading performance when the method of instruction uses only English (the second language).

4. There is a negative correlation between favorable attitude toward the second language and performance in reading a second language when the method of instruction involves the use of native-language translation (Cantonese).

5. There is no significant difference in science reading achievement scores between the “translation” group and the “non-translation” group when native-language and second-language attitudes, both
positive and negative, are evenly distributed between the two groups.

6. There is a positive correlation between second-language reading performance and favorable attitude toward Cantonese if the method of instruction involves native-language translation, and if the attitudes toward Cantonese are measured as differences between scores in Cantonese and English attitudes.

7. There is a negative correlation between second-language reading performance and favorable attitude toward Cantonese if the method of instruction uses only English, and if the attitudes toward Cantonese are measured as differences between scores in Cantonese and English attitudes.

Limitations of the Study as a TESL Investigation

As a field of investigation, Teaching English as a Second Language encompasses the teaching of all four aspects of the language, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In the present experiment, the main concern is the reading aspect. What is meant here is that reading was the primary objective of each session and all other aspects of language development were utilized only to the extent that they could be of some help to the development of reading ability.

There are at least two reasons why this particular area of foreign language acquisition is selected for the study. First, the subjects in this experiment are children going through an educational system which uses a second language as the medium of instruction. The purpose behind their learning of English is not only to help them speak the language but also to equip them with the necessary tools for handling the problems of academic studies. To a very great extent, their success or failure in school is dependent upon their reading ability, since a large portion of the content in the different subject areas is presented to them in visual form. As they advance through the grades, more and more verbal material will have to be learned through the process of reading rather than listening. Second, there are very few studies in the field of second-language learning that deal with reading, although reading is supposed to be a part of the total process of language acquisition. In a society where most knowledge is no longer handed down by word of mouth, there is no doubt that reading is recognized as a tremendously important avenue of learning.

The Experiment

Subjects. The investigation was set up as a field experiment using as subjects 106 Cantonese-speaking children attending the eight special ESL classes at three elementary schools in Chinatown, San Francisco, California. Their ages ranged from 7 years and 4 months to 13 years and 2 months. All of them were immigrants from Hong Kong who had been in the U.S. for an average of approximately 10 months when the study commenced. As far as
socio-economic background was concerned, they formed a relatively homogeneous population. All of them came from the “lower income bracket” although this does not necessarily mean that they were “culturally or linguistically deprived.”

The eight classes were randomly assigned to two treatments (Treatment I or Translation Method and Treatment II or Non-Translation Method) with four classes in each, two of Level I and two of Level II. The Level II children were on the average a little older than those of Level I although age was not the main determiner. Their linguistic maturity in all aspects of English was on a relatively higher level. The only purpose of having two levels was to make the materials more suitable to the needs of the learners. It had very little to do with the data analysis since the data were eventually combined under each treatment.

Variables. One of the independent variables was the method used in teaching reading to second-language learners. The other independent variable was the attitudinal orientation of the students. The attitude variable (for both English and Cantonese) was made to operate as a continuum on which the scores in science reading achievement were regressed. Since the design had a pre-test and a post-test, the gain-score in science reading achievement was used as the dependent variable.

In order to avoid the possibility of “hiding” some other factors that could have contributed to the differences in performance when only attitudes were measured, three other tests were administered to measure auditory discrimination, visual sequential memory, and listening comprehension.

Measuring Instruments and Reading Materials

(1) Matched-Guise Test. This technique was employed to measure attitudes toward Cantonese and English. (In this investigation, attitude toward a language is to be understood as inclusive of attitude toward the culture in which the language is embedded and the speakers.) Tape recordings were made of 5 bilingual reading a passage from “The Travelling Musicians,” once in Cantonese and once in English. The 3 female and 2 male voices were arranged on the tape in alternating Cantonese-English order with the maximum possible separation between successive presentations of the Cantonese and English guises of any speaker. For purposes of control, the subjects were not made aware of the fact that each speaker was going to be heard twice. They were simply told that they were going to listen to 10 voices telling the same story. Five of them would tell the story in Cantonese and five would tell it in English. They were informed that the purpose of the investigation was to see how well they could evaluate an individual’s personality on the basis of voice
alone. A “Personality Judgment Sheet” was prepared for each subject to put down his judgments based on 15 bipolar traits arranged on a 4-point scale. A part of this judgment sheet showing only the first 5 bipolar traits is found in the appendix of this paper. Since many of the personality traits used by Lambert and his associates for their studies could hardly be applicable to Chinese subjects on account of cultural differences and problems of translation, they were changed to those found in Table 4. The changes were made on the basis of a series of informal individual-interviews with some 30 Chinese (12 men and 18 women) on what they thought were the personality characteristics considered most important in a Chinese society. The adjectives were all given in the positive; the negatives were supplied by the experimenter. Instead of the 7-point scale which had been used in most of the other studies, the 4-point scale was the one selected because the children in this particular study were much younger than the subjects used in any other study where the matched-guise technique had been employed. It was assumed that they would be more comfortable with a range of 1 to 4.

Although the subjects were children, adult speakers who were supposed to be closer approximations of their teachers in school, seemed to be more preferable since the main concern of this study was to find out something about the effects of translation in an instructional program. Undoubtedly, in any instructional program, the voice most frequently heard by the students is that of the teacher.

(2) Science Reading Comprehension Tests. Tests of science reading comprehension were constructed on the basis of the materials to be taught during the period of experimentation. Since the approach to the teaching of reading chosen for this study had its emphasis on grammatical structure, the tests were, likewise, constructed to test reading comprehension through an understanding of structure. Level I test and Level II test have the respective reliability coefficients of .88 and .82.

(3) Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test by Carroll and Sapon (Part 3- Finding Rhymes). This sub-test measures auditory discrimination and memory. Only the first 25 items were included.

(4) Visual Sequential Memory Test. This is a sub-test of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. It assesses an individual’s short-term memory of visual sequences.

(5) Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (Primary A, Form I). This was used as a listening comprehension test. Only the comprehension part of 34 items was given. The sentences were read to the subjects by the experimenter who administered the test.

Table 1 shows a comparison between the means of each of the eight variables used as bases for showing the comparability of the two treatment groups at the onset of the experiment.
TABLE 1
Comparison of Means of Eight Variables in the Two Treatment Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Translation Group</th>
<th>Non-Translation Group</th>
<th>t-values (two-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test in Science Reading</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>-1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward Cantonese</td>
<td>215.23</td>
<td>186.90</td>
<td>2.15*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward English</td>
<td>205.24</td>
<td>195.23</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory Discrimination &amp; Memory</td>
<td>16.47</td>
<td>14.95</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Sequential Memory</td>
<td>49.36</td>
<td>48.04</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>27.66</td>
<td>28.42</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Stay in U.S.</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Attendance in ESL Class</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p <.05

In spite of the random assignment of classes to the two treatments, it appears that the Translation Group had higher attitude scores to begin with for both Cantonese and English although the numerical difference in English attitude-scores has no statistical significance.

Both length of stay in U.S. and length of attendance in ESL class are expressed in months.

A positive t-value indicates a difference in favor of the Translation Group, and a negative t-value indicates a difference in favor of the Non-Translation Group. However, it should be understood that all the differences, with the exception of the difference in attitude toward Cantonese, are statistically non-significant.

The 20 lessons used in teaching the reading of science materials were taken from Books 2 and 3 of Concepts in Science series (California State Textbooks) and written in a way that could be adapted for use with children learning English as a second language.

Ten units were selected from Book 2 and condensed into 10 short paragraphs of an average of 7.7 sentences each with a range of 6 to 9. These were the lessons used by the four Level I classes. The topics included the following: 1. The Very Small 2. Molecules in Everything 3. Expansion of Air 4. The Story of a Tree 5. How Sounds Are Made 6. Musical Sounds 7. High and Low Sounds 8. Hearing Sounds 9. Light from the Stars 10. The Moon

Ten units were selected from Book 3 and condensed into 10 short paragraphs of an average of 9.1 sentences each with a range of 8 to 13. These were used by the four Level II classes. The topics included the following: 1. Energy from the Sun 2. Effect of Sunlight on Molecules 3. Plants Cap-

**How the Lessons Were Taught.** For each level, there was a total of 10 lessons taught in 20 forty-minute sessions spread out within a period of two months. The classes met every other day. Each lesson was presented in 2 consecutive sessions. In order to control the “teacher-variable” which often contributes a great deal to the difference in results of experiments conducted in classroom situations, the experimenter herself did the actual teaching in all eight classes.

In both treatments, the teaching technique was characterized by three stages.

1. **Stage One** (first 15 minutes) was designed to provide the class with an experiential background on which the reading lesson was to be based.
2. **Stage Two** (20 minutes) was devoted to the reading lesson itself. The reading passage was printed on a sheet of 24” x 36” paper which everybody could see. A series of drill activities was designed for this stage.
3. **Stage Three** (last 5 minutes) was a question-and-answer period.

The basic differences between the two treatments were the following:

1. **Treatment I** or Translation Group spent approximately 5 to 8 minutes in each session listening to the reading and translation of important English words or terms in the lesson, and repeating the Cantonese equivalents or near-equivalents. This was followed by listening to the Cantonese summary of the whole passage given within a couple of minutes. For the purpose of maintaining uniformity, a tape-recording was used to present the Cantonese translation of words or terms as well as the Cantonese summary in classes which were supposed to have the same kind of treatment. On the other hand, the same amount of time in Treatment II or Non-Translation Group was spent in listening to the reading of important English words or terms and repeating them in English. During this particular period of time (5–8 minutes), each important English word was read twice in order to equalize the total amount of exposure to each word chosen for emphasis. (It should be remembered that the Translation Group also had two exposures, one in English and one in Cantonese. The Non-Translation Group had both in English.) A couple of minutes was also spent in listening to the summary of the whole passage. However, the summary in this group was given in English.
2. Another main difference was that the students in Treatment I were allowed to interact and ask each other questions in Cantonese while those in Treatment II were not. Only English was permitted in the classroom for the Non-Translation Group. In the latter group, the teacher would constantly remind the students to speak English.
Findings and Data Analysis

The data gathered were analyzed with the use of the following statistical methods:

First, an analysis of variance was used. An F-ratio significant at the .05 level was found between the two groups. However, on account of the different in the distribution of ATC (attitude toward Cantonese) scores in the two treatment groups as shown in Table 1, it became necessary to match the subjects on the basis of attitude scores.

The matched-guise test was given on a 4-point scale and there were 15 personality traits to be rated; hence, the highest possible score for each guise was 60 and the lowest was 15. Since there were 5 guises for each language (Cantonese or English), the highest possible total score for either language was, therefore, 300 and the lowest was 75. For the sake of convenience, the attitude-scores were divided into “high” and “low.” Scores ranging from 188 to 300 were considered “high” scores indicating positive attitude while those ranging from 75 to 187 were considered “low” scores indicating negative attitude.

The two resulting attitude-groups of 32 subjects in each are shown in Table 2. Sixteen of the matched pairs had “high” scores in attitude toward Cantonese (ATC) and “low” scores in attitude toward English (ATE) while the other sixteen pairs had “low” scores in ATC and “high” scores in ATE. Thirty-two was the maximum number of pairs (64 subjects) that could be found for the purpose of achieving a balance of attitude-scores between the two treatment groups.

The 2 x 2 factorial design for the analysis of variance was used to detect the significance of interactions. In this analysis, the “F” between methods is a non-significant 3.48 but the “F” of interaction between methods of instruction and types of attitudes is 92.25 which is significant at the .001 level. This obviously leads to the conclusion that there is an interaction between the two independent variables in their effect on the dependent variable, science reading comprehension gain. The interpretation is that when the Translation Method and the Non-Translation Method operate with the students’ linguistic attitudes held constant, they do not differ in their effect. Nevertheless, when methods of instruction and types of attitudes are allowed to “work together,” the effects are of considerable significance.

Second, the Pearson’s r formula was used to find the correlation coefficients between ATC scores and SRCG (science reading comprehension gain) scores and also between ATE and SRCG. A regression analysis was done using each of the two attitude variables as a continuum (X) on which SRCG scores (Y) were regressed. The “least squares” method with the formula Y = a + bX was applied. Besides the ATC and ATE raw scores, the subjects’ modified difference scores (MDS) were also used in the analysis of regression. The difference scores were actually the differential ratings given by the subjects to the Cantonese-English guises. Each differential rating
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trans</th>
<th>ATC</th>
<th>ATE</th>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Trans</th>
<th>ATC</th>
<th>ATE</th>
<th>Gain</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>280</td>
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<td>281</td>
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<td>260</td>
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<td>267</td>
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<td>270</td>
<td>113</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>236</td>
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<td>235</td>
<td>143</td>
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<td>236</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>284</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>283</td>
<td>97</td>
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<td>278</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>106</td>
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<td>229</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>251</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>247</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean Scores (for 32 Subjects)

- Translation Group: ATC = 196.03
  ATE = 187.84
- Non-Translation Group: ATC = 188.97
  ATE = 175.94
thus became the measure of each subject's differential attitude toward the five pairs of guises judged on the basis of the 15 bipolar personality traits shown in Table 4. Regression analyses using raw attitude scores (ATC and ATE) and modified difference scores (MDS) are shown in Figures 1, 2, and 3.

Third, correlation coefficients were also computed for SRCG and each of the following: auditory discrimination and memory, visual sequential memory, listening comprehension, age, length of stay in the U. S., and length of attendance in ESL class. Besides the attitude variables, only listening comprehension and age turned out to be highly correlated with SRCG. At first, it appeared as if listening comprehension and age contributed substantially to the high correlations between the attitude variables and the SRCG scores. To clear up the doubt, the effects of listening comprehension and age were partialed out by using the formula for partial correlation.

The partial correlations are shown in Table 3. The figures which appear above the broken line are the correlation coefficients based on the analysis which eliminated the subjects scoring 35 (ceiling score) in the post-test and the bidialectal speakers (speakers of both Samyap and Seiyap Cantonese). The coefficients below the broken line are based on the analysis which included all subjects. It appears that even with the effects of the third variables partialed out, the main correlations of interest are still very significant. These partial correlations provide further evidence that the attitude-scores are, in fact, highly correlated with the reading achievement scores. Although

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partially-</th>
<th>Translation Group</th>
<th>Non-Translation Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Out Third</td>
<td>SRCG</td>
<td>SRCG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>ATC</td>
<td>ATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATC</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>-54***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATE</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>.84**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.83**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation coefficient which are marked with one asterisk (*) are significant at the .05 level. Those which are underscored and marked with an asterisk (*) are significant at the 0.1 level. Those which are underscored and marked with two asterisks (**) are significant at the .001 level.
Figure 1. Regression of SRCG on ACT showing interaction between method and atti-

[Graph showing regression lines for translation and non-translation groups]

○ - DATA POINTS OF TRANSLATION GROUP
△ - DATA POINTS OF NON-TRANSLATION GROUP

SRCG = 31.91 - 0.06 ATG
R = -0.58
NON-TRANSLATION, N=48

SRCG = 4.06 + 0.09 ATG
R = 0.85
TRANSLATION, N=58
Figure 2. Regression of SRCG on ATE showing interaction between method and attitude toward English.
Figure 3. Regression of SRCG on MDS showing interaction between methods and attitudes.
the variables of listening comprehension and age do contribute to reading comprehension gain scores, the contributions of attitudes toward the two ethnic-linguistic groups have definitely surpassed those of listening comprehension and age in significance.

One interesting finding about age is that it correlates positively and significantly with SRCG in the Non-Translation Group, but negatively and significantly with SRCG in the Translation Group. It seems that the younger learners profited more from the translation than did the older ones whereas in the method using only English, the older ones had an advantage over the younger ones. This should be interpreted in the light of the finding that age in this study correlates negatively with attitude toward Cantonese and positively with attitude toward English although the latter correlation is not statistically significant. It seems that the older children become, the more sensitive they are to community stereotypes and greater is the likelihood of adopting such stereotypes. With reference to the background data of the two treatment groups, we find the age difference between the two groups to be significant at the .01 level with the Non-Translation Group being older. In other words, the subjects of each of the two groups had the treatment that was of more advantage to them, hence, the effects of age were equalized between the two groups.

Fourth, a separate analysis was set up to find out how the evaluations of the Chinese guises differed from those of the English guises on the basis of each individual trait listed on the “Personality Judgment Sheet.” The basic statistic consisted of the formula for finding the t-ratio of correlated samples.

TABLE 4
A Comparison of Means for Each Pair of Personality Traits (Evaluations of Cantonese Versus English Guises)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bipolar Traits</th>
<th>Mean Ratings of Cantonese Guises</th>
<th>Mean Ratings of English Guises</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERSONAL INTEGRITY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honest—dishonest</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>12.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind—cruel</td>
<td>13.73</td>
<td>13.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gentle—rough</td>
<td>13.43</td>
<td>13.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generous—stingy</td>
<td>12.53</td>
<td>14.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humble—proud</td>
<td>14.55</td>
<td>11.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trustworthy—not trustworth</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>13.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polite—impolite</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td>12.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brave—cowardice</td>
<td>12.90</td>
<td>13.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERSONAL COMPETENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intelligent—stupid</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>12.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-confident—not self-conf.</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>14.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competent—incompetent</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>13.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SOCIAL ATTRACTIVENESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neat—sloppy</td>
<td>12.98</td>
<td>12.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good-looking—ugly</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>14.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amusing—boring</td>
<td>12.13</td>
<td>15.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helpful—not helpful</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>13.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A comparison of means for each pair of personality traits is shown in Table 4. Each mean rating is the average of all the total scores given by the 106 subjects for the 5 guises of either language on the basis of one particular pair of personality traits. Mean ratings from 12.51 to 20.00 are on the positive side while those from 5.00 to 12.50 are on the negative side. Although the rating patterns as presented in Figures 1 and 2 show a clustering of scores at each of the two extremes or ends of the scale, it seems safe to say that on the average, the subjects were more on the positive side of the scale in their attitudes toward speakers of both languages at the time they were tested.

Conclusions

There is substantial evidence in this investigation to justify the acceptance of Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 as stated previously under the subtitle, Hypotheses. In fact, all the stated correlations, positive as well as negative, have been found to be significant at the .001 level. In short, there is a significant interaction between the method of teaching second-language reading and the attitudes of learners toward their own language as well as the language to be learned.

Another interesting conclusion is that the subjects do not view either one of the two ethnic-linguistic groups in completely favorable or unfavorable terms. In summary, Cantonese guises are seen as possessing more aspects of personal integrity while English guises are seen as possessing more aspects of social attractiveness. In the area of personal competence, they are rated as about equal.

This study has also demonstrated the following:

1. The feasibility of using the matched-guise technique with children as young as 7 years and 4 months.
2. The feasibility of employing the structure-based technique in teaching the reading of simplified science materials to new immigrant children in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes.

Implications for Education

Within the limits imposed by the sample and the types of measuring instruments used, the findings seem to warrant the drawing of the following educational implications:

First, in the planning of any ESL program, it is perhaps not enough only to consider the ability-levels and aptitudes of students; learners’ attitudinal orientation with regards to their native language and people of their own ethnic-linguistic group as well as the target language and people of the other ethnic-linguistic group probably deserves just as much attention and careful consideration. It is perhaps advisable to start an ESL program by assessing first the attitudes of the students toward the ethnic-linguistic groups in-
involved. A better understanding of their emotional reactions to their own ethnic-linguistic group and the group whose language or dialect is to be learned, may contribute substantially to the success of the educational decision-making process.

Such a recommendation should not be misinterpreted as using the study to justify the perpetuation of stereotyped thinking among children. On the contrary, it is a step closer to the development of open-mindedness. In dealing with second-language learners, a better understanding of their reactions and attitudes toward different ethnic-linguistic groups should enable an ESL teacher to capitalize on the attitudes a child already has and, at the same time, guide him into an open-minded, non-ethnocentric view of people in general.

Lambert (1967), in his discussion on a social psychology of bilingualism, mentioned the study he and Gardner had conducted among the French-Americans of New England in 1962. He pointed out that there was a subgroup of French-American youngsters who had an open-minded, non-ethnocentric view of people in general, coupled with a strong aptitude for language learning. These were the youngsters who profited fully from their language learning opportunities and became skilled in both French and English. Lambert added the following:

These young people had apparently circumvented the conflicts and developed means of becoming members of both cultural groups. They had, in other terms, achieved a comfortable bicultural identity. (Lambert 1967: 108)

The investigator of the present study feels that the findings of this experiment may help pave a way to the goal expressed in Lambert’s words.

Second, ESL teachers of immigrant-children are always confronted with the practical problem of how to get their students ready for the regular class. Very often, the audio-lingual type of training given in the ESL class is not sufficient to help students cope with the challenge of the regular class where much learning is dependent upon the ability to read and comprehend content-materials written in English.

The technique of teaching science-reading as developed in this experiment together with lessons built around simplified vocabulary and sentence-structures may serve as one of the possible transitions between the ESL program and the regular class. Although the effectiveness of the technique is not directly substantiated by the investigation, the feasibility of such a technique has been demonstrated in the experiment.

Further research using the same design but a larger sample and a longer period of time would perhaps generate more accurate and generalizable results. It would also be interesting to find out if similar relations between attitudes and effectiveness of teaching methods hold true for Chinese children who have been in the United States for a relatively longer period of time, and for children of other ethnic-linguistic groups.
### PERSONALITY JUDGMENT SHEET

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<th>4</th>
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<th>B</th>
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<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
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<th>G</th>
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<td>sloppy</td>
<td>neat</td>
<td>very neat</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>very ugly</td>
<td>ugly</td>
<td>good looking</td>
<td>very good looking</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>very stupid</td>
<td>stupid</td>
<td>intelligent</td>
<td>very intelligent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>very dishonest</td>
<td>dishonest</td>
<td>honest</td>
<td>very honest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Name of Judge: ___
REFERENCES


Teaching the Article in English

Randal L. Whitman

A formulation of English article structure based on the assumption that it is a sequence of quantification and determination rather than a choice between specified and unspecified is advanced. Four types of articles are discussed: (1) neither quantifier nor determiner, (2) quantifier only, (3) determiner only, and (4) both quantifier and determiner (e.g., some of the books). Six steps, more or less, are propounded for organizing materials for teaching the article to foreigners.

1.0 The article in English has always been considered one of the most formidable problems to overcome in teaching English grammar to foreigners, and its misuse is one of the most evident grammatical signs that a person is not a native speaker of English. It is my belief that this state of affairs does not reflect an extraordinary complexity intrinsic to the article, but that it derives instead, at least in part, from a long-standing misconception that linguists and language teachers have had concerning the nature of the article. In this paper, I will present an analysis of the article and will then suggest an appropriate organization for the presentation of the article in an EFL course.

2.0 Article structure. The principal misunderstanding concerning the article is shared by most teachers of English, and is embodied in thinking about the articles in such terms as:

A/an is the indefinite article
and the is the definite article.

The misconception has been preserved by many transformational linguists in their formulations of the phrase structure rules governing article structure. For example, Lester (1971: 36) suggests the following rules:

\[
\text{Article} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{Specified} \\ \text{Unspecified} \\ \emptyset \end{cases} \\
\text{Specified} \rightarrow \{\text{the,} \ldots\} \\
\text{Unspecified} \rightarrow \{a/an, \ldots\}
\]

If “specified” is read as “definite,” and “unspecified” as “indefinite,” Lester’s formulation exactly matches the traditional one.

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1 This is an expanded version of the grammatical thesis presented in Whitman (1972).

Mr. Whitman has recently completed an introductory text on English linguistics to be published by Holt, Rinehart and Winston. He has published in Language Learning.
The misconception involved lies in thinking that a/an and the are essentially the same thing (that is, “articles”), differing only along a dimension of “definiteness/indefiniteness” or “specificity/nonspecificity.” A/an and the are, in fact, entirely different syntactic entities, quite unrelated to each other except for the fact that both occur within the same general structure, as denoted in the following phrase structure rules:

\[
\text{ARTICLE} \rightarrow (\text{QUANTITY}) + (\text{DETERMINER})
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{QUANTITY} & \rightarrow \{a/an, one; two, three, some, many, \ldots\} \\
\text{DETERMINER} & \rightarrow \{NP + 's \} \\
& \{the, this, \ldots\}
\end{align*}
\]

In plain English, these rules state that the article consists of two independent constituents, quantity and determiner, each of which is optional. The former serves to count the noun phrase, the latter to establish it as a known (or definite, or specified) group. Since the two entities are independent and unrelated, it is misleading to generalize them under one term; we are, however, victims of our own grammatical education, and the impulse to use the term “article” in the old-fashioned way may be overpowering. In this article, therefore, I do not advocate doing away with the term; in fact, I will continue to use “article” in the old way myself.

2.1 Quantity. The constituent QUANTITY has the semantic function of counting the noun phrase, and also has the important syntactic property of establishing whether the noun phrase is singular or plural for the purpose of number agreement in the verb.

There are two singular quantifiers, a/an and one, and quite a variety of plural quantifiers, including all the plural numbers and the ‘non-numeral’ counters, same, many, all, and the like.

QUANTITY is optional; when the option is unrealized, the noun phrase is generally, or universally quantified. Thus the NP boys, having no quantifier, is interpreted to mean “any and all boys.”

2.2 Determiner. A determiner is realized when the speaker refers to a known group, whether singular or plural. When there is no determiner, the noun phrase is understood to be what we call “indefinite.” The NP a boy, for example, is indefinite because it lacks a determiner.

While most determiners carry some sort of additional meaning (e.g., this, that, my, . . .), the determiner the is peculiar in that it is purely and simply a determiner, doing nothing more than marking the noun phrase as involving a known group.

The known group may be identified or described by various sorts of

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2 After all, NP and VP have a similar relationship to each other in the rule S \(\rightarrow\) NP + VP, but no one would ever dream of using one and the same term to cover both.

3 Not the noun, as will be seen in section 2.44.

4 Perlmutter (1968) even claims that a/an is a weak, derived form of one.
TEACHING THE ARTICLE

modifiers: the most common type of which has the modifying phrase following the noun.

The man from Chicago . . .
The girl who you saw . . .
The top of the table . . .

This type of noun phrase accounts for roughly half of all instances of the.

2.3 Possessive determiners. The article turns out to have a degree of recursivity by virtue of the fact that possessives function as determiners in English. Very nearly any noun phrase may be made into a possessive, although we frequently regard some of the following as unacceptable. (From Gleason 1965: 165):

the very old man’s beard
the man in the store’s pencil
that man there’s car
a friend of mine’s house

Acceptable or not, they are provided for by that part of the rule that reads

DETERMINER —> NP + ‘s

Since NPs themselves contain articles and, potentially, determiners, we may obtain successively embedded possessives, such as my friend’s dog:

2.4 The interaction of quantity and determiner. Since the article consists of two constituents, each optional, there are four possible types of articles to be found in a noun phrase:

\[\text{ART} \rightarrow N \rightarrow \text{DET} \rightarrow \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{s} \rightarrow \text{PRON} \]

including adjectives. However, in most cases an adjective before a noun will not identify or specify the noun for you, so much as give additional descriptive information about it. One can always test for this by deleting the adjective to see whether the remaining noun phrase makes sense without it. Certain types of adjectives, however, such as superlatives and ordinal numerals may be claimed to have a specifying function. It is very rare for cardinal numbers to function this way; in the three men, for example, the number seldom specifies which men you are talking about. It should be noted, however, that numerals occurring after the determiner have no syntactic function, and should be considered as simple descriptive adjectives quite apart from the more significant quantifiers.
1. Neither QUANTITY nor DETERMINER
2. QUANTITY alone
3. DETERMINER alone
4. Both QUANTITY and DETERMINER

2.41 Neither QUANTITY nor DETERMINER. Noun phrases with neither quantity nor determiner are “general” in quantity and “indefinite,” e.g., boys, water, lamb, etc. They also tend to have a rather abstract flavor, as if when we mention a noun with no accompanying article we are actually referring to its conceptual character rather than its real character. Thus, for example, we probably say “May I have some water” rather than “May I have water” so as to concretize it, wanting water in the flesh, as it were.

2.42 QUANTITY alone. Noun phrases with quantity alone are indefinite by virtue of not having a determiner. There is probably an important syntactic distinction to be made between the numerals one, two, three, etc., and the non-numerals a/an, some, several, etc., but the distinction will not be explored in this paper.

2.43 DETERMINER alone. The presence of a determiner means that the noun phrase involves a known group; the absence of a quantifier means that the noun phrase is generally quantified, thus including all members of the referred-to group. In other words, the boys means “all the boys.” This may be said to hold even if the known group consists of but one member: the boy is generally quantified to include “all one of him.”

2.44 Both QUANTITY and DETERMINER. When a noun phrase has an article consisting of both quantity and determiner, an of must be inserted between the two (with the exception of the quantifier all, after which of is optional). The NP one of the planes has the structure:

```
NP
   ARTICLE
      N
        QUANT
         DET
            one [of] the planes
```

The quantifier in such articles plays its usual role, establishing the number of the noun phrase. In the above example, although reference is made to a plural set of planes—a known group, as signalled by the determiner—the noun phrase as a whole is singular, as per the quantifier one.

On of the planes is missing.
* One of the planes are missing.  

6 It has been recognized for some time, however, that this is an extremely common sort of mistake. Explanations of it usually revolve about the notion that when a speaker gets to the verb he has to check back to see what number the subject was. On his trip back through the subject NP, he comes across a plural and checks no further.
With a double-barrelled article of this sort, we obtain a glimpse of the fact that articles per se are neither definite nor indefinite. In one of the planes, for example, the article one of the contains a determiner, yet we still do not know which plane is being singled out for discussion.

2.5 **Constraints on quantity and determiner.** There are certain constraints on the interaction of quantifiers and determiners.

First, a/an cannot occur in an article that also contains a determiner. For singularity, the quantifier one must be selected.

One of the planes is missing.

* An of the planes is missing.

One result of this constraint is that an article consisting of a/an is necessarily always indefinite.

Second, the quantifier must be smaller than the size of the known group. Except for the quantifier all, quantity limits size, i.e., must be smaller than the general quantity.

* Four of the three linguists agreed.
* Three of the three linguists agreed.
   Two of the three linguists agreed.
   One of the three linguists was right.

Third, when quantity and determiner work together, the quantity must quantify the top-most noun, or the “head” noun. Although lower nouns may not be quantified.

One of my uncle’s cars is a Mercedes Benz.
* One of my uncles’ cars is a Mercedes Benz.

The former represents “my uncle, one of his cars,” and the latter “one of my uncles, his car.” Since car is the head noun of the NP, only the former is acceptable.

3.0 **Generic uses of the article.** Although the analysis given above covers the “generic plural” (section 2.42), it does not account for the generic uses of a/an and the.

1. A mouse is smaller than a rat.
2. The mouse is smaller than the rat.

Interestingly enough, and for reasons that are probably related to those given in footnote 6, it is easy to convince people that

(a) One of my uncles’ cars are yellow
   is perfectly grammatical, meaning “one of my uncles, his cars,” even though they may be hesitant about it initially. However, only the very hardest can swallow

(b) One of my uncles’ car is yellow
   even when they are told that it has the meaning “one of my uncles, his car.” It is my contention that both must be either grammatical or ungrammatical, and I prefer the latter. I think (a) passes muster because it sounds sort of all right, so that we may consider assigning an interpretation to it. It sounds all right for the same reason that is given in footnote 6. Sentence (b), however, doesn’t sound all right because we know that one must be counting cars, not uncles, so cars must be plural.
The difference between (1) and (2) is subtle. Generic a/an refers to a singular example, presupposing that (in this case) one mouse is going to be fairly representative of all mice. When the presupposition fails, the resulting sentence is anomalous; while (3) is quite acceptable, (4) is anomalous.

3. A tree provides shade on summer days.
4. ?A tree loses its leaves in the fall.

Since all trees may be said to provide shade, any single tree might be considered a fair example. But since some trees do not lose their leaves in the fall, any single example cannot represent all trees in (4).

Generic the, on the other hand, calls forth an abstract median, the midpoint of the entire class. The mouse in (2) is the abstract average mouse. That generic the is abstract, while a/an is not, may be seen in comparing sentences (5) and (6).

5. The American family consists of 4.67 persons.

The fractional number of persons stated requires an abstract interpretation.

Generic articles may be used only with countable nouns. The reason for this may lie in the fact that a representative sample and a median point both imply differentiability, which is not a characteristic property of mass and abstract nouns.

4.0 Pedagogical organization. The organization suggested below provides for ordered steps relative to each other. It is not intended that the steps should be found in one lesson, or even in contiguous lessons.

4.1 Step One: Quantity. Every language provides for counting things, and most of us will agree that the concept of “counting” is easier to talk about than the concept of “known groups.” It thus makes sense to begin the learner on English quantifiers. He will, therefore, be restricted at this point to “count” nouns, and the syntactic lesson will concentrate on the singular/plural distinction, in which the singular quantifiers a/an and one are contrasted to the plural quantifiers two, three, some, a lot of, all, etc.

This step may conveniently be combined with the demonstrative pronouns, to emphasize the singular/plural contrast. The teacher may set the class to pointing out and identifying various entities in various quantities about the classroom.

This is a book. [Reserving one for emphatic cases]
These are three pencils.
Those are a lot of books.

The resulting sentences are, in some cases, recognizably non-authentic, but any teacher will recognize the formidable difficulties of achieving authenticity at the very beginning, and it is assumed that quantification will be introduced in the first lesson or lessons.

4.2 Step Two: Generic plural. In the second step, the quantifier all
is singled out for contrast to the generic plural, as meaning essentially the same thing. The learner is still restricted to “count” nouns and may, at this time, be given the paradigm below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SING.</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>GENERIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a book</td>
<td>some books</td>
<td>a lot of books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One type of drill in this step may involve conversions of the following sort:

All apples are red.  <->  Apples are red.
All girls are pretty.  <->  Girls are pretty.

4.3 **Step Three: Non-count nouns.** Non-count nouns are introduced in contrast to count nouns, via the augmented paradigm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SING.</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>GENERIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a book</td>
<td>some books</td>
<td>a lot of books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>some water</td>
<td>a lot of water</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two points to be made. First, the mass noun should be introduced as being semantically plural but syntactically singular. The teacher should emphasize, on the one hand, that mass nouns occur with all the non-numeral plural quantifiers, yet, on the other hand, they take no plural endings and occur with singular forms of the verb. The semantic plurality of mass nouns means that, in particular, the NP water should NOT be discussed as some sort of singular noun that doesn’t “take” a/an. Instead, the noun phrase water should be related to the NP all water as a generic plural. A/an has nothing to do with it, and introduction of a/an in this context can only serve to confuse.

The second point is relatively minor. Traditionally, the learner is exposed to count/mass noun contrasts through drills that make a heavy play of the distinction between much and many. This practice is, I think, a mistake. Rather than making it easier for the learner to understand the real semantic and syntactic distinctions involved, much and many simply add another dimension to the problem. There is nothing whatsoever about much and many which clarifies the semantic/syntactic issue. Under the circumstances, it might be better to use a lot of until the learner has mastered the count/mass distinction. This practice might have an additional desirable effect: loss of the foreigner’s characteristic nonauthentic use of much in sentences like I have much money.

4.4 **Determiners.** As may be expected, the introduction of determiners to learners whose language lacks them is going to involve severe conceptual problems. I doubt that this can be avoided even in the best of all possible materials. There are two inter-dependent problems: how to communicate the idea of a known group, and how to communicate the meaning and function of the.

With respect to the former, it might be a good idea to introduce the
learner to which- NP questions at the outset (Which books are red?), which should not prove to be of great difficulty insofar as every language that I know of contains an equivalent. A determiner can then be introduced as something that specifies answers to such questions.

I would not, however, start with the determiner the, but with the demonstrative adjectives, which are fairly universal, and consequently within the range of the learner's experience.

Which books are red?
These books.

Then the may be introduced as a third type of "demonstrative adjective" (retaining, perhaps, the same terminology as used with this and that), whose meaning is neutral with respect to location, so that location, if appropriate, must be additionally indicated.

Which books are red?
These books.
Which books are blue?
Those books.
Which books are green?
The books on that table.

One of the reasons for introducing the in this particular type of noun phrase—that is, with a following specifying phrase—is that this form accounts for close to 50% of all instances of the in running text. In addition, with the specifier right there in the noun phrase, it is more explicitly defined than otherwise, which should make it easier for the learner to understand what is going on.

When introducing the less explicit "second-mention" use of the, it may work out well to link it to the use of pronouns, which have, by and large, the same range of use. For example,

I saw a book. \{The book\} was called "Moby Dick."

A girl kicked me. I kicked \{the girl\} back.

Once the equivalence is understood, it may be explained that other things being equal, the pronoun would be used. If, however, there is some confusion as to antecedent, then the noun phrase with the would be used.

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8 Followed by cases of previous mention and "unique" nouns (each about 15%). These percentages have been approximately calculated in a number of texts.
9 The pronoun, for that matter, can be shown to be a definite noun phrase even though it doesn't occur with a determiner. Its semantic definiteness can be seen in phrases that parallel distribution with previous mention definite NPs; its syntactic definiteness may be seen in phrases like one of us, some of them, etc., in which an of is required after a quantifier co-occurring with a pronoun. This suggests that of is not conditioned by the determiner, but by the definiteness of the noun.
Possessives—in all forms: my, Mary’s, the boy’s—can be introduced at virtually any point now. About the only problem that can be anticipated is with those learners in whose language possessives are not determiners. In Italian, for instance, the possessive adjective nearly always co-occurs with the definite article: il mio libro (’the my book’).

4.5 **Step Five: Quantity and determiner.** In the fifth step, the learner is introduced to noun phrases that contain both a quantifier and a determiner. In addition to learning the formal structure of the article (i.e., to learning to use of), the learner must be apprised of the fact that it is the number given by the quantifier and not of the norm itself that establishes the number of the NP as a whole. Thus, rather like the first exercise (section 4.1), the learner should be drilled on the contrast between singular and plural quantifiers in complex articles, with the students describing subsets of things in the classroom, perhaps.

One of these books is red.  
One of the books on that table is blue.  
Two of my books are green.

4.6 **Generic articles.** Generic usage of a/an and the is probably best delayed considerably. They are not, in fact, all that commonly found, and are left entirely out of many EFL texts, which teach the generic plural alone.

5.0 **Final note.** As you go along, you may become discouraged by an extraordinary propensity for your students—especially if they are Asian—to leave out a/an, even after they have mastered other, seemingly more complex forms of the article. On the face of it, they have every reason to leave it out. Why should they say a book rather than book? It is singular because there is no plural morpheme -s, and it is indefinite because there is no the.

The answer lies in the generalized function of the article, briefly mentioned in section 2.41: the article serves to concretize the noun as well as to limit it. Nouns without an article are abstractly understood; if a noun is to refer to a real thing, it must have an article. Thus book, by itself, is really “book-concept” or “book-abstraction,” and a book is something that you can hold and read.

However, communicating this rather vague concept to a learner may not be easy. Perhaps the best that can be done is to contrast the meanings of nouns that occur both abstractly and concretely.

A stone is a chunk of rock.  
Stone is a good building material.

A chicken is a bird that goes “duck.”  
Chicken is good to eat.

However, care should be taken to point out that English makes very limited use of this sort of abstraction. Otherwise your students may seize upon
what looks like a useful principle and come up with sentences like “Teacher
is a fine way of life.”

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(University of Hawaii), 3, 6.
Writing samples show that hearing-impaired people who have reached adulthood without a command of English have the same difficulty in expressing themselves in English as speakers of other languages in ESL classes.

Notwithstanding years of previous instruction, these hearing-impaired students have continued to evidence severe English-language problems. We are convinced that they need ESL work and are offering such a program at the Tutorial Center of Gallaudet College.

Because these students cannot hear and because they have problems not only with English structure but also with the concepts expressed, we have made two major modifications in ESL procedure: (1) Language practice is done in writing. (2) Practice at the mechanical stage is done with the addition of a step which forces the students to express the concept involved.

Although these students encounter problems in using English outside the classroom, the intensive ESL work they receive when our program is offered in its ideal form has resulted in significant improvement in their control of English. We as well as the students themselves see from end-of-course writing samples that they have improved their control of English and do, indeed, have the ability to master it.

ESL methodology has long been used to teach our language to foreign nationals, both here and in their home country, and to native Americans who are either speakers of a foreign language or of a non-standard dialect of English. For the past four years we at the Tutorial Center of Gallaudet College have been offering an ESL program to yet another group of adult students: although most of these students are native and were born into homes where Standard American English is spoken, none of them is in any sense a native user of that language.

Our students are deaf, and because of their handicap have passed through their “normal” language acquisition years and into adulthood without having heard the language in their environment.

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J. Philip Goldberg and Marcia B. Bordman

Mr. Goldberg is Professor of English and Director of the Tutorial Center at Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C. With Ms. Bordman he edited Guidelines, Teaching English as a Second Language (Adult Basic Education Program, Prince George’s County Public Schools, Upper Marlboro, Maryland, 1973). Ms. Bordman is Instructor in English at the Tutorial Center, Gallaudet College.

We would not wish the reader to think that the Tutorial Center English-language program is the work alone of the authors. The program would not have been possible without the contributions of: Mary A. Bavister, Ann Beasley, Patricia Byrd, Astrid Goodstein, Bernadene Schlien, Margaret Wallworth, and James C. Woodward, Jr.
Yet our statement that these deaf adults have a second-language problem with English is often met with surprise and incredulity by many teachers of the deaf as well as ESL teachers. That our contention is correct, however, and that what these students need is ESL instruction, is clear from writing samples, which show that the struggle of Tutorial Center language students to use English to express themselves is virtually the same as that faced by students enrolled in various ESL programs: 

A. Hearing Non-native Users of English (Low Intermediate)

1. For many years I dream with will go to the United States. Come the day that my dream was reality, and it was like I'm here now. When my mother was with me at the airport I will like cry, but she told me; "Mary it's a good experience for you. Take care easy. Many friends and family wanted told me good by. But at this moment I only liked stay with my mother and my boyfriend. . . .

   (age 19, Spanish)

2. Holiday in my country is very interesting because my country is many object to see and much nice river and very clean forest its no private its public. In my country lots walking everyone everywhere is no so much automobilist like in the United States. Trips in Poland is rather train or busses is no so much expensive. Train is double one—short and long distans. My fancy to holiday is Seaside and river or forest. My boys like too. My country forest have much mushrooms and blueberry. I often cook somethink to eate on camping side of them.

   (age 40, Polish)

B. Hearing-impaired Gallaudet Preps (age ca. 19)

If I have been chosen as the new Director of the preparatory, I would have change the dormitory life first of all and the second would be courses. First of all, I would change several things which is connection to the study habit. I think dormitory needs to have repairs and each rooms should have repair . . . with a good repair and paint, the rooms could influence the student to keep clean . . . .

This one picture remind me of belly stomach. I had one now—Ugh!!! Anyway when I entered College last fall. My weight is 215 lbs. In college every body said that I get fatter than before I had. It is true. During the summer my weight is 190 lbs. Every student said "wow," you have a pregnant. I am so embarrasment. From now on I decide to get some loss weight before the basketball season come. I am lost 10 lbs. now.

As is the case in many ESL classrooms, our students do not begin our course as absolute beginners. They are somewhere in the beginning to intermediate range. As in any ESL classroom where students begin the program already in command of certain English constructions and vocabulary, the teacher finds this an advantage because he can begin the instruction at a

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We wish to stress that the deaf students we are speaking of in this paper are not representative of the Gallaudet College student body as a whole. We are a tutorial center and so see in our English-language program only those students who have the most severe English-language problems.
somewhat more advanced level. However, when the students have some familiarity with a language item but do not control it completely, two problems arise: (1) the student is faced with the task of breaking un-English "habits," in some cases long established, so as to acquire the English way, and (2) some students, failing to acknowledge that their competence is less than absolute, balk at being required to practice "old" items, argue with the teacher, and generally seem to resent being in the class. Many ESL teachers will recall students who fit this category, but those of us who teach the deaf probably encounter them more frequently, and it is easy to see why many deaf students feel this way. Indeed, we find it easy to sympathize with them, for these are students who have already had 12 to 15 years of English courses.

In order to understand why 12 years or so of English-language instruction have produced such meager results, it is necessary to understand something of the background of these students. Deaf children of deaf parents attain school age having acquired natively a sign language—in most cases, American Sign Language. Although these students can evidence problems in the acquisition of English, they have like their hearing counterparts, been brought up in a language environment which is natural, consistent, and unambiguous. On the other hand, most of the students we see here are from hearing families. They reach school age without having acquired a native command of any language: their parents, being hearing, have no native command of any sign language to impart to them, and the children, being unable to hear sufficiently well, have not received consistent input of English.

Those deaf children who enter programs where English is considered of primary importance but where the attempt is made to use it with them in the "normal" way, by speaking to them alone, are put in the virtually impossible situation of having to acquire the language by means of lipreading. This method is rarely successful in imparting English because the information visible on the lips is incomplete and highly ambiguous and hence does not result in the clear communication of messages.

Many teachers, however, although not unaware of their students’ lack of English, are, understandably so acutely mindful of the need to establish for these children a means of consistent and unambiguous communication, that communication itself becomes the primary goal and English is either wittingly or unwittingly relegated to a back seat. The most reasonable and natural system to establish clear communication among these students is a manual one. There are several such systems in existence, but they all share a common feature—signs are put in English word order. The belief is that speaking and simultaneously signing in English word order will help the students learn English. These manual systems are very successful in creating and maintaining spontaneous and open communication in the classroom. However, these manual systems, which are such an advantage in the early schooling of these deaf children and which continue to be a very great tool for the imparting of information and for making easy communication among
the students themselves, turn out to be the very thing which ultimately stymies their education. These children later find their textbooks written in a language which they do not command. This comes as a surprise to some of their teachers, who thought they had been communicating in English all this time. Yet ESL teachers will easily grasp the problem here: putting signs in English word order is not an effective device for teaching English. In fact, the frustrations faced by students attempting to acquire English in this manner are not much different from those faced by students attempting to acquire it by lipreading alone, and the frustrations of both situations become immediately clear if we envision ourselves trying to acquire Polish by either lipreading alone or by a system which mouths Polish on the lips and at the same time sends signs on the hands in Polish word order. It would be no wonder that we would reveal in our writing samples that we had a Polish language problem, and it would be a credit to us if we could come as close in Polish to expressing ourselves as these students sometimes do in English.¹

The fact that our students are deaf and not hearing has necessitated our making certain modifications in ESL procedures. The most obvious adaptation that we have made is that we use English exclusively in its written form.

We do so because it is the only way that we can assure ourselves that the students know with 100% certainty what the words are that are being addressed to them.

We have developed our program along the lines described by Christina Bratt Paulston (TESOL Quarterly, September, 1971) and put the students through three phases of language practice: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. However, in our program we usually add a component to the mechanical phase. We do so because we have found that these students, although they do have serious structure problems, often display the deeper problem of not having a grasp of the concepts which these structures express and when to use them. We have found, therefore, that these students are from the very start in need of exercises which add a component to the mechanical procedures of substitution and transformation. This component reinforces the students in their grasp of concepts: each time they write a drill sentence, they must write an accompanying sentence expressing the concept implied. Some of the exercises involve the students in producing sentences not very frequently expressed—often they are the kernel sentences underlying more frequently encountered transformations.

Much of the very excellent material of this kind now being used and devised for use in our program is the work of our colleague at the Tutorial Center, Bernadene Schlien, M. S. L., Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University. The following exercises are taken from our unit on

¹We are not speaking here of the usefulness of manual communication as a means of communicating with and among deaf people who already have English. We are speaking only of its ineffectiveness as a device for teaching English.
the use of -ed and -ing adjective forms. In the first exercise, the students must choose either -ed or -ing, depending upon the context of the sentence. They must then substantiate their choice by expressing in another sentence the concept involved.

A. Teacher: That (shock) news made us feel bad.
   Student: That shocking news made us feel bad. (major sentence)
   That news shocks us. (concept)

The purpose of the next exercise is to help the students to distinguish between the use of the present continuous and the be + -ing adjective form. The students must substitute a common adjective that we know they have a “feel” for in the -ing slot. If the sentence produced is acceptable, they know that the -ing word is an adjective; if it is not acceptable, they know it is a verb. They must then write a concept sentence with the adverb always. The students have previously learned that we normally do not use always with be + -ing verbs; therefore, they know that their “verb sentence” must be expressed in the simple present. If their -ing word is an adjective, they know it can occur in a sentence with always.

B. Teacher: The teacher is boring the class. (major sentence)
   Student: *The teacher is bad the class. (test sentence)
   The teacher always bores the class. (concept sentence)
   Teacher: The teacher is boring in the class. (major sentence)
   Student: The teacher is bad in the class. (test sentence)
   The teacher is always boring. (concept sentence)

It will perhaps strike ESL teachers as a poor practice to ask students to use English words to produce non-English sentences. That we sometimes do it shows the length to which we will go to assure ourselves that underlying concepts are grasped. The only way we can tell whether or not the students have the right concept in their minds is to make them put it into words. This added conceptual component to the mechanical stage has yet another advantage for the students enrolled in our program. Because all of our drills are done in written form, the pace is of necessity quite slow, nor is there any way to quicken it. A slow paced written pattern drill serves little purpose when it permits the student's mind to wander. Our insistence that the student express a concept sentence, no matter how unidiomatic or how infrequently used, forces the student to think about what he is saying.

It obvious from the foregoing that we have had to devise much of our own material. Most of our students are either native to or at least proficient in a language whose system often does not closely parallel that of English. In their attempts to learn English they are in a situation somewhat like that of speakers of languages which do not make certain concept distinctions fundamental to English. For example, just as the Russian speaker feels no need to distinguish between I want a book and I want the book so our deaf students feel no need to distinguish them. Nor do our deaf students grasp the distinction between such sentences as They eat sandwiches and They
are eating sandwiches. We have found that much of what is available on the market takes for granted that most students, already feeling the need to express such distinctions, need only the English forms to do it. Just as many of our ESL texts seem less well suited to the needs of speakers of Slavic and Oriental languages than to the needs of speakers of the western European languages, so are they not overly well suited to the needs of deaf students of our language. But we are convinced that with the right materials, such as those we are devising, these deaf students are as capable of mastering our language as are the speakers of languages the most remote from ours.

Our students often face a problem not faced by their hearing counterparts in other ESL classrooms in this country. These students suffer from the same “panic” and embarrassment that grips many students studying foreign languages at the more basic levels when they have to communicate with natives. Unlike their hearing counterparts, however, they do not often find themselves in situations where the sheer necessity to communicate in English forces them to overcome these feelings. Indeed, the opportunity for them to use their English at all outside the classroom is very limited. The reasons for this are basically twofold: (1) It is difficult to find many native users of English who are willing to engage in conversations and discussions in English in writing. (2) Any ESL student at the more basic levels can find a general lack of interest on the part of native users in communicating in English at his level, and even a general lack of sympathetic appreciation of the problems involved.

We lament the fact that these problems exist because it makes it almost impossible for these students to get the kind of language practice outside the classroom that the most effective language acquisition requires. But with the kind of language work which our program provides, with its unambiguous input and intensive practice of the right kind, these students have shown that they indeed have the ability to acquire English.

We offer our program in various formats, the most effective of which is our seven-week summer session. During this session, the students take no other class except English and are in class 6 hours a day, 5 days a week. The session, although short, permits the students, for the period of its duration, for the first time in their lives, to approach the task with the intensity and singleness of purpose which adult second-language acquisition requires. That the combination of effective materials, singleness of purpose, and high intensity has brought encouraging results can be easily perceived from the accompanying pre- and post-session writing samples from the Tutorial Center Summer Session, 1973 (see Appendix).

APPENDIX

STUDENT 1

Pre-session: “What I Expect to Get from Summer School?”

I expected to get improvement in the English class. Also learn how to use the
usage, grammar, and composition. I also expected to learn how to make three sentences into one sentence. I hope to get improvement in this summer school.

**Post-session:** What I learned in Summer School.

During the summer school, I really learned a lot in my English class. I learned something which I haven't learn last year at my school.

I learned about articles, which to be put in places. I also learned how to write perfect sentences. Also I learned something that I haven't learn were the verbs, non-count nouns, prepositions, gerund, infinitive, special verbs and conjunctions. The special thing which I had learned in this summer school were "would rather," "when, while, should, ought to, can, may, permit, let, if not, unless, would had, verb with ing and to, where, and proper places with "the."

The vocabulary words which I had learned a lot in my English class. Some are hard and I could hardly remember those difficult word. Some are easy to learn.

**STUDENT 2**

**Pre-session:** When I came the Gallaudet College this year. Well, I will be preparatory at the college. I want to study the English very hard. because I'm poor. I hope I will be improve this lesson, then I really want to study the all of lessons. But I really love to study the Algebra than other lesson.

When I will be graduate the Gallaudet College, then I will go to Mississippi and I would like to be a teacher as Mathematic or Pe Coach. I would like to teach the children and it about different lessons. and I really want to the children get lots of learn so they can go to college, and they will be education.

**Post-session:** "What I got (learned) from summer school"

I came here 1½ month ago. I took an English and I studied for Summer Session. I learned about English and I improved my language. I really want to say, "Thank you to Mrs. ______" Because she taught me a lot about English, and I learned immedatly. I hope that I study very hard.

When I met many friends here. I learned to talk with them. I really like to talk with them from other states and other countries. I felt that college life is different from my deaf school. I like college because it is free, and I can go somewhere, but I'm responsibility. And I learned to be careful that other boy try to revenge on me, and I watch out. I take my responsibility that I go somewhere.

**STUDENT 3**

**Pre-session:** "My first impression of Gallaudet College"

My first impression of Gallaudet College are Education, friends and new places. I expect to improve my problems in English and expect to have more education.

**Post-session:** "What I got (learned) from summer school."

I learned English a lot from my summer school at Gallaudet College. I will try to use many languages in the future. I will try to use them frequently. I enjoyed learning many words here in class.

It was an interesting summer school. I learned to write a lot. I noticed that my languages improved a lot since I was here for summer school.

I have learned to be responsible for myself. I will have to take a care of myself in here. Because College life here was much different from my home or school. But I enjoyed living here.

**STUDENT 4**

**Pre-session:** "My first impression of Gallaudet College"

My first impression of Gallaudet College is friends. The friends are so friendly to me and talked with me about the college's life. I am interested in their stories about the college's life. Also, they helped me when I am in trouble thru courses or other problems. They are so wonderful people. I met many new and old friends around here.
"What I expect to get from Summer School"

I expect to get a lot prove in English and vocab. I have a problem with English when I write. I hope I will learn English a lot this Summer School if I study hard. Also I want to have a good education. Vocabulary is my problem, too. But I will learn the vocab thru English.

Post-session: "What I learned from summer school"

I learned a lot since June. I learned some new vocabulary. I practiced to write into the correct sentence. I feel that I improve a little because I have a little problem in English language. But I will try my best to do this fall also I hope some one will help me to correct the English language.

I think it is good for me to come here for Summer School because I learn a lot before I will frustate with the course this fall. But I won't.

My teacher, Mrs. _________, is good teacher. She gave us a lot of work to do also she explained us why did we make some mistakes. Also we practiced to write the notes each other. It was fun to write. The students are good, too. I bet they learned a lot as I did. Because I noticed that some of my classmates are improving a lot with the English.
Close Similarities in Dialect Features of Black and White White College Students in Remedial Composition Classes*

Marilyn S. Sternglass

In many developmental level composition courses where the population consists of both black and white students, the question arises as to whether black and white students need to be taught composition skills in separate classes or whether these groups of students can be taught together. New evidence that there are close similarities in the dialect features produced by black and white students in formal compositions suggests that there may not be reasons based on language (dialect) differences to justify separate classroom teaching situations. With the exception of one linguistic feature, invariant be, there was no qualitative difference in the nonstandard features produced by black and white students, but there was a quantitative difference. For all features for which means were available in this study, the mean usage for the black students was higher than for the white students except for one feature, nonstandard use of to do. The major pedagogical implication of this study is that separate language materials for white and black students are not needed in remedial college level writing classes.

In the September 1973 issue of the TESOL Quarterly, Carol Reed presented an approach for teaching Black English Vernacular speakers to write in a second dialect. She pointed out that the student “must be enabled to throw off unfounded and injurious notions about his dialect as ‘non-language,’ or at best, ‘incorrect’ or pathological English, indicative of inferior intelligence (Reed 1973: 290).” Her approach was directed exclusively to the classroom situation where all of the students are black and presumably the instructor is also black.

But in many “developmental level” college composition courses, particularly in community colleges where the population consists of both black and white students, the question arises as to whether black and white students need to be taught composition skills in separate classes or whether these groups of students can be taught together. Everyone would agree that rhetorical strategies can be taught to any grouping of students. While there is certainly a legitimate question as to whether there are cultural and psy-
### TABLE 1
Examples of Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Feature</th>
<th>Theoretical Model</th>
<th>White Informants</th>
<th>Black Informants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Past Tense</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absence -ed suffix</td>
<td>consonant cluster reduction</td>
<td>laugh because get freshen up</td>
<td>pass down prejudice by bias #</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tense not obligatory in BE where time cues given elsewhere</td>
<td>I turn around and there he was</td>
<td>I was held back and end up dropping out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>In the past three years I open myself up</td>
<td>I have a bad habit to read them only when they are assign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irregular past tense</td>
<td>present tense consistent with occurrences in past for BE</td>
<td>come, grow, choose</td>
<td>come, grow, begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypercorrect past tense</td>
<td>final -ed has no tense significance for BE</td>
<td>a lower classed race spoked</td>
<td>thrusted tempered (tempered) first handed experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To Be</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absence of copula</td>
<td>wherever SE can contract, BE can delete</td>
<td>Each person— in a land</td>
<td>everything you — just about to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after that, no deletion expected for whites or blacks</td>
<td>t h a t — OK with me</td>
<td>T h a t — why Black people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>no person-number agreement exists for full forms for some speakers of BE</td>
<td>Other sports I like to do is</td>
<td>Obviously fear and sorrow is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invariant be</td>
<td>indicates habitual aspect in BE</td>
<td>The reason I like these are because</td>
<td>The feeling that the Black have are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(no instances)</td>
<td>But there always be still there always be a better future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject-Verb Agreement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular subject + plural verb</td>
<td>-s suffix absent in BE with 3rd singular subject</td>
<td>my mind start to wander</td>
<td>if the teacher tell you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural subject + singular verb</td>
<td></td>
<td>types of reading materials that interests me</td>
<td>and the students reacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard to do</td>
<td>-s suffix absent in BE with 3rd sing. sub.</td>
<td>she don’t by any books</td>
<td>Even though Blacks does not know</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### DIALECT FEATURES

(Table 1 continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Feature</th>
<th>Theoretical Model</th>
<th>White Informants</th>
<th>Black Informant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard to have</td>
<td>borrow from SE to BE</td>
<td>The study of Negro things has gone wrong</td>
<td>heroes have helped</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ARTICLES**

| absence of article                | sometimes absent in BE | grandfather was heavy | compared to — rest of — population |
| nonstandard distribution a/ an    | a used before word beginning with vowel or consonant in BE | play a important role | a outlook is a experience |
| hypercorrect use of the article   | characteristic of BE | between the towers A & B | for the both types of parents |

**PREPOSITIONS**

| nonstandard use of preposition    | difference in distribution of preposition between SE and BE | a class in that same time | is definitely needed to any man |
| absence of preposition            | positional relationships indicated without preposition in some pidgin/creoles | graduate ____ high school | were deprived — the knowledge |
| hypercorrect preposition          | being on the way of learning the language | giving of example of myself |

**PRONOUNS**

| faulty pronoun reference         | pronouns that do not agree in gender or number with antecedent | you can always tell who is going to dinner by the hungry look on their face | that a black person experiences in their lifetime |
| pronoun use in an indefinite manner | pronoun without a definite antecedent | Nothing can be done except close the schools which is not far off | fear and sorrow is in the minds of competitors and this would obviously |
| indefinite singular pronoun + plural reference pronoun | lack of agreement between pronoun and antecedent | the time to fall asleep on one is just before they’re ready to be cut | Another can pass what they think |

### Footnotes

1. Theological reasons for teaching language skills to black and white students separately, new evidence (Sternglass 1973) suggests that there may not be reasons based on language (dialect) differences among black and white college students to justify separate classroom teaching situations. (In fact,
pedagogical strategies may ultimately direct that contrastive language patterns can best be taught outside of the formal classroom, in writing laboratories or in individual teacher-student conferences.

In the racially integrated developmental level college composition classroom, the black and white students who have been “placed” there show a remarkable homogeneity in the nonstandard grammatical markers which they produce in their writing. (See Table 1.) These similarities have not been noted before, primarily because no serious studies of the nonstandard features produced by white students have been done. And these features have not been compared either qualitatively or quantitatively with the features produced by black students.

Previous descriptions of the nonstandard forms produced by black and white students have often foundered on the generalization that all nonstandard dialects overlap in some areas, but for the most part these areas have remained largely undescribed. In a study concerned with written language only, the forms produced by 304 students (223 white and 81 black) in remedial writing classes at the freshman college level in the Pittsburgh area, seventeen nonstandard grammatical constructions were examined to determine whether any correlations could be found between these linguistic forms and certain non-linguistic variables (such as race, socio-economic class, language-history background), and also to determine whether qualitative and/or quantitative differences exist among the language forms produced by students of different ethnic, racial and language history backgrounds.

The informants in this study, writing for freshman remedial college composition courses, were presenting their best approximation of formal style. The linguistic forms produced were not instances of hurried or even careful speech; they were instances of linguistic forms prepared in writing with the expectation of critical evaluation by English teachers. Thus, the data presented in this study must be seen as the informants’ best efforts at reaching toward the standard forms, and nonstandard usages that appeared cannot be interpreted as instances of “carelessness,” but rather as instances of lack of control of the standard English forms as they appear in writing.

In the essays themselves, assigned on a wide range of topics by a variety of instructors, the students indicated clearly their awareness that these written compositions were to reflect their “best” use of language. A white student from the Allegheny Campus of the Community College of Allegheny County, writing of his family history, stated:

“These parents of the thirteen children have a hard time making these children use proper English speech but they keep trying and correcting. So far they've done pretty good. At least they stopped them all from saying ain't.”

---

2 The student population came from the University of Pittsburgh English 2 level, the Allegheny Campus of the Community College of Allegheny County and the UCEP Program (primarily a black students program) at the University of Pittsburgh. (See Table 4 for a more complete demographic description.)
And a black student from the UCEP program at the University of Pittsburgh demonstrated clearly his sensitivity to “diagnostic writing” in freshman composition courses:

The Black experience is having to write essays in class like this so the teachers and other people who want these samples can try to judge how deeply involved a student is. This is not actually a way to find out “where a person is coming from” but a way to see how well standard white English has been transfixed in their mind.

It was clear that the papers in the corpus of the study were attempts to produce the formal register in writing. Obviously many nonstandard dialect features would be highly stigmatized in such a linguistic environment and so it was expected that students would make every attempt to suppress non-standard forms. Claudia Mitchell-Kernan has pointed out that

Blacks feel that their code does not meet the prestige norms. Linguistic insecurity is generated by this belief and in situations where the prestige function of language is important they monitor and attempt to delete and replace nonstandard variants with standard variants. (1971: 56)

The first paper that each student produced for the college course was included in the study. In this way, the factor of “teacher influence” on subsequent papers could be eliminated. In other words, the papers reflected the competencies which the students brought to the college experience, not any that they gained there. One of the purposes of the study was to provide data which would indicate those areas where pedagogical materials are needed by developmental students as they are entering the college environment.

One of the major difficulties in evaluating previous descriptions of nonstandard language forms has been that comparisons have usually been made between standard English and Black English. The dialect (or dialects) of low socio-economic whites has never been given a unique designation (except perhaps to be called “nonstandard”) and these language forms have remained largely undescribed. No comparisons of the nonstandard forms produced by black and white students in the formal written register have been undertaken heretofore.

The “foreignness” of Black English features has been postulated by Stewart (1971a, 1971b) and Dillard (1972). Stewart (1972) has begun an investigation of the influence of foreign language background on the non-standard features produced by second and third generation white Americans, but no studies have been done on those who are present day college-students. As Wolfram has pointed out,

Although language interference among first generation immigrants in the United States is relatively well represented in the literature, studies of the linguistic assimilation of the children of these immigrants are rather meager. The English of these children is generally dismissed with statements such as “The English of second generation is simply assimilated
to the surrounding English speaking community." On one level, these observations can hardly be disputed; on another level, this type of oversimplification and generalization neglects the essential dynamics of language contact and language assimilation. (1972:1)

It therefore seemed appropriate to include an examination of the language history background of the white informants (as well as the black informants) who produced some of the specific nonstandard forms in this study which had been identified in previous studies as being characteristic of Black English.

In an examination of one of the nonstandard features, absence of the copula, seven white students were found to have deleted a form of to be. Six of these white students (those for whom an ethnic designation could be made) could be said to have been influenced by foreign language interference within the last two generations or—at the least—to have been influenced by the nonstandard patterns of English which were used by their peers, their parents and/or their grandparents. The four black students who omitted some form of the copula could not be characterized in regional terms since their parents and grandparents were born in both southern and northern areas of the United States. Thus, Stewart’s thesis that there is “one common denominator for zero copula in all these cases ... that they are the result of some historical stage of ‘foreigner talk’” (1973: personal communication) is not contradicted by the data in this study.

The above data (and a similar analysis of the language-history backgrounds of the students who omitted the -s on the third-person present tense verbs) suggests that similar surface forms are being produced by both white and black students who have quite different language-history backgrounds, leading to the possible conclusion that these similar surface constructions have had a wide variety of historical paths to their production.

Another point which needs to be considered is the relatively low frequency of use of almost all the nonstandard forms found in the writing of freshmen college students in remedial composition courses. If a nonstandard feature

3 In commenting on the preliminary findings of this study, Stewart pointed out that two aspects of the "foreignization" process should be kept in mind:

1. Some structural aspects of foreignization may be the result, not of direct structural interference from the "Old Country" language, but rather the result of certain kinds of structural reorganization and change which go on when foreigners "pick up" another language—cf. pidginization, although the process need not go far enough to produce a true pidgin form of the language being learned.

2. In ethnic or multi-ethnic communities, a foreignized community dialect may develop, and then be acquired by persons who themselves are not of foreign-language background, but simply because they are members of the speech community in which the foreignized dialect exists. Point 1, above, would explain why you have zero copula being used by Italian-Americans, when Italian is certainly not a zero copula language, or indeed by Irish-Americans in Pittsburgh (but not by them in New York, where Irish migration preceded the major waves of ethnic migration into the city which produced foreignized English). And point two would explain why such features are shared across ethnicities which have structurally-different Old Country languages. (Stewart, 1973: personal communication)
has a “low visibility,” the question might be legitimately raised, why bother with it at all? In his 1940 study of written forms, American English Grammar, Charles Fries noted that

only about 4 percent of the preterites in the Vulgar English letters had forms not used in Standard English. These are the ones that attract attention and because of that fact seem to bulk much larger in Vulgar English than they actually are. (1940:66)

And more recently, Stewart has pointed out that

a structural failure is “weak” only if a panel of judges (teachers, employers, etc.) fails to notice it; or, if the judges do notice it, they consider it not to reflect on the education or “intelligence” of the writer. A structural feature which the judges regarded as strongly reflecting (negatively, of course) on the writer would be “strong” regardless of its “linguistic weakness.” (1973: personal communication)

The stigmatizing effect of the nonstandard feature on the reader or listener explains its importance, even though its occurrence may be infrequent.

The statistical data on the nonstandard linguistic forms has been summarized in Table 2. One way to look at this set of data would be to group the linguistic features into “areas.” According to this kind of grouping, the percentage of users who produced at least one nonstandard form in a linguistic “area” for each racial group was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic area</th>
<th>% of white users</th>
<th>% of black users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>past tense forms</td>
<td>14% (N = 204)</td>
<td>19% (N = 75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to be forms</td>
<td>13% (N = 216)</td>
<td>34% (N = 79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard subject-verb</td>
<td>15% (N = 223)</td>
<td>19% (N = 81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard articles</td>
<td>13% (N = 223)</td>
<td>19% (N = 81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard prepositions</td>
<td>21% (N = 223)</td>
<td>33% (N = 81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonstandard pronoun use</td>
<td>24% (N = 142)</td>
<td>41% (N = 69)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though the mean usage figures were very low (as shown in Table 2), the percentage of students who produced at least one nonstandard form in each of the linguistic areas was by no means negligible.

A pattern of means was seen to develop in a consistent direction when the race of the students producing the nonstandard forms was considered. For all features for which means were available in this study, the mean usage for the black students was higher than for the white students except for one feature, nonstandard use of to do. On the basis of observation, a pattern seemed to emerge of consistently higher mean levels of usage for the black students than for the white students.

4Mean usage is defined in this study as the number of nonstandard occurrences of a feature of every 100 occurrences of a form of that feature. For example, if a student produced ten verb forms which required a past tense suffix (in standard usage) and omitted that suffix on two of the verb forms, the mean usage for that feature for that student would be 20% or 20.00.
TABLE 2
Summary of Statistical Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nonstandard Linguistic form</th>
<th>Total No. non-standard occurrences</th>
<th>No. of white users</th>
<th>% of white users</th>
<th>No. of black users</th>
<th>% of black users</th>
<th>Mean usage: total population</th>
<th>Mean: white users</th>
<th>Mean: black users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence past tense (-ed)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2.980</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past-irregular verbs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypercorrect past</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (cop. deletion)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>1.073</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence past tense (-ed)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (aux. deletion)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>2.950</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (invariant be)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>less than</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence 3rd person -s suffix</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>5.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other nonstandard sub-vb agreement</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1.303</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1.828</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of article</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstandard a/an</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypercorrect article</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstandard a/an</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of preposition</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypercorrect preposition</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
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<tr>
<td>Faulty pronoun reference</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indef. pronoun use</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other nonstandard pronoun &quot;case&quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>16.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite pronoun</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>16.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


When the mean usage of the linguistic features was examined for patterns of usage by socio-economic class of the users (Table 3), no consistent pattern appeared to emerge. Furthermore, no statistically significant correlation was found between socio-economic class and the production of nonstandard linguistic forms.

One might ask why there was no evidence of statistical correlation with socio-economic class when other linguistic studies in which comparisons were made between the forms produced by lower socio-economic class members and those produced by middle class socio-economic class members did show evidence of differences in language forms. The reason that such differences did not appear in this study, in my opinion, was because a pre-selection process operated in the placement of students in remedial writing classes which far outweighed the importance of any single non-linguistic variable or any combination of variables. That pre-selection process resulted in students who were characterized by some form of language deficiency as measured by school systems being placed in these classes. Therefore, for example, the middle class students in remedial writing classes at the freshman college level already consist of a sub-set characterized by this type of language deficiency; they cannot be considered to be a cross-section of all college freshmen. Yet, as the very low mean usage figures show, the “remedial” students have learned to suppress nonstandard features in their writing to a surprising extent.

With the exception of one linguistic feature, invariant be, there was no qualitative difference in the nonstandard features produced by white and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nonstandard linguistic form</th>
<th>Mean: Mean: Mean: Mean:</th>
<th>Chi-squares that were significant at the 0.05 level or better</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Absence past tense (-ed)</td>
<td>3.81 4.34 0.93 1.83 x² = 34.39702*** for age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (copula deletion)</td>
<td>1.63 0.96 1.00 0.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (auxiliary deletion)</td>
<td>0.00 0.93 0.35 0.00 x² = 7.76239* for race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be (nonstandard agreement)</td>
<td>3.47 2.79 2.33 1.80 x² = 41.5860* * for race</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent 3rd person -s suffix</td>
<td>3.89 4.50 2.07 0.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other nonstandard sub-vb. agreement</td>
<td>3.30 2.88 4.29 2.03 x² = 56.59532* for language history</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do</td>
<td>0.71 1.94 0.54 0.00 x² = 7.3411B* for race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have</td>
<td>4.40 2.34 0.00 2.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence or article</td>
<td>1.08 0.91 0.25 1.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstandard a/an</td>
<td>0.99 1.21 2.09 0.14 x² = 21.99212*** for age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstandard preposition</td>
<td>3.01 1.58 1.94 1.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of preposition</td>
<td>0.37 0.37 0.39 0.23 x² = 37.78419*** for age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All nonstandard pronoun uses</td>
<td>8.42 11.34 11.50 11.42 x² = 49.23391*** for race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level.
** Significant at the 0.02 level.
*** Significant at the 0.01 level.
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pitt Eng. 2 (122)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. Coll. (125)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>UCEP (57)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11.2</td>
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<th>Residence</th>
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<th>Adj. freq.</th>
<th>8+</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
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<td>57.9</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>42.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. College</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>UCEP</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>70.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>36.0</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td>Pitt Eng. 2</td>
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<td>4.1</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>95.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. College</td>
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<td>15.2</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>84.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>UCEP</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
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<td>26.7</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>73.3</td>
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<th>Adj. freq.</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
<th>4</th>
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<td>30</td>
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<tr>
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<td>25.8</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>26.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>12.9</td>
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<td>Age</td>
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<td>Adj. freq.</td>
<td>23+</td>
<td>Adj. freq.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------</td>
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<td>-----</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pitt Eng. 2</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. College</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>UCEP</td>
<td>57</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>Total pop. combined</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Male</th>
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<th>Female</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
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<td>41</td>
<td>33.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. College</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCEP</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>40.1</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mobility</th>
<th>Up</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
<th>Steady</th>
<th>Adj. freq.</th>
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<td>45</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>63.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. College</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCEP</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total pop. combined</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Not all non-linguistic data was available for each informant. (Pitt Eng. 2—University of Pittsburgh, English 2, first remedial level; Comm. College—Allegheny Campus, Allegheny County Community College, developmental levels; UCEP—primarily black students program at University of Pittsburgh, first developmental level for that program only, English 1 developmental level.)*
black students. The nonstandard features which were examined and which were found to be produced in similar linguistic environments by white and black students were the following:

1. nonstandard past tense and past participial forms (absence of the -ed suffix, forms of irregular verbs, hypercorrect past tense forms)
2. forms of to be (copula deletion, auxiliary deletion, nonstandard subject-verb agreement forms)
3. nonstandard subject-verb agreement (absence of 3rd person -s suffix on present tense verbs, forms of to do, forms of to have, other nonstandard subject-verb agreement forms)
4. nonstandard articles (absence of article, nonstandard use of a/ an, hypercorrect use of articles)
5. nonstandard prepositions (nonstandard use of prepositions, absence of preposition, hypercorrect prepositions)
6. nonstandard pronoun use (faulty reference, faulty use of indefinite pronouns, indefinite pronouns with nonstandard agreement, nonstandard “cases” of pronouns).

A quantitative difference in the production of these nonstandard forms was found in terms of the race of the user. However, the differences in usage between black and white students of these features was less than might have been supposed.

Of the 17 individual features examined, 16 were produced at very low mean usage levels, none of these 16 exceeding four nonstandard occurrences of every 100 potential occurrences. The low mean usage of all but one of the nonstandard features indicated recognition by the students of the inappropriateness of nonstandard forms in the formal register and a clear ability to suppress those forms which they recognized as being nonstandard. Only the feature of nonstandard pronoun use was found to occur at a much higher level of mean usage, 11 of every 100 potential occurrences. The reason for this higher level of usage is postulated as non-recognition by the students of these forms as being stigmatized in the formal register. Since there was apparently not as sharp a distinction between informal and formal uses of this feature as there was for the other features, the students did not feel the need to try to suppress these forms which perhaps are in the process of becoming nonstandard only in the formal register.

The characteristics of the population in terms of the non-linguistic variables used in this study are detailed in Table 4. This population was already characterized by one dominant feature, language deficiency as it has been defined by formal school programs, and the other factors which characterized the population turned out to be of negligible importance in this study.

The major pedagogical implication of this study is that separate language materials for white and black students are not needed in remedial college level writing classes. Student writing can be analyzed for the identification of particular features for individual students or small groups of
students, and the students can have the variability of their usage and the specific dialect contrasts pointed out to them. There appears to be no "psychic" damage when the contrasting patterns are identified from the actual writing produced by the student, particularly when the student himself produced both the standard and nonstandard form in the same piece of writing.

REFERENCES

——— 1972-73. Personal communications.
The Cassette Tape Recorder: A Bonus or a Bother

in ESL Composition Correction

Maryruth Bracy Farnsworth

The correction of compositions has been the bane of every ESL teacher since the first 500-word theme was submitted. While the teaching of correct principles of writing and their creative implementation in assignments ranging from controlled paragraphs to free compositions are never to be minimized as demanding tasks, the greatest difficulty in teaching composition is perhaps the effective use of the "corrected" paper as a tool for further student improvement in writing. Some research has been done in the area of composition correction by scholars such as Eugene Brière, Donald Knapp, and Jewell Friend. The latter two provided composition check-lists or evaluation sheets for the teacher as a guide to the correction and grading of student compositions.

Almost thirteen years ago, John S. Harris of Brigham Young University began using reel-to-reel tape recordings to facilitate the correction of technical English papers in Texas. It proved cumbersome and time-consuming; yet the results in terms of the students' improvement from their "corrected" compositions were noticeable. Recently, with the advent of the cassette tape recorder, this technique has become extremely valuable and even time-saving. It is being used currently in many of the freshman English composition courses and technical writing courses at Brigham Young University.

The purpose of this paper is two-fold: to explore and illustrate the advantages of the use of cassette tape recorders in the correction of ESL compositions on the intermediate to advanced levels (an appendix with suggestions for the procedure in tape grading is at the end of the paper); and to present the results of a preliminary experiment with accompanying student evaluation comments as to the effectiveness of such a technique compared with the use of a regular composition check-list or marginal notations.

The correction of compositions has been the bane of every ESL teacher since the first 500-word theme was submitted. While the teaching of correct principles of writing and their creative implementation in assignments ranging from controlled paragraphs to free compositions are never to be minimized as demanding tasks, the greatest difficulty in teaching composition is perhaps the effective use of the "corrected" paper as a tool for further improvement in writing.

* This paper was presented at the 1973 TESOL Convention in San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Ms. Farnsworth, an instructor in the Linguistics Department at Brigham Young University, is co-author with Russell Campbell of Letters from Roger: Exercises in Communication (Prentice-Hall, 1972). She has published previously in the TESOL Quarterly.
student improvement in writing. Notable research has been done in the area of composition correction by Eugene Brière (1966), Donald Knapp (1972) and Jewell Friend (1971); in fact, the latter two have provided valuable composition checklists or evaluation sheets to be used by the teacher as a guide to the correction and grading of student compositions.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce yet another tool or technique in the area of composition correction—a technique which is currently in extensive use at Brigham Young University in both the regular and ESL English composition courses, and is proving to be of valuable assistance in accomplishing desired course objectives. This technique has been referred to as “tape grading” (Harris 1970) and will be presented and discussed here as the use of the cassette tape recorder.

Almost thirteen years ago, John S. Harris, a professor of English at Brigham Young University, began using reel-to-reel tape recordings to facilitate the correction of technical English papers at the University of Texas. In an HEW report by Kallsen at least three other teachers were listed as having tried similar techniques using voice writers or 33 1/3 discs (Kallsen 1963), but we believe Harris was the first to try individual reel-to-reel taping. It proved cumbersome (tedious to thread and rewind) and time-consuming, but student improvement was noticeable. Recently, with the convenience of the cassette tape recorders, the tediousness has been eliminated, leaving only the valuable and even time-saving technique. It has resulted in a more efficient and personal evaluation of the students’ performance on compositions and is widely favored by them. Consequently, cassette tape recorders are now used at BYU in Freshman English, Technical Writing and ESL intermediate and advanced composition courses.

Since the use of tape grading originated entirely within the realm of regular English composition classes, one can properly question the transference of this technique into the area of ESL composition correction. Tape recorders, as such, are not strangers to ESL. They have been used in pronunciation and conversation classes as long as the classes themselves have existed. However, one would immediately predict several problems in their

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2 Harris coined this phrase.
3 In this report, Cohen, Lumsden, and Reeves were mentioned as men who had tried a Voice Writer, records transcribed as notes to the students, and all students’ critiques recorded on one tape respectively. Kallsen’s report is probably the most ambitious yet tried, but his results involved 33-1/3 discs and proved inconclusive.
4 Out of the 50 ESL students this semester at BYU who commented on their preference between marginal comments and those recorded on cassettes, all but three preferred tape grading. Harris also notes from his use of the system in technical writing: “Overwhelmingly the students who have gone through the course on taped critiques have praised and endorsed it and recommended that it be continued.”
5 Tape cassettes are also being used in literature courses in the English Department and even other departments on campus are finding the technique valuable because it is personal and yet less time-consuming than individual interviews. It also has great possibilities in home study courses or areas where students must travel long distances for personal evaluations. Now, they can exchange tapes instead, which could be useful in adult education situations.
use in composition classes. My greatest doubt before I began using the cassette was whether the students would be able to understand my voice on the tape sufficiently to enable them to coordinate it with the red marks on their papers. I was surprised to find that not one student was unable to understand the taped critiques. In fact, the following student comments would indicate just the opposite: “I’d rather prefer the using of tape cassettes to the comments on my paper because it isn’t possible to explain about the errors in such a little space; however, if the teacher uses the tape, she can tell us the error and also the way she thinks it could be made better.” “I prefer having my compositions corrected using the tape method because it is more precisely commented on than the standard use of comments in the margins of my papers.” “Cassettes, please—the voice explains better and more clearly the mistakes I make—and I make a lot.” “The cassette gives me more information about my paper and also I can understand better what you are thinking about” . . . and so on through fifty students who commented this semester alone on the use of the cassette tape recorders.

It seems, therefore, that although the use of the cassette requires a combination of oral-aural skills on the part of the foreign student, he still prefers it to the perhaps easier written notations in the margins of his papers. As one student put it: “Although it would be easier at first for students not to use cassettes, the teacher can say much more and it is more clearly understood if she does; therefore I prefer using them.”

Harris originally listed four reasons why the tape recorder is preferable over other voice recording devices. He is referring here to the cassette variety:

1. Equipment cost is low—as little as $40.00 per unit (Craig 2603).
2. Tape cost is low—$.60 to $1.25 per student for the course, and the tape is left over at the end for other use.
3. Playback facilities are readily available. About half of the students have easy access to tape recorders, and playback facilities can be arranged for others at low cost.\textsuperscript{6}
4. Tape allows easy erasing for editing (second thoughts) and for reuse at the next session.

Perhaps the most obvious drawback to the use of the tape cassette for composition correction is the problem of learning the procedure. As with any new technique, it is more time-consuming until it has been mastered. The problem is more acute if you are unfamiliar with tape recorders in general. It can be embarrassing to have a student come back and say, “I tried to listen to the tape but there was nothing on it”—the result of your not having pushed the record button. Initial dictations may also be halting and you might find yourself using the erase, rewind, and replay more than you would like; but, I assure you that struggling to conquer the newness of

\textsuperscript{6}Brigham Young University has an ideal facility for playback since their library Language Resource Center is equipped with numerous cassette recorders which can be checked out with only a student activity card.
using a tape cassette is well worth the effort. Eventually it will require about the same amount of time as marginal corrections, but you will be able to accomplish much more with each paper.

The technique itself is rather straightforward. Harris has outlined the basic procedure in the five following steps:

1. The student is asked to furnish a cassette of recording tape which he hands in each time with his paper. A C-15 cassette is large enough. (Although longer essays may require a C-30).
2. The instructor reads the paper, making check marks in the margin and underlining words or phrases that he wants to talk about. At the same time, he routinely marks spelling and other simple mechanical errors.
3. After finishing the paper, he dictates onto tape his overall reaction to the paper and comments on specific problems of the text. Ordinarily these comments will relate more to larger elements than to mechanical errors. At the end of the recording he announces the grade.
4. The teacher then returns the paper and the tape cassette to the student. The student takes the cassette home to play it or takes it to a provided playback facility. Facilities can be conveniently arranged in language labs or by providing inexpensive tape recorders on a check-out basis at a department office or at the library. Such checkout machines should be battery operated, equipped with earphones and have the record device and speaker rendered inoperative.
5. After listening to the cassette, the student then returns it to the teacher with his next paper.

I found that very few modifications need to be made when using the above procedure for foreign student compositions. However, a few suggestions might enhance the technique in ESL classes. First, foreign students need to be reminded to buy blank cassettes. Many of my students came with pre-recorded tapes which are very expensive. Second, students have requested that the marks in the margins calling attention to things to be discussed should be made in red so they can spot them quickly while listening to the tapes. Third, I found that using cassettes for mechanical errors was too time-consuming because of the number of mistakes made in the average foreign student composition. Content critique, however, is extremely useful when done on the tape. The foreign student will usually profit from more examples of the correction and even a reinforcement exercise can be referred to or given. Finally, to insure that the foreign student has listened to and incorporated the corrections from the tape, I require re-written papers to be handed in with originals before the next assignment is tape graded. It also helps if one does not record the grade except at the end of the comments on the tape.

As to the question of whether the tape cassette recording of composition correction really works, I suppose that it still remains to be seen. We have used the technique for only two semesters, in four intermediate ESL composition courses and one advanced course, which is taken following the fulfillment of the freshman English requirement. The students overwhelmingly prefer the cassettes to their regular correction procedure. In an uncon-
trolled, rather off-the-cuff evaluation, there was more improvement in the class using tape cassettes, but it was impossible under the conditions of the experiment to arrive at statistical proof. While specific language error problems were handled adequately using either method, the tape cassette provided valuable assistance in the correction and improvement of content-related problems. The organization of the students’ papers, their use of appropriate style in choice of words and phrasing, and their clarity and coherence showed more improvement with the cassette than with the regular written note method. Because of the teacher’s option to suggest alternatives and explain connotations of the particular words and phrases the students began to understand and incorporate into their writing these subtler skills of good composition—skills which are difficult to illustrate in the margins. I found the most effective results came from the incorporation of the tape cassettes with a composition check-list, such as provided by either Donald Knapp (1972) or Jewell Friend (1971). Without such a guide, the tendency to be verbose was everpresent. An alternation of the methods of tape grading and regular margin corrections was also useful in one class, in that it offered variety. I used regular composition correction for their in-class themes or short paragraphs and reserved the tape grading for their major term paper and their final written essay. (As the familiarity with the procedure itself increases, one is likely to make greater use of the tape cassettes during a particular term.) One important, though not statistically reliable, result of the use of the cassettes was an increased rapport with the students. They felt they were receiving individual, personal attention even without office interviews and they gained a better understanding of why particular marks were given, which made for less friction.

Even though the results as to improvement in composition writing are not conclusive at this time, the advantages in using this system of tape cassettes far outweigh the disadvantages. According to Harris (1970), the teacher

\[ \ldots \text{can finally say something about rearrangement of the paper's parts and explain why such a rearrangement of organization is desirable. He can do something more about the awkward sentence than mark a raucous K in the margin. By tone of voice, he can make immediately clear what is wrong with a dangling modifier or with a problem of a restrictive or non-restrictive clause. In short, he can do about all that he can do in an interview and do it in far less time—less time because there are no delays in scheduling. There is no time wasted on inevitable social amenities and no time lost on listening to weak alibis.}\]

A significant advantage for the foreign student is that by learning to cope with the tape cassette comments, he gains additional and often badly needed practice in developing his aural skills. Through listening to your voice on

\[ \text{A well-controlled, statistically valid experiment should be run and I would strongly encourage anyone with the proper background to consider this area for future graduate research.} \]
tape, he will increase his ability to understand the numerous lectures he must decipher in his other college courses.

My students have described some additional advantages in their written evaluations of the tapes:

"I think that using the tape cassettes is better because when we take it back to listen, we concentrate more on it and we have to reread the paper again."

"I prefer the tape cassette because when I hear the corrections it is difficult for me to forget them; when I read the mistakes in the margins, I can easily forget."

"I like the tapes because I feel more related to the teacher; it is more personal; therefore, the communication is better."

In summary, by using the tape cassette system for ESL composition correction, the teacher can: (1) be more explicit in his comments, (2) treat content problems more precisely and efficiently, (3) give additional examples of the preferred style or phrasing, (4) provide direct and individual evaluation of the student without timely personal interviews or less-effective written notes, and (5) the equipment cost is low and the playback facilities easily attainable.

The disadvantages? Harris (1970) best sums them up:

There is the question of inertia. In pedagogy, as in physics, objects at rest remain at rest, unless acted upon by an external force. Use of tape recorders requires selling administrators, spending money, and most of all, learning how to do it. The teacher must learn to speak into the mike and do it effectively and quickly, and some are intimidated by the machine (less by the tape than the disc, however, since the tape can be easily erased). There is also the trauma of learning your own voice.

The tape cassette as a means of composition correction is well-established in the English Department at Brigham Young University. Its use in the ESL division of the Linguistics Department is becoming more extensive with each new semester. The subjective results of its use, if not the statistical results, are perfectly clear. It is my strong recommendation that this new technique be incorporated into ESL programs at other universities and adult education centers and that experiments be conducted to statistically validate its current worth in the area of ESL composition correction.

**APPENDIX**

Additional Suggestions on the Use of the Cassette Tape Recorder for Composition Correction:

**Coordinating Cassettes and Papers:**

The mechanics of handling papers and tapes can be frustrating at first, but here are some ways to reduce the friction.

1. Have the student put his paper and cassette in a manila envelope. (This method is positive but requires opening and closing a lot of envelopes during the grading process.)

2. Bring a large sack or box to collect the tapes. When grading, it takes only a few minutes to sort out the tapes and put them with the papers.
3. Assign the student a cassette number. Have him put that number on his cassette and on the outside of each paper. (With this method the cassettes are put in numerical order and drawn from the stack as needed. Of course, the student’s name needs to be on the cassette, too, no matter which coordinating means you use.

Marking Papers:
1. Have the student number the paragraphs of the paper. This provides an easy reference for dictating comments.
2. As you read the paper the first time, mark routine mechanical problems with an appropriate symbol. Dictation is best reserved for content discussion.
3. Underline troublesome words or phrases that you want to talk about in your critique, and make a check in the margin to remind you when dictating.
4. Make marginal notations to yourself. (Harris uses a vertical line in the right margin to remind him of complimentary comments he wants to make and a vertical line in the left margin for negative comments that he wants to make.) More symbols may be necessary if you correct several to establish a norm going back you need a more definite reminder so you don’t have to reread the paper.

Dictating:
1. Have a check list of items that you want to talk about on each assignment. This will help you to be complete without being verbose. Recommended are those of Donald Knapp or Jewell Friend.
2. Begin talking by addressing the student by name and referring to the paper by title. (This helps establish rapport, assures him that you are talking about the right paper, and provides you with a psychological starter.)
3. Compliment him on something first—even if it is only the fact that it was handed in on time. After that you can say, “However, the paper has some serious problems. Let’s look at it in detail.” Remember your attitude and tone of voice will establish you as either a “judge” or a “friend.”
4. Summarize your comments in a closing statement and announce the grade. Do not write the grade on the paper as it will defeat the purpose for those who look at the grade and throw away the paper.

Miscellaneous:
1. Don’t worry if your dictation is halting. Remember that the student is reading the paper while you are talking. In fact, talking too rapidly should be avoided.
2. Don’t be discouraged if the first evaluation goes slow. Remember that you are learning a whole new technique. As you learn it, you will be able to about equal your normal grading rate, but you will be able to accomplish more with each paper.
3. Have the student keep the cardboard or plastic carton that his cassette came in and hand in the cassette naked. That way you will have less fumbling with it. Be sure, however, that his name is on the cassette itself.
4. Don’t be afraid to experiment. Go ahead and encourage the student or chew him out on tape, or record class discussion of his paper on the tape or make references to books or exercises he might use to improve his particular problem areas.
5. Avoid the temptation to make the evaluation routine and mechanical.

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A New Language Laboratory Program
for Advanced Students*

Wu Yi So

This paper attempts to describe the development of a new language laboratory program for advanced students at the English Language Center on the Michigan State University campus. This new program is designed to bridge the gap between manipulative classroom drills and the demands of the lecture halls. The new set of tapes made is divided into three categories: lectures, speeches and dialogues. These tapes cover a wide range of topics which are of current and cultural interest to foreign students. All tapes are recorded at normal native speed. They provide an opportunity for the student to hear a variety of native speakers’ voices, both male and female. Many varied exercises are written to accompany these tapes. These exercises are designed to help the student develop certain basic skills in mastering the language: guessing meaning from context; listening for comprehension; discriminating sounds and sound segments; recognizing and producing certain grammatical patterns; decoding utterances into written symbols; summary writing, notetaking, outlining; and oral communication.

The paper also briefly explains the importance of the role of the lab instructor in the total lab program, and the possibility of better correlation between classroom activity and lab activity. The language laboratory is suggested as a possible testing ground for a synthesized approach to language teaching.

About five years ago, complaints from students and frustrations from lab instructors forced us to take another look at our old language laboratory program. In reference to the declining interest in lab classes, Ronald Wardhaugh (1968) suggested that it was perhaps the software that was to blame. It became apparent that the materials that we were using did not help students build skills beyond the stages of manipulation. Students need a bridge between the manipulative classroom drills and the demands of the lecture halls—skills to help comprehend lectures, encode lecture contents and participate in classroom discussions. There was little in the TESOL commercial market that matched our need, even in general terms. Recognizing the many and varied language learning activities possible in the lab

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Ms. So is the Director of the Language Lab, English Language Center, English Department, Michigan State University.
at the advanced level (Hilton 1967, Cammish 1970, Coltharp 1970, Rivers 1971), we went to work on our software, using as a basic premise that the language Laboratory, if effectively used, could still be a powerful teaching device. We were determined to find answers to some of the questions raised by Kenneth Chastain: Can the lab be utilized for the presentation of new materials? Is it possible to include work in all four language skills in the lab session? How can one include a variety of activity and still maintain an intensive practice session?

Over the past four years willing cooperation from faculty, staff, students and community enabled us to make a new series of tapes, covering a wide range of topics of current and cultural interest to foreign students. The constant stream of suggestions and comments from teachers and students helped us evolve a workable format upon which to build our new tapes. Student questionnaires on three occasions showed enthusiastic response to our new tapes and resulted in many useful comments. We now have made 32 tapes, a total of 55 lessons. These tapes are divided into three categories—lectures, speeches, and dialogues. Each lesson is intended for use in a fifty-minute lab session. These lessons provide an opportunity for the student to hear a variety of native speakers’ voices, representing different regional backgrounds. All tapes are recorded at normal native speed with natural word groupings, natural rhythm and intonation. On a few tapes a certain amount of hemming and hawing and re-stating is purposely left in, in order to train the student to select meaningful details from linguistic and content redundancy, characteristic of many lectures.

A variety of exercises accompany these tapes. The exercises attempt to make each lab hour varied and interesting and to implement some of the insights from linguistics and psycholinguistics in recent years. For example, in order to sustain student interest, exercises for listening are sometimes interspersed with exercises that demand oral production; oral drills are sometimes interspersed with short written exercises. Occasionally appropriate music is spliced in to help create a relaxed atmosphere, an atmosphere conducive to learning.

The main focus of our new lab program is not the mastery of content but the development of skills necessary to the future academic and professional pursuits of our students. Our activities in the language laboratory are planned and organized around the following skills.

Vocabulary Expansion. One skill which appears to hold the greatest interest for our students is vocabulary expansion. Surprisingly, this skill

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2 On the tape Rogers and Hammerstein we have included portions of songs from “South Pacific,” “Flower Drum Song” and “The King and I.” On the tape American Rock Music we have included songs such as “Rock Around the Clock,” “Amphetamine Annie,” “Octopus Garden,” etc. On the tape American Civil War we have spliced in “Battle Hymn of the Republic,” “Rally Round the Flag” and “Dixie.”
has often been neglected. Realizing, in agreement with Twaddell,\(^3\) the need for massive vocabulary expansion at the advanced level in the lab, we expose our students to many new words every day. After the student has heard the complete text on tape, at least thirty-five to forty-five vocabulary items from the text are re-introduced systematically. The student hears the word first, then the sentence in which the word is used. The student is instructed to listen and think about the meaning of the word or words thus introduced. The word is given in isolation first, not because we believe in teaching words out of context, but because this technique helps the student anticipate the occurrence of the word and focus attention on its use in context. After listening to the word and the sentence, the student is asked to make a sensible guess at the meaning of the word from the choices on his worksheet. After a group of eight or ten words has thus been introduced, the correct option for each of the multiple choices is given. After the student checks his own answers, he is asked to repeat the word and sentence as he hears it for the second time. In this way the student is exposed both to the meaning of the word in context and the pronunciation. Cumulative practice of this kind impresses upon the student the importance of context clues as well as the concept of multiple meanings. To repeat, the major objective in teaching vocabulary this way is not so much the teaching of new words per se, as it is the development of the basic skill of vocabulary expansion.\(^4\)

Many multiple word verbs and numerous idiomatic expressions from the taped lectures and speeches are presented to the students in very much the same way we introduce our vocabulary items. After we explain the meaning and give a few more examples of usage, we ask the student to practice the expression by generating new sentences of his own and by writing them in the space provided on his worksheet. The newly generated sentences


\(^4\)From the lecture tape The Impact of Technology on the Popular Arts in the USA, Lesson II, Practice III, Vocabulary Exercise:

Now we are going to do a vocabulary exercise. You’ll hear a word and then a sentence using that word. Look at your worksheet and circle the letter of the word or words nearest in meaning. After you do each set of five, you’ll hear the answers to them. After you’ve checked your own answers, you’ll hear the word and the sentence again. This time repeat the word and the sentence after the speaker. Let’s do an example first. Example:

Previously—Many people previously had little contact with cultural centers.

a. before  b. obviously  c. later

(Pause long enough for student to circle the letter of the correct answer.)

The correct answer is a, before. Did you circle a?

Now repeat: previously (pause long enough for repetition of word) —Many people previously had little contact with cultural centers. (Pause long enough for repetition of sentence.)
are a step away from passive reaction to classroom drills, towards more creative use of the language.\(^5\)

We try to select for our formal vocabulary study those items that are common everyday words that foreign students come across in their daily conversation and reading. Tapes frequently contain technical words, however, which we do not expect the student to learn. To understand the lecture some notion of the meaning of these words is necessary. Thus a glossary of such terms accompanies the tape and is given to the student the day before he hears the tape so that he can, to a certain extent, prepare himself for the listening of the tape the next day.\(^6\)

**Listening.** A second skill that can be improved on in the lab is the stu-

\(^5\)From the lecture tape The Constitution of the United States, Lesson III, Practice 4, Idiomatic Expressions:

Now we're going to do an exercise on the use of some idiomatic expressions you've heard Professor Brown use in his lecture. First, let's study these expressions to see what they mean and how they are used. Later, you'll have a chance to use these expressions in sentences of your own.

1. made up of—Made up of means constituted or formed by.
   
   Repeat: made up of—The problem was to construct a sovereign nation made up of many sovereign states. (Pause)
   
   Here's another example. Please repeat.
   
   made up of (pause)—The committee is made up of three teachers and three students. (Pause)

2. on account of—On account of means because of.
   
   Repeat: on account of (pause)—Some amendments forbid discrimination on account of race, color or sex. (Pause)
   
   Here's another example. Please repeat.

3. kept in mind.

4. kept up with.

Now look at your worksheet. You'll have a chance to write a sentence of your own, using each of these expressions you've just learned. Remember you can use whatever tense you wish. (Give students a few minutes to write their sentences.)

1. made up of: ____________________________

2. on account of: ____________________________

3. kept in mind: ____________________________

4. kept up with: ____________________________

\(^6\)From the lecture tape Trends in Motion Pictures, our glossary included items such as:

1. The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari—A German film about an old doctor and a strange sleepwalker under his power.

2. Potemkin—A Soviet film by the famous director Eisenstein, about the revolt of the sailors on the Russian battleship, Potemkin, in 1905.

3. The Grapes of Wrath—A film about a poor family in the depression who are forced off their land in Oklahoma and migrate to California to try to make a living as farm workers.

4. . . . .

5. . . . .
dent's listening skill. On our tapes an aural comprehension exercise usually follows the vocabulary exercise since obviously listening comprehension increases with increased vocabulary. After having learned most of the new words in the lesson, the student is much better prepared to understand the content. Two types of aural comprehension exercises are used: receptive comprehension and reflective comprehension. Receptive comprehension exercises require the student to give back information he has just heard. To give variety, receptive comprehension exercises consist of multiple choice questions, true or false questions, short answer questions, matching column drills, etc. Reflective comprehension exercises, on the other hand, require the student to listen and think before giving an answer to multiple choice questions, or questions requiring longer answers. No matter whether the exercise is receptive or reflective, we allow the student to read over the questions on their worksheets first before listening to the tape or portions of the tape from which the questions are drawn. It is hoped that this kind of activity, cumulatively given throughout the term will help the student to distinguish the relevant elements from the irrelevant. Given specific opportunity and encouragement for anticipating, the student will develop an ability to get the essence of a message rapidly. The answers to receptive comprehension questions are usually taped; students are asked to check their own answers; teachers check student performance and encourage questions or discussions. When a reflective comprehension exercise is used, the teacher collects the answers and comments on them, as reflective comprehension

7 From our dialogue tape Astronomy, Lesson I, Practice 5. Aural Comprehension (Receptive comprehension):

We're going to do this exercise by listening to part of the tape again. Look at your worksheet, Aural Comprehension. You're going to hear the first part of the dialogue again. As you listen, circle the letter of the correct answer to each question. Take a minute and look over the questions before we begin so you'll know what to listen for. (Stop tape and give ample time for student to look over the questions.) Are you ready? Let's begin.

Replay text to end of page 4.

1. Astrology is:
   a. scientific study of stars   b. telling the future from stars
   c. looking into a crystal ball
2. To find out the brightness of a star we must know its
   a. distance   b. color   c. size
3. . . . .
4. . . . .

Have you finished? Please check your answers and repeat each answer after the speaker.

1—b. Astrology is telling the future from stars. Repeat.
2—a. To find out the brightness of a star we must know its distance. Repeat.
3—. . . .
4—. . . .

1—b. Astrology is telling the future from stars. Repeat.
2—a. To find out the brightness of a star we must know its distance. Repeat.
3—. . . .
4—. . . .
questions allow for less uniform but more creative answers.

In the earlier weeks of instruction more receptive exercises are used; later, more reflective exercises.

**Sound Discrimination.** A third skill we emphasize is the discrimination of sounds or sound segments—phoneme discrimination and stress discrimination. Whenever the text lends itself, we put in a few pronunciation drills such as vowel contrasts and consonant contrasts, sometimes even including the controversial technique of forcing a choice between correctly and incorrectly pronounced words, asking the students to reject the incorrect ones. Ample practice in repeating the correct pronunciation of some pairs of words helps the student to recognize important distinctions in stress patterns."

**Grammatical Patterns.** A fourth skill is that of recognizing and producing certain grammatical patterns, patterns that advanced students have studied before but have not completely mastered. Drills in this area are mostly manipulative—substitution, expansion, transformation, etc. A cer-

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"From the lecture tape Advertising in the United States, Lesson II, Practice 5, Reflective Comprehension:

You have heard this lecture twice—once yesterday and once today. Now try to answer the following questions. Be sure to think before you write.

1. What is a trademark? Give an example of a trademark, either in the United States or in your country.

2. Who was Aunt Jemima? Who was Colonel Sanders?

3. As in the "gay 90's", there's again a "bicycle craze" in the United States. Do you think this is caused by advertising? Is so, why? If not, why not?

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"From the lecture tape Rogers and Hammerstein, Lesson II, Practice 3, Pronunciation Drill:

We're going to do a pronunciation drill. You'll hear two words; one is pronounced correctly, the other incorrectly. Do not repeat these two words. Just listen carefully and decide which word is pronounced wrong, that is, pronounced incorrectly. You'll then hear the correct pronunciation. Repeat the correct pronunciation only.

1. a. históry (pronounced with stress on second syllable on tape)  
   b. áudience (pronounced correctly on tape)  
   (Pause—4-5 sec.) a was wrong. The correct pronunciation is históry.  
   Please repeat: históry

2. a. pólular (pronounced correctly)  
   b. curtáin (pronounced with stress on second syllable).  
   (Pause) b was wrong. The correct pronunciation is curtáin. Please repeat: curtáin

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"From the lecture tape Soy Beans, Lesson II, Practice 3, Pronunciation Drills:

Now we're ready to do a pronunciation drill on stressed syllables. Later, you'll have a chance to listen to your own recording. First set your counters to zero. As you listen, use a pencil and mark the stressed syllable in each of the following pairs of words. Notice how the stress shifts. After you've marked the stressed syllables, repeat after the speaker. Let's do an example first.

Example: recórd (noun) —The first record dates back to 2838 B.C.  
record (verb) —We record the growth of soy beans.

Did you see the stress mark or accent mark on the first syllable when the word is used as a noun, and the second syllable when the word is used as a verb? Now repeat after the speaker. Be sure you put the stress on the right syllable.

(Word-sentence)  
Please repeat again, this time just the two words. Repeat: recórd, recórd.
tain text, for example, lends itself well to a drill on the modals, another to the transformation from active to passive, still a third to the use of the conditional. We have discovered that the language laboratory is a very good place to help the student learn to recognize the use of the articles, both the definite and the indefinite. Many students never actually hear certain unstressed syllables and unstressed one-syllable words. Those whose native languages do not have the articles do not always hear the articles used by native speakers of English. The language lab can be used to bring these unstressed words consciously to the student's attention. From time to time we put in an exercise on the use of the articles by replaying a paragraph or two of the taped text, asking the students to listen especially for the articles used by the speaker. We ask them to try inserting all the missing articles on their work sheet. Interestingly, in the beginning, when students are asked to do this, some of them have to replay the tape two or three times before they can hear all the articles. Once they hear them, it's easy to insert them in the proper places. Hopefully this training toward the conscious awareness of the use of the articles will carry over in their speaking and writing.

Encoding. A fifth skill emphasized is that of encoding sequences of utterances into written symbols. We try to help students develop this skill by using two types of exercises: dictation and transcription.

As we all know, dictation has long been recommended as a useful teaching device in the classroom. Sutherland endorses it as a method to help the student to "become more sensitive and discriminating." Sentences for dictation are selected from the text, and each sentence is usually read twice, at normal native speed. We try to pause long enough between sentences so that the very slow students will not be discouraged and the fast ones can still feel the challenge. A dictation exercise or a transcription exercise is usually placed at the end of the lesson so students can work at their own speed. Those who finish can get the script and check their own performance while the slower ones may have to playback two or three times before they satisfactorily complete the exercise. From time to time we ask the lab instructors to collect the dictation exercises and comment on them. These can be used as a basis for evaluating student progress.

A transcription exercise is similar to a dictation exercise except there are no pauses between sentences on the tape; consequently it requires faster encoding ability and greater ability to comprehend free flowing speech. Us-

12 We do pass out the printed text after we have gone over all the exercises. We then encourage students to go to "Open Hours" to listen to the tape again, following the text. Most students tend to read and not listen once they have the printed page before them; hence the text is never given to the students before the lesson. During "Open Hours" the student can have a student copy of the lesson and listen to whatever portion of the tape he wishes. There the slow, the ambitious, the conscientious, the absentee can each in his own way use a review tape as he sees fit.
ually a paragraph selected from the text is replayed. As the student listens to the paragraph he writes down as much as possible and as quickly as possible. Then he is given a chance to replay the tape if necessary and fill in the missing words or phrases. Some may get 60% without replaying; others may need to replay at least once; still others have to replay three or four times before they can satisfactorily complete the exercise. Students facing a transcription exercise for the first time usually find it very difficult, even impossible, but as time goes on most students improve and profit from this type of exercise. Like the reflective comprehension exercises, the transcription exercises, which are obviously more difficult than dictation exercises, are generally used in the latter part of the term.

Notetaking, Summary Writing, and Outlining. Sixth, we attempt to help the student build the related skills of notetaking, summary writing and outlining. In the lab we have provided practices that help the student build these skills. So far we have selected four of the better organized lectures for outlining purposes. After the student has learned the vocabulary and after he has completed other drills in the lesson, he is asked to make notes as he listens to the taped text a second time. He is asked to write down key words and select essential information. Based on his notes, he then writes an outline of the lecture. This forces him to listen carefully and write rapidly. He is advised to recognize not only important ideas and their development, but verbal cues that signal important points and transitions. This kind of practice helps to improve the student’s ability to distinguish main ideas from subordinate ideas and examples. For the first two outline exercises we provide a skeleton outline on the student worksheet. The student learns how to fill in subtopics. After a few practices of this type, he gradually gains enough confidence to be able to write an outline of his own based on notes taken while listening to a lecture. Students seem to respond to this kind of exercise very positively and a few more outlining exercises are being planned. At the same time we are considering the possibility of extending this practice in the writing classrooms.

Speaking. Seventh is the skill of speaking—near-native oral production. Thus far three types of exercises have been designed to help the student build this skill: repetition drill, reading fluency drill, and oral composition exercise.

The repetition drills are manipulative. In recording the repetition drills we try to record at normal native speaker speed, with perhaps an additional second or two to accommodate slow students. Most commercially available tapes, in our experience, do not pause long enough to prevent frustration and despair for the average or slower students. We find the four-phase drill, advanced by Stack, the most helpful to use for some manipulative drills.

A reading fluency drill differs from a repetition drill in that there are no pauses in between sentences. We require students to read from portions of a recording they have just heard, moving along with the speaker rather than repeating after the speaker. This type of drill requires more concen-
tration and forces the student to approximate native speaker speed. Portions of speech tapes and dialogue tapes seem to lend themselves well to reading fluency drills. Most students feel inspired to emulate the original recording, especially when the native speaker is a celebrity like J. F. Kennedy or Martin Luther King, or a well-known and well-liked professor on campus.

Recently for the first time, we have been experimenting with an oral composition in lab. After the student has become well-versed in a given topic, he is asked to recapitulate in his own words, what he has learned. He is encouraged to playback his oral composition and try to catch some of his mistakes, while waiting for his instructor to work with him individually. An oral composition can force the student to move from manipulative drills to real communication, experiencing freedom of expression beyond the confines of learned patterns.

As we continue to explore the possibilities for teaching in the lab, we are beginning to realize more and more the importance of the lab instructor in the total lab program. Not only must the lab instructor be able to handle the machine efficiently at all times, but he must also be creative and innovative and be especially sensitive to student need in spite of the glass barrier. Periodic pauses on our newly developed tapes are intended to encourage student-teacher interaction through the microphone. The lab instructor is encouraged to communicate with the student individually and/or collectively, to check student performance and to encourage questions or comments. When to monitor, when not to monitor, when to decide to repeat a certain drill, how to select materials in the light of interest and performance—these are but a few of the demands constantly made upon the lab instructor. Leaders in the fields, both in England and in this country, such as Hayes, Stack, Hutchinson, Hocking and others, have all pointed out the necessity of good supervision in the lab. No machine can take the place of the human element in teaching. Teaching is an autonomous art—especially in the language laboratory. Constant practice in language use is what we provide in the lab, and teachers seem to agree that “practice makes perfect,” but not all teachers realize that without good supervision, the “practicing of errors makes perfect errors.” Whether or not we can have a good lab pro-

\[\text{13 From the lecture tape Chinese Acupuncture, Lesson III, Practice 3, Oral Composition:}\]

Now you’ll have a chance to talk about Chinese Acupuncture in your own words, using the information you’ve gained in the last few lab sessions. You may look at the outline you’ve completed but you don’t have to follow it exactly. Try to organize your thoughts before you begin. Take a minute and think what you really want to say. (Stop tape . . . )

Are you ready? Please set your counter to zero first so that later, when you finish, you can go back and listen to your recording. Try to make your speech on Chinese Acupuncture as interesting as possible. Try to talk as fluently as you can. Be imaginative and add some of your comments and reactions. Now we’ll begin. Talk into the microphone for about ten minutes.

\[\text{14 Vincenzo Cioffi, What can we expect from the language laboratory, Modern Language Journal, 45, 1961, p. 5.}\]
gram depends to a large extent on how well trained and how experienced our lab instructors are. Only if we can place adequate software and workable hardware in the hands of skilled craftsmen can our lab program be truly effective.

We have made these new tapes a self-contained unit, yet it becomes increasingly clear that the correlation between the various classes in our total teaching program is very important. Not only must there be closer communication between the lab instructor and the classroom teacher, there must also be more and better coordination between lab activities and classroom activities. Traditionally the lab is considered supplementary to the classroom, but as we develop more materials, we seem to be branching out more. Whether the lab takes off where the classroom begins or whether the classroom takes off where the lab begins is of less importance then whether the teachers work together as a team, complementing each other, integrating their teaching materials to bring about a more meaningful experience for the student.

Although we do not as yet have complete empirical research data to substantiate our premise, there is every indication that the lab can be adapted to implement cognitive approaches to language learning. It is challenging to think that the lab may well be a testing ground for what Ney calls a synthesized approach—combining the audio-lingual habit theory with the cognitive learning theory.

15 James W. Ney, Toward a synthetization of teaching methodologies for TESOL, TESOL Quarterly, 7, 1, 1973, 3-11.

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**Review Article**


**SOME BASIC FACTS ABOUT “THE SILENT WAY”**

This is another book by an outsider. Like Curran (1972, reviewed in Stevick 1973), Caleb Gattegno does language teaching as a by-product and special case of a professional commitment which is broader than language teaching as such. Again like Curran, Gattegno makes almost no mention of those who are conspicuous in the field; in turn, his own published works are cited only rarely in our books and journals. The first edition of this book received no serious reviews in the United States, and as far as I am aware, the second edition has thus far been entirely ignored.

It is not hard to understand how this has happened. I myself found the first chapter of the first edition so annoying that I refused to read further. I find the second edition exciting and utterly charming from cover to cover, but this fact is probably due less to the differences between the editions than it is to five intervening years of hit-and-run—or hit-and-miss—encounters with the Silent Way in practice. This review, therefore, while centering on the book, will necessarily reflect my total experience with what strikes many of us as a bizarre way of learning and teaching.

My first view of the Silent Way was in a brief demonstration, which I found good but not memorable. I did not begin to take it seriously until a year later, when I watched an actual Spanish class in its seventh hour of instruction. That session was one of the most impressive I had ever seen, for the amount of language that the students controlled, but also for the variety and intensity of the personal energies that were released. A year after that, I attended a two-day seminar on the Silent Way. From that time on, although I was by no means “sold” on the method, I began to pass bits of it on to teachers with whom I worked in various parts of the world. The responses of these teachers and their students, even to these second-hand fragments, were so good that I gradually came to reexamine my own thinking. Meantime, I saw a number of demonstrations—some of them outstanding—by other people. I have seen the method used brilliantly in a class of one person, and in a class of 70. Most recently, working in partnership with

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1This review has been written in the midst of ongoing work with the Silent Way. I would like to thank Souad Demiray, Saynur Goren and Guzin Metya, language instructors who have cooperated in this work; and Evelyn Bauer, Emily Drake, Patrick and Susan Hayes, and Kevin Homan, who have checked the credibility of my statements from their own experiences as learners. Carol and Nobuo Akiyama, Virginia Hedge, Elaine Rhymers and Panagiotis Sapountzis have also read the manuscript and made helpful suggestions. Full responsibility for errors of fact and interpretation remains of course with me.

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Turkish instructors who had had no previous experience with the Silent Way, I took a beginning class through their first 150 hours, using little except rods and purposive silence. This, then, is a summary of the background out of which I write this review.

Gattegno's commitment is to solving some of the problems of learning in general; teaching foreign languages is for him only one special case of broader principles which he has also applied in teaching mathematics, and the reading and writing of the mother tongue. Accordingly, his first chapter sets forth some of those ideas. The five that to me seem most important, both for understanding this book and for the illumination of any style of teaching, are the following:

1. Teaching should be subordinated to learning (1).
2. Learning is not primarily imitation or drill (3). This, a key tenet of post-audiolingual methodologists, was present in the 1963 edition, at a time when audiolingual orthodoxy was at its height. In this respect, Gattegno's thinking runs parallel to that of Curran (1968:344ff.), who sees learning in relation to the total and changing value-structure of the learner. Drill is valuable, he says, only insofar as it is substantially tied in with the personality of the learner. As we shall see below, the Silent Way gives primary attention to the social forces at work in the class.
3. In learning, rather, the mind "equips itself by its own working, trial and error, deliberate experimentation, by suspending judgment and revising conclusions." (4) Here, a year before Games People Play, is an almost verbatim description of the "Adult" ego-state (Berne 1964:24 et passim, Harris 1967:50ff.) together with an affirmation of the importance of this ego-state in the learning process.
4. As it works, the mind draws on everything it has already acquired, particularly including its experience of learning its native language (12). For Gattegno, therefore, the differences between first- and second-language learning loom larger than the similarities, so that he is content to devise an "artificial" method (12), rather than trying for a "natural" one.
5. If the teacher's activity is to be subordinate to that of the learner, and if the learner's activity is to be of the kind described under Point 3 (above), then the teacher must stop interfering with and sidetracking that activity (13). Here is the principal reason for the silence which gives this way of teaching its name. At the same time, this frankly artificial approach is in some respects very strictly controlled (12). The teacher provides knowledge of the language, and a firm overall structure for activity. In so doing, he meets a part of the student's deep need for security (Maslow 1970: 39), and fulfills the role of a Nurturing, or Natural Parent (Berne 1972:13,118 ). At the same time, however, he avoids the constant modeling, prescribing and directing kinds of activity which are typical of the Controlling Parent (ibid.), and which many teachers seem to believe are inseparable from effective, responsible teaching. But this allegation on my part calls for a description of how the Silent Way is used.
Anyone who has ever heard of the Silent Way at all knows that it makes use of a set of “rods,” which are small wooden blocks of ten different lengths but identical cross-section, each length having its own distinctive color. In addition, a fully developed set of materials contains a word chart, a phonic chart in which phonemic distinctions appear as contrasting colors, drawings, worksheets, and several books (15).

With regard to the linguistic units themselves, the basic strategy of the Silent Way agrees with many other methods of the past 30 years, by concentrating first on the acquisition, within a small vocabulary, of control over pronunciation and the structural elements (Fries 1947: 3). Chapter 3, which many readers will see as the central chapter, is titled “Much Language and Little Vocabulary.”

**The First Lessons**

In a typical first lesson, the vocabulary begins with “a rod” and goes on to such expressions as “a blue rod,” “a red rod,” etc., ending with the imperative form “take . . . .” The teacher pronounces each new input very clearly. Ideally, a new input should be given only once, but in any event the students get only what they absolutely require. From the very first minute, the students do 90% or more of the talking, while the teacher remains almost completely silent. At all times, speech is accompanied by appropriate action (generally consisting of manipulation of the rods), and action is accompanied by appropriate speech. The method thus has one of the characteristics which the “Total Physical Response” experiments showed to be so desirable for establishing durable comprehension (Kunihara and Asher 1965, Asher 1974). But this first lesson has two additional strong points which are seldom found elsewhere.

The first of these points is related to what we are discovering in research on short-term memory. According to one widely accepted view (e.g. Mayor 1969:1165, Nelson 1971:565, Norman 1970:2; for a recent alternative interpretation see Craik 1973), new auditory material is retained for about 20 seconds in a state in which it is available for inspection and even rehearsing, something like a loop of tape, or like a small worktable on which bits of new and old material may be assembled, sorted and rearranged. This is the reason why human beings are able to “do a double take” in response to something they heard a few seconds earlier. But if further new auditory material is introduced into short-term memory before the first material has faded from it, the later material will interfere with the person’s ability to process and assimilate the earlier. Silence, on the other hand, gives the mind maximum opportunity to extract information from a short bit of aural input. In most of our methods, the barrage of utterances from teacher and fellow students is like a handful of stones thrown onto the surface of a quiet pond: we are unable to follow the ripples from any one of them because of interference produced by the others.

It is for this reason that, in my own attempts to use the Silent Way, I
have learned to forbid any immediate repetition of new material spoken by the teacher. The enforced silence that surrounds the new words both allows and compels maximum attention and superior processing. The first individual or group production of this material comes about three seconds later (well within the span of short-term memory), in response to a fresh presentation of the visual stimulus. If one student does not get it right, he is given more time and some non-verbal help. If he still does not get it, others are silently invited to try, and the best version is indicated by the teacher—again silently. Then (in a small class) the rest of the students may produce the utterance, each in response to a fresh stimulus.

This use of silence means that the student derives much more benefit per audible model from the teacher. It might still be argued that even if, in comparison to other, noisier ways of teaching the student absorbs 10 times as much per model from the teacher, the noisier ways still produce a greater effect in the long run if they provide 50, or 25, or even just 11 times as many models:

\[
\text{If } \text{L(earning)} = \text{N(umber of Models)} \times \text{B(benefit per Model)}
\]

\[
B_s = 10 \times B_c
\]

\[
N_s = \frac{N_c}{X}
\]

Then \( L_c \) is greater than \( L_s \) if \( X \) is greater than 10. I find, however, that this argument leads to a conclusion that does not square with my observations. The reason, apparently, is found in a fundamental difference between two ways of looking at the mind of the student. In one view, it is a clay tablet on which lines are engraved by patiently scraping a cutting tool over the same line until the desired depth is reached. In that view, the silence of the Silent Way has the effect of softening the clay so that fewer reiterations are necessary. Gattegno’s view, as we have already seen, is quite different. He sees the mind as an active agent, capable of constructing and refining its own “inner criteria.” In the former view, “whenever a student makes a mistake he is practicing a mistake” (the cutting tool is being drawn over the wrong part of the tablet), and “practice of any form makes that form more likely to be used in the future.” Therefore we must insist on “accuracy before fluency.” These of course are dogmas of a comparatively unenlightened version of behaviorally-oriented audiolingualism, so much maligned of late. By contrast, Gattegno tells us that “to require perfection at once is the great imperfection of most teaching.” Teacher and student alike must be “shaken loose a bit from their timid perfectionism” (Levertov 1970:167) if anything creative is to take place.

The concept of “inner criteria” (14, 28) finds a close parallel in Titone’s discussion of “linguistic feeling” (1970:60). Titone also seems in general accord with Gattegno on the route that leads to this kind of mastery: through incorporation of basic patterns, followed by inference of the basic
rules through observation and deduction, rather than through mere grammatical theory.

Gattegno’s view of the mind places him very clearly in what today we may call the cognitivist camp. (It is interesting to remember that he occupied this position in 1963 and, in fact, much earlier.) Indeed, both in his theory and in his practice, he places much greater faith in the mental powers of even the ordinary student than does any other cognitively-oriented system with which I am familiar. As one colleague put it after 28 hours of a beginning course, “This was a little hard at first but then it became easier as I learned to use my mind in ways that I had forgotten were available to me.” Or, in Gattegno’s words (25), language learning may become “a recovery of the innocence of our self, a return to our full powers and our full potentials.”

This leads to the second of the two strong points that I mentioned above: the resources which the Silent Way makes available for helping wholesome things to happen inside, and between, the people in a classroom. Compared to this, teaching with rods and a minimum number of repetitions is merely an interesting tour de force, and the efficient use of the power of short-term memory is superficial. The student who was relearning to use her mind in ways that she had forgotten was growing in self-awareness; a student who can say “I have learned” rather than “I have been skillfully taught” is developing self-respect. Words written by a poet teaching poetry describe also the aim and effect of the Silent Way: “My hope was not to teach anybody... but to attempt to bring each one to a clearer sense of what his own voice and range might be, and to give him some standards by which to evaluate his own work.” (Levertov 1970:147).

The interpersonal implications begin to show themselves already in the first few lessons, in at least two ways. I have a 20-minute demonstration of the method—or a least of my best understanding of it—which I have used with numerous audiences. During that period, I open my mouth only seven times. After each of these inputs, I shape the learners’ production by a process of selective reinforcement, with results that are at least as good as what gets through massive “mimicry”-memorization. At the end of the demonstration, the learners are producing, without prompting, any of nine simple three-word phrases. I then stop and ask an open-ended question: “What happened?”

One of the most frequent answers, and frequently one of the first, is “We learned how much we could depend on ourselves and on each other,” or “We felt that we were working together as a group in relation to you.” Nor is this reaction confined to the first few minutes. I recently interviewed a class that had completed about 180 hours of instruction, most of it by our best approximation of the Silent Way. One of the things that these students said first and most firmly was that the method offers exceptional opportunities for them to help and be helped by each other, and that they place great value on that aspect of it.
Even the fact that the imperative “take” appears in the first lesson is helpful for intragroup relationships. Using this form, the students are able to interact directly with one another, with visible and verifiable but nonverbal responses. The language that one student chooses to use does not force his fellow students to produce further language if they are not ready to.

Another feature that regularly receives comment, both in the early stages and later on, is that the students’ attention simply does not wander even after six or more hours a day. Still another is the absence of destructive competition: when the students are depending on one another, the unique contributions of each are clearly recognized and valued by all, for even the slower students will from time to time remember something or figure something out that has escaped the others.

These, then, have been some of the respects in which the Silent Way has rich possibilities from a psychodynamic point of view.

But as with any other method, students come up sometimes with a right answer and sometimes with a wrong one. What then? In the case of a correct response, the answer to this question is simple but unorthodox: the student must learn to do without the overt approval of the teacher. Instead, he must concentrate on developing and then satisfying his own “inner criteria.” This means that the teacher is supposed to react never verbally and very little nonverbally to a correct response. There is none of the “very good!” or the enthusiastically nodding head that many authorities tell us we should produce on these occasions. Indeed, some practitioners whom I have observed come across as stern and almost gruff. Others seem to manage a “warm, sympathetic and understanding” style without giving explicit approval to right answers. (I suspect that the desirable compromise is to show pleasure as a person rather than approval as a judge.) From the Transactional point of view, teachers may thus reduce the Parental component of their behavior (Berne 1972:104). In so doing, they presumably evoke less of the Adapted Child in the student (Berne 1972:104), and therefore clear the way for the flourishing of an Adult-Adult relationship.

What is usually called a “mistake” seems to have unusual significance for the silent teacher. The student who made the mistake has “stuck his neck out,” acting vicariously for the whole group. The content of the mistake itself is an invaluable clue to where the students are in the development of their “inner criteria,” and so provides precious guidance for the teacher’s next step. There are many ways in which the teacher may respond. Choice among these ways, in Gattegno’s view as I understand it, should conform to two principles: (1) Remain silent if at all possible. (2) Give only as much help as absolutely necessary. In the early stages, use of hand signals, colors, etc. may form an elaborate and detailed system for locating places where the inner criteria need further work, or even for indicating what the desired response is. These devices still have the advantages of requiring/permitting the student to provide the answer on at least the auditory level, and of keeping all students’ auditory short-term memories undutted.
But if the teacher continues this sort of help beyond the time when it has become superfluous, he is interfering again, and students will grow restless as they feel their “learner space” invaded (Curran 1972:91).

Although silence on the part of the students is not a goal of the Silent Way, a certain amount of it may occur under these circumstances. La Forge (1971: 57) found the silences of Community Language Learning (a system quite different from the Silent Way) to be periods of intense and valuable mental activity. Levertov (1970:175) recognized that toleration for silence when it does occur may be at the same time both a result and an expression of confidence in oneself and in the other members of the group. Of quite specific relevance to the uses of silence is a recent report of research on one facet of verbal memory.

In experiments reported by Buschke (1974), subjects were required to learn lists of 20 nouns. They were then asked to recall as many words as they could, in any order. They were allowed to try each list as many times as necessary. Before each trial, they were re-exposed only to those words which they had not yet recalled on their own during some previous trial. At each trial, unlike many of the other list-learning experiments that have been reported, the subjects were encouraged to take their time, and to continue trying past the point where recall become difficult.

Four of the observations that came out of the experiment were the following: (1) Most of the items that failed to be recalled on some one trial “were retrieved later without any further presentation, indicating that such failures represent retrieval failure rather than loss from storage” (579). (2) “Once an item was spontaneously recalled after previous recall failure, it usually was consistently recalled thereafter” (580). (3) The fact that it is possible to retrieve additional items by extended recall is something that must be learned (581). (4) “Subjects in the experiment reacted positively to the challenge of achieving their own maximum retrieval without further presentation” (581).

“Teach, Then Test...”

One of the rules of thumb that we hear from time to time is “teach, then test.” I suppose that a fair paraphrase of this formula would be something like “present a piece of new material clearly, so that the student can develop the appropriate ‘competence’ to match it; then go on to some kind of activity that will enable the student to demonstrate that the new competence has become available as a basis for ‘performance’.” This rule may have some value as a reminder not to omit either the “teaching” or the “testing” function, and not to confuse them, but it is also subject to a pernicious distortion. That distortion arises when the rule is taken to mean “teach, then test, then teach some more, then test some more, and so on until the end of the course.” It is pernicious because it encourages the teacher to monopolize the initiative in the classroom. A more wholesome rule would be “teach, then test, then get out of the way.” Once the student, through his per-
formance, has demonstrated that he has the desired new competence, he
needs to be able to practice it under conditions that allow him to exercise
as wide a range of choices as is consistent with maintaining orderly progress.

One of the advantages of the Silent Way, it seems to me, is that it lends
itself exceptionally well to keeping these three kinds of activity separate
from one another: when the teacher is both making the noises and moving
the rods, he is “teaching”; when he is moving the rods and expecting the
students to make the noises, he is “testing”; when he leaves both the rods
and the noises up to the students, he is “out of the way.” Furthermore, in
the Silent Way, the teacher spends much less of the time in the “teaching”
mode than in other methods that I have seen.

There still remain, of course, questions of how and how long to teach,
how and how long to test, and how long to stay out of the way. A final ad-
vantage of the Silent Way is that, not being required to keep the classroom
filled at all times with audible language, the teacher has more opportunity to
observe the students’ performance and modify his own actions accordingly—
what Gattegno calls being “with” the students.

Some General Questions

I will not in this review describe the rest of the Silent Way in as much
detail as the first lessons, partly because of limitations on my personal ex-
perience with it. I also believe, however, that the first lessons contain those
features of the method which are at the same time crucial, and most charac-
teristic of it. But there remain two frequently-asked questions which de-
mand attention here.

1. Isn’t the value of the Silent Way largely confined to the early stages,
for teaching numbers, colors, spatial relations, and a few things like that?
Having taken one class successfully to 150 hours primarily by my best ap-
proximation of this method, I can only reply in the negative. This must
certainly be the answer if we think of the Silent Way as a way of looking
at teaching and learning, rather than as a set of operations with rods. But
even from the latter point of view, the answer is still “no.” In fact, numbers
and colors are in my opinion among the least interesting uses of the rods,
because for these purposes the rods are most easily replaceable by other
devices. This brings us to the second question.

2. How essential are the rods, really? For years, I was skeptical on this
point, preferring to use toy villages, or Tinkertoys, or real objects, and
actively refusing to have anything to do with rods. I now prefer rods to
Tinkertoys because they are more visible, less distracting, come in more
colors, and do not roll off the table.

My reasons for preferring rods to toy houses and cars are more impor-
tant. (1) The representational objects tell the beholder what kind of house,
school, etc. to see: they pre-empt the functioning of imagination, which is
one part of the total personality that we are trying to activate. (2) It is hard for representational objects to become what they are not. Rods, by contrast, have unbounded flexibility. The same rods may become, now a map of the Middle East, now a picture of a traffic accident, now a graphic analog of the surface structure of the Turkish noun, now a visible record of information that a student is giving about the neighborhood in which he lives. At the more advanced levels, students seem to appreciate the shared concrete record of what they are talking about. As Maria del Carmen Gagliardo says in one of the appendices to the book, the rods are both “austere” and “mesmerizing” (132).

**Conclusion**

This book has an inescapable personal flavor about it. I think it would not be improper to make two observations in this regard.

One quality that comes across on many pages is the author’s humility and sense of humor. He recognizes that his experiments have been limited in scope (2), and that his conclusions “may not be universally valid” (43). He has a quiet chuckle at his own expense in citing ways in which he exemplifies his observation that “strange uses of the language are common among learners who choose to be at peace within themselves rather than bow to the traditions of the foreign language” (24).

But along with this humility—perhaps growing out of it—we find an unbending loyalty to whatever light the author has been able to find (xi). He has been granted to see parts of the truth that no-one else had seen before him (vii). He refuses to dilute or alter the distillate of his experience in order to make it more palatable to others. He believes that, at best, all that he can hope to educate in us his colleagues is our awareness (x). Both in his method and in this book about the method, he is consistent with his principle of maintaining the integrity of what is to be taught and at the same time enhancing the integrity of the learners (52). It is as though he is saying to us “Once you have understood this for yourself, you will have no further need of me. And if I tried to give you a clue at the cost of your own experience, I would be the worst of teachers.” (Herrigel 1971:76). Again in conformity with this principle, he withdraws the promise, made in the first edition, to provide a Teachers Manual.

This review has been a frankly favorable one. I do not, however, intend it as a blanket endorsement either of the book or of the method which it describes. Some few parts of the book are open to serious question from the point of view of standard linguistic science. More important, it is frequently tantalizing in the questions it raises or in the partial answers it gives. As for the Silent Way itself, I have not seen enough of it in action to regard it as the one methodological pearl of great price; it is, however, possibly the most undervalued pearl on the market today.

**Earl W. Stevick**

Foreign Service Institute
REFERENCES


Problems in English Grammar

Query: What are the construction and the meaning of then as the word is used in the sentence I'll see you soon then?

Response: In general, those who do grammatical analysis of English sentences would say that both soon and then attach to the verb form will see—or “modify” it. Those who divide clausal sentences into subjects and predicates would place both soon and then in the predicate along with will see and its complement (or direct object) you. Those who accept the view—that predictor verbs are central in clause structure and that subjects and complements attach to these very closely and other units within clauses (“adjuncts”) attach to them less closely, would describe both soon and then as adjuncts.

As for the meaning of then, any good desk dictionary will demonstrate that the word can express meanings roughly equivalent to (1) at that time, (2) after that time, and (3) in that case or under the circumstances. Anyone interested in the etymological relationships linking then to such words as that, this, the, and there should find what is said of the Indo-European root to- in the American Heritage Dictionary (p. 1546) enlightening. In the sentence I’ll see you then, unless situation or context (outside the sentence itself) provides guidance we cannot know which of the various meanings of then is intended. The presence of soon in the sentence I’ll see you soon then makes it seem unlikely that then is here concerned with time. I’ll see you soon in that case seems a probable equivalent. Genuinely useful words tend to be used to express more than a single meaning, and selection among their meanings is normally guided by situation or context. (RL)

Query: How does be able to differ from can? And why is could unsatisfactory in the sentence finally I could reach the finish line?

Response: Be able to differs from can in three ways that seem especially important:

First, though can is an admirably short, commonly unstressed word ideally suited for expressing constantly recurring meanings, it is a grammatically defective verb, lacking a gerundial form and using both its basic form and its past form could in relatively few constructions. Be is not a defective verb, so that the sequence be able to is sometimes usable where can is not.

Being able to speak Japanese has helped George greatly in his work.
It would be wonderful to be able to speak Japanese.
George has been able to speak Japanese since he was a small child.

Second, can expresses a wider range of meanings than be able to does. Choice between can and be able to is most characteristically available when possibility (or ability) felt to center in the subject is to be expressed.
Joe can (or is able to) deceive his wife with very little effort.
Phil really can (or is able to) lift that trunk.
This machine can (or is able to) turnout two hundred copies a minute.

When possibility felt to center outside the subject is to be expressed, be able to is often not usable.

Joe's wife can be deceived with very little effort.
Grades can be misleading.
September can be hot here.
You can leave when you finish the test.

Third, the past form could is used not only as a factual indicative concerned with past time, where was able to and were able to are used, but also as a hypothetical subjunctive concerned with present and future time, where would be able to is used.

Fortunately even in my high-school days I could (or was able to) type.
Laura could (or would be able to) state our case effectively tomorrow.

Most typically, subjunctive could deals with what is felt as improbable or unreal.

Marian could spend next summer doing her thesis.
This could be a very pleasant apartment.

Even indicative could is often associated with unreality when it is combined with perfect infinitives.

Marian could have spent last summer doing her thesis.
This could have been a very pleasant apartment.

Here could expresses real past possibility but the perfect infinitives have spent and have been express unreality. Marian did not spend the summer doing her thesis; the apartment has not been very pleasant.

We are ready now to consider the could of finally I could reach the finish line. The unsatisfactoriness of could in sentences comparable to this one has puzzled me for a long time, so that I commented briefly on one such sentence (on the way home we could visit Yucatan) in The Sentence and Its Parts (1961, p. 169). In all candor, I am myself not completely convinced by the explanation I am about to offer, and would gladly consider others.

I assume that in finally I could reach the finish line the form could is indicative and is concerned with some definite past time. When I make this assumption, I find myself wondering whether the person who produced the sentence did or did not reach the attainable finish line. Perhaps the common association of could with unreality makes me inclined to guess that he or she did not. If this was the case, the use of the perfect infinitive have reached rather than basic infinitive reach would have removed all doubt. On the other hand, if the finish line was actually reached the use of was able to
in place of could would have removed doubt similarly. Was able to is much less commonly associated with unreality than could is. In finally I could see the finish line the form could does not trouble me. Sight is automatic, and if the person who produced the sentence could see the finish line he or she did see it. Naturally I could not reach the finish line leaves me untroubled too. (RL)

QUERY: Is their correctly used in nobody should have their own way all the time? Is his preferable to their in this sentence?

RESPONSE: The use of they (and them, their, theirs, and themselves) to mean what phrasal he or she expresses more explicitly has long been condemned on valid grammatical grounds. They is a plural pronoun, and from the point of view of grammatical system plural pronouns should not be used to refer to singular antecedents. You was once plural only and is now both plural and singular, as is made clear by such pairs as you're real friends and you're a real friend; but they remains plural only. In careful styles such as are most appropriately employed in written English, the use of they to refer to singulars such as nobody should be discouraged. In informal styles most appropriately employed in comfortable conversation, this use of they must be accepted, however unwillingly, as standard. “Correct” is a word it is prudent to avoid in matters such as this. In comfortable conversation people who use the language well do produce such sentences as the following:

Everyone thinks I don’t know what I’m doing, and of course they’re right. Before a person starts to tell a joke, they should be sure they remember its point.

Nobody should have their own way all the time.

The singular grammatical force of everyone, a person, and nobody appears clearly when they are made subjects of such verb forms as, for example, thinks and starts.

The use of he (and him, his, and himself) to mean he or she has long been accepted as standard and has been—and sometimes still it—encouraged for use even in informal styles. He is used as a common-gender form most characteristically in carefully done written English. The following sentence is to be found in the Preface to Robert C. Pooley’s valuable The Teaching of English (1974). The italics are of course mine.

The ultimate goal is that the student . . . will be assisted in making such discriminations as will enable him to speak that kind of English which his knowledge, his ambition, and his social sensibilities will lead him to choose.

Professor Pooley is a prominent specialist in English usage, and is certainly no purist. In using he as a common-gender pronoun here he is simply following long-established usage. But as long ago as 1931 George O. Curme, in his thorough (and conservative) Syntax, pointed out that when he is
used to mean he or she it often arouses a natural feeling that it is “one-sided.” And in recent years feminist resentment of this use of he has found frequent and vigorous expression. Thus in 1973 a national committee of the American Association of University Professors recommended that all future Association documents avoid this use of “masculine” pronoun forms on the ground that it “reinforces the imagery of women as subordinate and ultimately invisible persons.”

The truth is that it is very unfortunate that English does not have a true third-singular personal pronoun typically usable of males and females without distinction, as the third-plural pronoun they is used. They, he, and phrasal he or she are all what in his Essentials of English Grammar (1933) Otto Jespersen called “makeshift expedients.” My own preference among the three makeshifts is phrasal he or she. But he or she is clumsy and cannot be repeated inoffensively again and again as satisfactory one-word personal pronouns can. Since the middle of the past century at least five efforts to supply the needed pronoun have been made. But though English has always been hospitable to new words in general—whatever their origin—it has not been hospitable to new pronouns. The result is that at the present time where a true common-gender third-singular personal pronoun would be useful, writers and editors often have to exercise considerable ingenuity in finding phrasings that evade the need for the pronoun we simply do not have.

Questions and comments on grammatical problems are invited. Letters can be addressed as follows:

RALPH B. LONG
BOX 13261
St. Petersburg, Florida 33733
Publications Received

SEAMO Regional English Language Centre Newsletter, 6, 4, December 1973. Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization, Singapore.
The Voice of the Foreign Student, Spring, 1974. A publication of the English Language Institute, Queens College.

Announcements

Fall meetings of interest to TESOL members:

CALL FOR PAPERS-1975 TESOL CONVENTION

The 1975 TESOL Convention will be held in Los Angeles, California, March 4-9, 1975. This year we are inviting papers on the eight areas of special interest to TESOL members:
1. English as a foreign language in foreign countries.
2. English as a foreign/second language, for foreign students in the U.S.
3. English as a second language, for U.S. residents in general
4. English as a second language, in bilingual education
5. English as a second language, in adult education
6. Standard English as a second dialect
7. Applied linguistics
8. Bilingual education
Within these areas, we suggest the following topics:

1. **The process of becoming bilingual: second language acquisition, first language maintenance and loss, and second language reacquisition.** *Aspects of this process:*
   • Description of ESL speech produced or understood, and learning strategies inferred from these
   • Motivational and attitudinal factors
   • Effects of teaching methods and techniques on the sequences of acquisition of linguistic structures and on the errors students make
   • Effect of type of speech students are exposed to on what they actually learn
   • Acquisition of conversational or communicative competence
   • Acquisition and functions of different dialects and speech styles

2. **Teaching non-English speaking students**
   • New ESOL teaching methods and techniques that you have developed and used successfully in your class
   • Classroom management: classes with mixed language and dialect backgrounds, different ages and mixed proficiency levels
   • Interaction between the second language teacher and the subject matter teacher (second language curriculum and subject matter)
   • Diagnosis of students' language proficiency level
   • Tailoring second language curriculum to students' various motivations for learning that second language
   • What reading teachers have to know about students' oral language proficiency
   • Subject matter instruction in a first and/or second language
   • Competency-based teacher education and certification

Papers that report on both research in the learning process and corresponding teaching techniques are especially needed.

If you would like to present a paper on one of these or other topics in the field, please submit five copies of a two-page abstract typewritten double-spaced. Please include title of paper, time desired (15-40 minutes), your name, address, and telephone number. Persons whose abstracts have been accepted for presentation at the Convention will be notified by November 15, 1974.

Abstracts or inquiries for further information should be sent no later than OCTOBER 1 to:

**Marina Burt**
TESOL Chairperson
School of Education
Room 340
State University of New York at Albany
Albany, New York 12222
Telephone: (518) 457-7539
PRE-CONVENTION WORKSHOPS, March 4-5, 1975

At least one workshop for each special interest area in TESOL is being planned. In addition, persons or groups of persons who would like to give two-day workshops in any of the following areas are invited to submit workshop proposals:

1. Developing behavioral objectives for ESL programs in elementary grades
2. Developing behavioral objectives for ESL programs in secondary grades
3. Developing behavioral objectives for bilingual programs in elementary grades
4. Developing behavioral objectives for bilingual programs in secondary grades
5. Competency-based teacher education and certification
6. ESL and/or bilingual education materials—criteria for review and adaptation of existing materials, and development of new materials
7. Needs assessment (survey techniques) for bilingual program planning
8. Reading in a first and second language
9. How to develop criterion-referenced (teacher made) tests

If you would like to conduct a workshop on one of these or other topics in the field, please submit a detailed outline to:

MARIA RAMIREZ
TESOL Pre-Convention Workshop Chairperson
Bilingual Education Unit
New York State Education Department, Annex 761
Albany, New York 12224
Telephone: (518) 474-8076

(Persons submitting workshop Proposals for the Pre-Convention may also submit abstracts for the main Convention.)

XII International Congress of the FIPLV 1975—Preliminary announcement

The World Congress 1975 of the FIPLV (Federation International des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes) will take place from November 27-29, 1975, at the Hilton Hotel in Washington, D.C. The general theme of the Congress will be: TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES—WHY? Pre-convention workshops will be held prior to the Congress from November 24-27, 1975, also devoted to the general theme.

The 1975 Congress will be arranged by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 62 Fifth Avenue, New York N.Y. 10011. All correspondence in connection with the Congress should be addressed to Mrs. Inge Savelsberg Hudson at the ACTFL Headquarters.
The following are documents which have been selected from those processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics that may be of interest to TESOL members. They have been divided into four categories. GENERAL includes those documents whose scope spans two or more of the other sections, as well as miscellaneous studies of interest. The section BILINGUALISM includes two sub-categories, General and Content Analysis Schedules. LINGUISTIC STUDIES lists those documents that treat ESL-related problems in greater, linguistic depth. Where indicated, paper copy (PC) and microfiche (MF) reproductions of the full text are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), P. O. Drawer O, Bethesda, Maryland, 20014. (Prices are noted in each citation for microfiche and paper copy.) Copies of documents must be ordered by the individual ED numbers, and payment must accompany orders totaling less than $10.00. In the U. S., please add sales tax as applicable.

**GENERAL**


Pragmalinguistics, combining knowledge of linguistics and civilization, is a field under development within the realm of applied linguistics. It is concerned with the pragmatism of speech acts, which calls for knowledge of the relation between one linguistic element and the persons producing, using, and receiving it during the communicative situation. Pragmalinguistics attempts to develop a systematic inventory of all that belongs to communicative competence. Communicative competence includes not only grammar but also the way of living and the view of life specific to the competent speaker, since he needs them to make use of his ability to perform speech acts. Foreign language instruction should include these dimensions, as well as instruction in casual speech and fast speech rules in second language learning, since the highly conventional style taught by high school teachers is inappropriate for the majority of conversations the student will have.


Information gathered from one and a half years of interviews with anthropologists, psychologists, ethnologists, sociologists, and psychiatrists provides the source of answers for the questions this book addresses: How much do we communicate with words, and how much with gestures, pos-
tures, and movement? What can we learn from the study of nonverbal behavior? Is it really possible—or desirable—to “read” body language? Chapters discuss nonverbal communication as a fledgling science; nonverbal gender signals; courting behaviors; the silent, celluloid world of kinesics; the way the body itself communicates; nonverbal communication in animals; the human face; how the eyes communicate; hand gestures; the messages in distance and location; interpreting postures; body rhythms; the rhythms of the human encounter; communicating by smell and by touch; the sensory environment of the womb; the nonverbal code of childhood; nonverbal communication as a due to character; the rules society observes for public behavior; and making conversation through nonverbal communication.


The first of two experiments conducted in Detroit investigated the relationship between class and ethnic membership and identification of class and ethnicity; the role age and sex of respondent play in accuracy of speaker identification; and attitudes toward various socioethnic speech patterns. The second study was concerned with the attitudes of employers and potential employees toward various speech patterns. The evidence from the first study made it clear that in Detroit, regardless of the age, race, sex or socioeconomic status of the listener Negro identity of taped speakers could be made accurately from a minimum of 74.4% to a maximum of 86.2% of the time. It was also significant that lower socioeconomic status was more accurately identified. The use of the semantic differential scale was also noted to compensate for the general inarticulateness of the public in evaluating speech. The second study indicated that employers do judge potential employees on the basis of speech. As it relates to possible job opportunities, however, the employers consistently rated the speech as appropriate for lower level jobs than the actual employment level of the speaker. In addition, teenagers seemed to correlate the concept of “successful” and “acceptable” speech with opportunity.

BILINGUALISM

General

Trevino, Robert E. Is Bilingual Education Shortchanging the Chicano? 1973. 26p [EDRS Price: MF-$0.75, PC-$1.85; ED 077 617.]

Investigating non-linguistic factors which may have contributed significantly to Chicanos’ educational problems, the study determined that the major objective of bilingual education should be to correct the Chicano child’s negative self-image. Fatalism, a legacy of poverty, dropouts caused by language and culture conflicts, low achievement on English-based IQ tests, and acculturation demands that negate native cultures were cited as factors that deter the progress of bilingual education. Bilingual education often merely taught children to “parrot” English, instead of supporting bilingual-bicultural opportunities. One program that has incorporated 2 languages and 2 separate cultural systems is the Bilingual/Bicultural Follow-Through Model for Grades K–12 at the University of California, Riverside. This program included parent involvement, Spanish as a sec-
and language for teachers, community participation, home teaching and heritage curriculum development, and culture-matching teaching strategies.

Reyes, Donald J. The Relative Development of Spanish and English as Abstract and Conceptual Languages in Bilinguals. 1973. 10p [EDRS Price: MF-$0.75, PC-$1.50; ED 083 880.]

The ability of bilingual students to profit educationally when Spanish is the vehicle of instruction was inferred from a qualitative analysis of their responses to matched Spanish-English vocabulary tests. The responses of 53 bilingual junior high school students with strong Spanish language histories were classified as qualitatively higher or lower definitions. Higher level definitions were considered more abstract and conceptual in nature. No significant differences were found between the proportion of higher level definitions given in Spanish and those given in English, nor for the same proportions when the sample was grouped by sex and by Spanish language history. It was inferred that students could profit equally well from instruction that used Spanish or English as the vehicle of communication.

Guide to Title VII ESEA Bilingual Projects in the United States. Austin, Texas: Education Service Center Region 13, 1973. 112P [EDRS Price: MF-$0.75, PC-$5.40; ED 080 284.]

Descriptive abstracts of all Elementary and Secondary Act Title VII projects funded through Fiscal Year 1972-73 are presented in this guide. The abstracts contain the project name, fiscal agent, director, location, languages other than English, grade levels, number of classes, student enrollment, staff, participating schools or districts, funding year, project emphases, and a summary of individual project designs. Abstracts are arranged alphabetically by state, city, and project information is based on questionnaires mailed to each project in November, 1972 and on initial and continuation grant applications submitted to the U.S. Office of Education during April, 1972.


Research sought to develop a quantitative model for the prediction of learning effects of a bilingual children's educational television program. The stimulus program series consisted of 30 sessions of Carrascolendas, a Spanish-English series which was based on specified behavioral objectives and aimed at students through grade 2. Learning effects were measured with criterion referenced tests administered to 408 Mexican-American children. Data were collected on the independent variables of communication stimuli, individual characteristics, and contextual traits; the predictive models were based upon linear multiple regression analysis. Results showed that learning effects can be predicted with relatively high degrees of reliability and accuracy. From this it was concluded that policy decisions regarding educational television must account for contextual characteristics, as well as program content and objectives, and that a communications stimulus, such as a television series, functions as one of many stimuli in producing learning effects. More detailed mea-
sures of these independent variables are needed and contracts for the evaluation of program series should require that measurement involve linear models.


Approximately 400 books, curriculum guides, journals, and educational resource materials published between 1967 and 1973 are listed in this annotated bibliography of bilingual bicultural materials on the Spanish-speaking, American Indians, French, Portuguese, Chinese, and Russians. This listing shares with bilingual bicultural project personnel the information needed for the acquisition of relevant materials for their programs. All materials listed must be available in the United States or its territories and must relate to Title VII Elementary and Secondary Education Act or other bilingual bicultural programs. A typical annotation includes the following, in order: title, author or developing agency, name and address of the publisher, publication date, number of pages, language(s) used, intended audience or level, and descriptive statement. Title, author, and subject indexes are given for the reader’s use. Publishers and distributors are listed alphabetically at the end of the document.

Content Analysis Schedules
These Content Analysis Schedules for Bilingual Education Programs present information on the history, funding, and scope of various projects. In an attempt to standardize data pertaining to those programs, a twenty-page questionnaire was developed by Hunter College of the City University of New York and sent to project directors, who returned the completed forms with additional material specific to their programs. Included in the schedules are sociolinguistic process variables such as the native and dominant languages and their interaction, information on staff selection, and the linguistic backgrounds of project teachers. Assessments are made of the duration and extent of the bilingual components and the methods of language teaching in general. The reports include an analysis of materials, student groupings, tutoring, curriculum patterns, and cognitive development; and discuss self-esteem, learning strategies, the bicultural and community components, and means of evaluation. The following schedules, identified below by subtitles, have recently been processed into the ERIC systems; in each case, the EDRS prices are MF-$0.65, PC-$3.29.

A Content Analysis Schedule for Bilingual Education Programme: Proyecto PAL. 1972. 32p [San Jose, Calif.; Spanish.] ED 078 704.
Phoenix Union Bilingual Programs. 1971. 47p [Phoenix, Arizona; Spanish.] ED 080 027.
Sacramento Early Childhood for Bilingual Programs. 1972. 36p [Sacramento, Calif.; Spanish.] ED 080 025.
Los Angeles Bilingual Schools Program. 1971. 54p [Los Angeles, Calif.; Spanish.] ED 080 021.
Santa Fe Bilingual-Bicultural Education Program. 1972. 45p [Santa Fe, New Mexico; Spanish.] ED 080 023.
St. Martin Parish Bilingual Program. 1972. 60p [St. Martinville, Louisiana; French.] ED 080 015.
Stockton Demonstration Bilingual Project. 1971. 67p [Stockton, Calif.; Spanish.] ED 080 026.
Tucson Bilingual Bicultural Project. 1971. 35p [Tucson, Arizona; Spanish.] ED 080 018.

EFL/ESL


In order to discover the linguistic competence of Hawaiian kindergarten children, tape recordings of their speech were collected, both openly and surreptitiously, in a wide variety of circumstances, including at home, at play, at school, and in formal situations. An analysis of the data reveals that the children command a wide range of linguistic skills. This competence is generally overlooked or not completely understood by local educators and is consequently not taken advantage of by the local teachers in their attempts to teach English to Hawaiian Creole-speaking children.


The University of Michigan English Language Institute has experimented successfully with offering extra-curricular mini-courses for students of English as a second language. The courses provide an optional activity in which the exposure to English is through a real situation in learning subject matter. After several successful attempts, and some not so successful, the faculty isolated the factors to be considered in planning such a supplementary program. These factors include: (1) Courses should be offered at a time in the semester when a psychological break is needed, and when it will not interfere with the students' regular academic work; (2) A subject matter should be found that the teacher enjoys and that the students are not likely to have been exposed to; (3) The actual
material to be read or discussed should be carefully chosen. It is advisable to use something simple and authentic; (4) Audio-visual aids should be used to make the course more appealing; (5) A series of three or four lectures in one week seems to constitute the right length for the course; (6) Not much, if any, outside work should be required, and students ought not to be forced to participate if they do not want to; and (7) Each lecture should be self-contained. Subject-matter possibilities for mini-courses are unlimited: what is important is the rewarding feeling of a shared interest or experience and a realization that English can be vehicle for real communication.


To achieve the goal of communicative competence, second language instruction should incorporate the results of ethnemethodology research. Ethnomethodologists are interested in the shared rules of interpretation which members of a culture utilize during their conversational interactions. "Applied ethnomethodology" in the ESL classroom would mean inclusion of materials which explicitly point out those implicit, underlying rules for interaction used by Americans, especially where they differ from the students' own. For example, the Japanese have a very strict code for who speaks next in a conversation—the older, higher-ranking person holding the floor until he voluntarily yields it to another. Interruption is frowned upon and there is little tradition of a dialectic style. The Japanese, then, as well as other non-native English speakers, must learn not only a new language structure but new language behavior patterns. Rules for speaker selection and rules for interrupting may be introduced by using dialogues or other oral-skill development techniques which simulate situations where such problems of interaction occur. Triologues, with two native speakers and one non-native speaker, can produce effective results.


This document presents the case for the use of situational reinforcement (SR) as a language teaching method of which all teachers of languages should be made aware. SR is defined as a horizontal approach to language learning, a process of gradual familiarization where students are presented with a mixture of language structures from the outset, these structures are taught in natural contexts based initially on concrete classroom and social situations, the situations becoming increasingly abstract as the student progresses. The expressed theoretical basis of this approach is that people generate language based on what they already know and continually abstract and revise internalized grammar rules from the input they receive. Section one of the document describes this philosophy and the goals of SR. The second section presents the history of SR. Included in this section is a comparison of SR with the traditional "pattern practice" method of teaching language. The final section summarizes research related to SR.
LINGUISTIC STUDIES


This study investigated some characteristics of intonation patterns in the English spoken by black adolescents in Seattle, Washington. It was hypothesized that if intonation is central to communicating attitude, and if Black English intonation differs systematically from that of Standard English, communication between blacks and whites may be difficult. The study used tape recordings of black adolescents in an excited, informal discussion, white adolescents (WE) in an informal discussion, and a formal interview with an adult black male (FBE). The following intonation features were found characteristic of Black English: (1) a wider pitch range, extending into higher pitch levels than in WE or FBE, and often shifting into a falsetto register; (2) more level and rising final pitch contours; (3) apparent greater use of falling final contours with general (yes/no) questions in formal and perhaps threatening situations; and (4) the use of nonfinal intonation contours alone (without the use of the word “if”) to mark the dependent clause of a conditional sentence. The study concluded that the importance of intonation in communicating attitude has been greatly underestimated.


An account of the relationship of reading to language that depends on a distinction between primary linguistic activity itself—the processes of producing, perceiving, understanding, rehearsing, or recalling speech—and the speaker-hearer’s awareness of this activity was proposed at a conference sponsored by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development and entitled “Communicating by Language—The Relationships Between Speech and Learning to Read.” Participants also considered what, besides competence in his native language, is necessary before the child can learn to read. If language is acquired through maturation rather than deliberately and consciously learned, linguistic awareness is not necessary. But reading is a secondary language-based skill, not a primary linguistic activity, and so requires a degree of linguistic awareness, particularly (for English) of morphophonemic segments.
PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE FROM TESOL HEADQUARTERS

Reference Guides . . .


Other TESOL Publications . . .


Classroom Practices in ESL and Bilingual Education. Volume 1, Muriel Saville-Troike (ed.). Washington: TESOL, 1978. 84 pp. Paper. $1.75 to TESOL members. $2.00 to non-members.

Program of the Eighth Annual TESOL Convention. March 5-10, 1974, Denver, Colorado. pp. 139. Paper. $1.00 to TESOL members. $1.25 to non-members.

From other publishers . . .


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