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TESOL QUARTERLY

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Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Attitudes and Motivation: Their Role in Second-Language Acquisition *

R. C. Gardner

My intent in this paper is to review some of the research we have conducted which indicates just how dynamic and potent the role of the parent might be in the language-learning situation. I should say at the outset that most of our research has not dealt with ESL programs, but that nonetheless the phenomenon we have observed would seem as relevant to the ESL program as to any other second-language situation.

I think it is meaningful to distinguish two roles of the parent which are relevant to his child's success in a second-language program. For want of better labels, I'm going to refer to them as the *active* and *passive* roles, even though these labels are not completely descriptive. By the *active role*, I mean that role whereby the parent actively and consciously encourages the student to learn the language. In the active role, the parent monitors the child's language-learning performance, and to the extent that he plays this role he attempts to promote success. That is, the parent watches over the child and makes sure he does his homework, encourages him to do well, and in general reinforces his successes. I believe it is safe to assume that differences in the extent to which parents vary in this encouragement function would have some influence on the child's performance in any learning situation.

The other type of role, the *passive role*, is more subtle, and I think more important, primarily because the parent would probably be unaware of it. By the subtle role, I mean the attitudes of the parent toward the community whose language the child is learning. These attitudes are important, I believe, because they influence the child's attitudes, and it is my thesis (and I'll try to convince you of its validity) that the child's attitudes toward the other language community are influential in motivating him to acquire the second language.

To contrast these roles, let me suggest one possible example. An English-speaking parent might actively encourage a child to learn French. He may stress the importance of doing well in that course, and might see that the child does his homework, and so forth. To himself, and to any observer, he might be perceived as actually helping the child. This is the active role. This same parent might hold positive or negative attitudes toward the French community. To the extent that he holds negative attitudes, he may be undermining his active role, by transferring to the child negative

* This paper was presented at the TESOL Convention, March 1968.

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attitudes about the French community, and thus reducing the child's motivation to learn the language. This is the passive role. By his own attitudes the parent may develop in the child doubts concerning the real need for the language (particularly in the case where the parent does not speak that language). If the child fails an exam in French, he might anticipate some anger from his parent (who after all, is encouraging him to succeed), but he can always salve his own conscience by rationalizing that it is not really necessary to learn the language, as is evidenced by the fact that his parent gets along well enough without it. A negative attitude in the home can support this rationalization, and thus possibly defeat the active role. Although my example is with reference to an English-speaking child involved in learning French, I think the same description might be applicable to the Puerto Rican child in New York, or the Navajo child in Arizona, who is attempting to learn English.

I have emphasized the role of attitudes in second language acquisition because we have conducted a number of studies (Feenstra, 1967; Gardner, 1960; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Lambert, Gardner, Olton & Tunstall, 1960; also see Gardner, 1968) which have demonstrated that the student's attitudes are related to second-language achievement. Rather than describe each study, let me outline the general approach in all of them. The design of a typical study involves testing a large group of students who are studying French as a second language. Measures are obtained on each student's language aptitude (Carroll and Sapon, 1959), his attitudes toward the French-speaking community and outgroups in general his reason (orientation) for studying French, the degree of effort expended in learning French, and finally his skill in various aspects of French achievement. Generally, there are a total of thirty to forty measures obtained on each child. The relationships among these measures are investigated by means of a statistical procedure known as factor analysis. This technique allows one to mathematically investigate the inter-relations (given in terms of correlation coefficients) of all the measures to determine which of the measures form separate clusters (i.e., factors). If, for example, the language aptitude measures and the measures of French achievement were positively associated in the same cluster, this would indicate that students who have language aptitude do better on measures of French achievement than do students with less language aptitude. On the basis of such a relationship one might assume that achievement in French is dependent upon an aptitude for languages.

The actual results of these studies indicated that in fact language aptitude is related to French achievement, and moreover that a complex of attitudinal-motivational variables are also related to French achievement. That is, two major clusters are generally obtained, one a language aptitude—French achievement cluster, and the other an attitudinal motivational—French achievement cluster. These two clusters, or factors, are independent of each other, and furthermore they seem to involve different aspects of second-language skills which are stressed in the school-room situation, while

the attitudinal motivational cluster tends to involve those second-language skills which would be developed outside the classroom in interaction with the other language community. In summary, it appears that differences in language aptitude result in differences in the extent to which the student can acquire second-language skills dependent upon active instruction, whereas motivational differences influence the extent to which the student acquires skills which can be used in communicational situations.

This generalization is based on results of studies conducted in Montreal and London, Canada, as well as in Maine, Louisiana, and Connecticut. In each of these areas the results clearly indicate that a particular pattern of attitudinal-motivational components facilitated second-language acquisition. Students who emphasized that learning the second language would permit them to interact with the French-speaking community, tended to have positive attitudes toward the French, or a favorable orientation toward outgroups in general. Furthermore, they were more motivated to learn French in that they worked harder. Such students were more successful in acquiring French. Because the major characteristic of this configuration appeared to describe an interest in acquiring French for purposes of integrating with the French-speaking community, we referred to this configuration as an integrative motive.

The concept of the integrative motive implies that successful second-language acquisition depends upon a willingness (or desire) to be like valued members of the "other" language community. The acquisition of a new language involves more than just the acquisition of a new set of verbal habits. The language student must adopt various features of behaviour which characterize another linguistic community. The new words, grammatical rules, pronunciations, and sounds, have a meaning over and above that which the teacher is trying to present. They are representations of another cultural group-and as such the student's orientation toward that group should be expected to influence the extent to which the student can incorporate these verbal habits. Whereas the ability-oriented psychologist stresses the fact that second-language learning involves the acquisition of new verbal habits, and hence prior verbal skills will facilitate their acquisition, the orientation emphasized here is that these new verbal habits also are representations of another linguistic group and that suitable social attitudes will also facilitate their acquisition.

Although the integrative motive appears to promote the successful acquisition of a second language, there remains the question of how the integrative motive develops. In their cross cultural study of children's views of foreign peoples, Lambert and Klineberg (1967) demonstrated in a number of different countries that the child's parents play a major role in the development of attitudes about other ethnic groups. Research in our own laboratory similarly demonstrates that children's attitudes toward both English and French Canadians are highly related to the attitudes of their parents, and it seems reasonable to assume that the child reflects the attitudinal atmosphere of his home.

In two of the studies on the motivational variables underlying second-language achievement, we had the opportunity to obtain information from the parents. In one of the Montreal studies (Gardner, 1960) we interviewed the students' parents and compared the responses of parents of children who were integratively oriented with those of children who were instrumentally oriented. The results demonstrated that in contrast to the students who professed an instrumental orientation, integratively-oriented students tended to come from homes where the parents also professed an integrative orientation and where the parents had definite pro-French attitudes. (In short, the students were apparently reflecting the parents' attitudes in their choice of orientations.) Interestingly, however, there did not appear to be any relation between the student's orientation and the number of French friends the parents had or the degree of French proficiency that the parents expressed. Parents of the integratively-oriented students did, however, think that their children had more French-speaking friends than did the parents of instrumentally-oriented students. Whether this was a statement of fact (i.e., that the integratively-oriented students did have more French-speaking friends) could not be ascertained from the data gathered. It is equally possible that because of their own favorable attitudes towards the French-Canadian community, the parents of the integratively-oriented students were willing to ascribe a number of French friends to their children, while parents of the instrumentally-oriented students with their comparatively unfavorable attitudes would not admit that their children associated with many French-Canadian children.

These relationships between the parents' attitudes and the students' orientations suggest that the student's orientation grows out of a family-wide orientation and consequently that to some extent the degree of skill which the student attains in a second language will be dependent upon the attitudinal atmosphere in the home concerning the other linguistic group. Thus it is possible that parents who have favorable attitudes towards the French community and who feel that learning the language is valuable because it allows one to learn more about the group and meet more of its members actually encourage their children to study French, whereas the parents with the unfavorable attitudes and the instrumental orientation do not effect the same degree of encouragement.

In a more recent study, Feenstra (1967) systematically investigated the role of parental attitudes, by including ten measures obtained from the parents, in the factor analysis. Thus rather than determining how a few parental attitudes related to the child's orientation, he was able to study how parental attitudes clustered with respect to the children's language aptitude, motivation, and French achievement. Of major concern to this discussion were his findings that parents who emphasized the integrative orientation and who held positive attitudes toward French Canadians, encouraged their children to study French and actually had children who were skilled in some aspects of French achievement. In short, he found evidence that there is an association between what I have termed

here the *active* and *passive* roles of the parent, and that these roles are related to French achievement. Furthermore, he also found that parents who were favorably oriented toward outgroups in general appeared to transmit this orientation to their children, and that this attitudinal disposition was also related to French achievement. Both of these findings support the conclusion that the child's integrative attitudinal orientation is fostered in the home, and that this accepting home environment has a direct association with second-language achievement.

In summary, all of our findings to date support the conclusion that second-language achievement is facilitated by an integrative motive, and that the development of such a motive is dependent upon a particular attitudinal atmosphere in the home.

The studies that we have conducted were concerned with English-speaking children learning French as a second language. At one time I thought that because of this, our data might not be relevant to the sort of situation with which TESOL is concerned. Recently, however, I was involved in a research project with the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington which was concerned with the American Indian child learning English as a second language. I believe now that the relationships that we have obtained for the acquisition of French as a second language would probably also be obtained in that situation. Rather than emphasizing the language which is being acquired, I think it might be more meaningful to emphasize the usefulness of the language which is being acquired. Rather than isolating studies which are concerned with the acquisition of French or English or German, I think it may be more useful to look at the potential usefulness of the second language. Our studies on the acquisition of French as a second language have been conducted in a number of different geographical settings. In some of these French could be classified as a "high use" language. One can and does live in this environment and functions extremely well by using French alone. In other words, French is a highly active language in that community, and proficiency in the language permits one to communicate in a situation where otherwise he couldn't. This contrasts with other geographical areas in which we have worked where French is a "low use" language. That is, an individual may be able to use the language in some communicational situations, but by and large he could communicate reasonably well without it. I think I should add that differentiating between high use and low use languages assumes that there are some other avenues available to the communicator, so that whereas Montreal would be classified as a geographical setting in which French is a "high use" language, the individual can, nonetheless, make use of English as an alternative if he so desires. A geographical setting like Hartford, Connecticut, might be classified as a "low use" area or at least lower than Montreal. It is probably true that in Hartford, one could make use of French if one desired, but it is not as important for communication and the individual can function almost completely in English. It seems to me that in many areas where ESL programs would be offered, English is probably

a "high use" language but that the child has other avenues that he can use. The Navajo living in a border town, can undoubtedly make good use of English, or alternatively, he could if necessary use the other avenue of limiting most of his communications to his native language and possibly learning only a very limited amount of English for highly specific purposes. From the point of view of the student, this situation appears to be highly analogous to that of the English-speaking individual living in Montreal.

We recently obtained some data suggesting that the foregoing analysis is relevant to students learning English as a second language (Gardner, 1968). These data were obtained from 300 educators of Indian children in the U. S.A., and although the children themselves were not tested, the reactions of the teachers suggest that attitudinal variables are operative in this group. One analysis involved teachers' views of Indian students, non-Indian students, and Indian adults. This analysis suggested that the teachers perceive the Indian student as similar to, yet different from, both the non-Indian students and Indian adults. The comparative reactions indicate that the Indian student is perceived as possessing some traits in common with elders of his own cultural group, some in common with students from the non-Indian culture, and others which are truly midway between both groups. In short, the teachers, at least, are indicating that the Indian students seem to be taking on some characteristics of the non-Indian community. These, of course, are reactions of the teachers, and consequently it might be argued that there is little reason to assume that the Indian student is in fact integrating with the non-Indian community. However, further analyses of these reactions indicate that the teachers of the older students perceive Indian students more similarly to the non-Indian student community. That is, with increased age and contact with the educational system, it might be hypothesized that the Indian children appear to be becoming more like the non-Indian community. At least, these appear to be the feelings of the teachers involved.

The graphs presented in Figures 1-3 similarly indicate the role that social factors play in motivating children to learn a second language. These data are also based on the attitudes of the teachers of American Indian children. These three graphs illustrate the mean attitude scores for different teachers in different grades. Each graph consists of four points, the mean for teachers of grades 1-2, the mean for teachers of grades 3-4, for 5-7, and for 8-12. Each mean is based on the attitude test scores of approximately sixty teachers. Figure 1 demonstrates that the teachers of grades 1-2 feel that Indian students are more motivated to learn English than do teachers of grades 3-4, and that these teachers rate their students as more motivated than do teachers of grades 5-7. Teachers of grades 8-12, on the other hand, indicate that there is an increase in motivation for their students. There are, of course, many ways in which these results can be interpreted, but one parsimonious interpretation is that these attitudes of the teachers reflect the motivational characteristics of the students in their classes. This interpretation would suggest that there is a decrease in

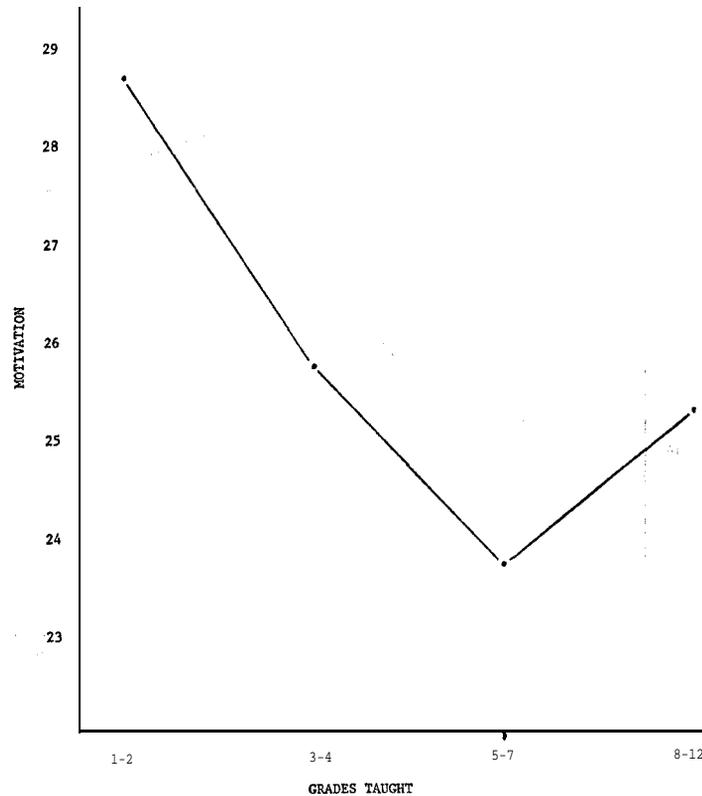


FIG. 1. Educators' attitudes concerning students' motivation to learn English as a function of grade taught

motivation to learn English to grade 7, and from there on the motivation tends to increase. You can almost see this as indicating the inquisitive exuberance of the young child, the gradual apathy of the older child in an educational atmosphere that may not appear meaningful to him, and then the awakening of the possible importance of the program to the maturing individual.

Figure 2 is also based on the teachers' attitudes, but this illustrates their attitudes about the amount of pressure from the peer groups to avoid the use of English. Applying the same logic to these data suggests that the younger child experiences relatively little pressure from his peer group to avoid using English, but that this increases to a peak at grades 5-7, and then falls off slightly. The pattern parallels that for the measure of motivation and suggests possibly that from grades 1-7 there is a decline in motivation to learn English and that consequently children pressure others to avoid using English which in turn decreases the motivation to learn English. After grade 7, with the development of an appreciation of the usefulness of English, the pressure from the group appears to fall off.

Figure 3 suggests another social component which might serve to influence the students' motivation to learn English. Items making up this

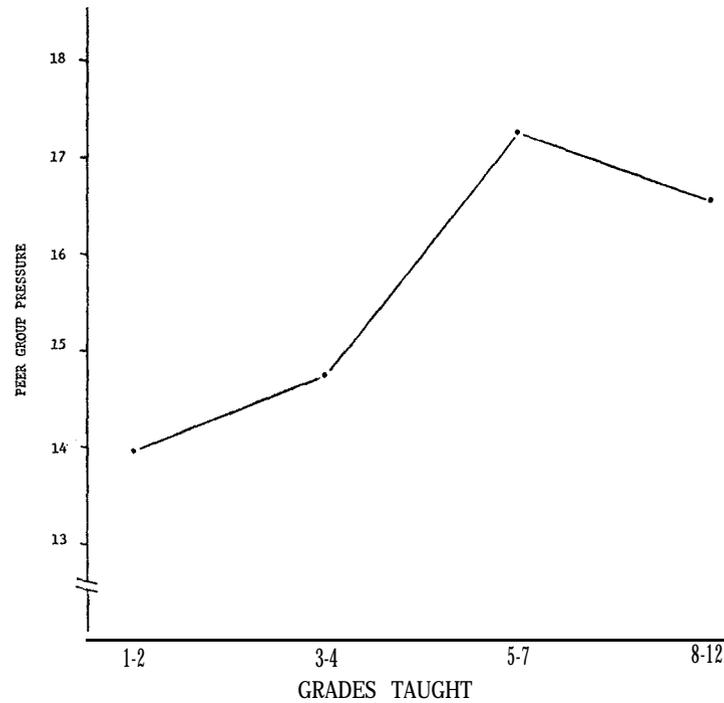


FIG. 2. Educators' attitudes concerning the amount of peer group pressure to avoid using English as a function of grade taught

scale were concerned with assessing the extent to which the Indian culture provided barriers which make it difficult for the Indian student to learn English. As before, these results suggest that teachers of the younger children perceive fewer barriers than teachers of children in grades 5-7, and that teachers of grades 8-12 see less of a cultural barrier. It might be argued that children in grades 1-2 are too young to be much influenced by inhibitions of the Indian culture, and that students in grades 8-12, to the extent that they are still in school, have become somewhat integrated with the non-Indian culture and are thus not as influenced by the Indian culture. The children from grades 3-7, however, are often still in the home and possibly are the ones experiencing conflict between the two cultures. It is significant, I believe that these three graphs evidence similar patterns. Decreases in motivation are mirrored by increases in the pressure from the group to avoid using English and by the apparent presence of cultural barriers which inhibit English language acquisition.

The results presented in Figures 1-3 represent significant variability in the means as a function of the grade the teacher taught. That these effects are possibly real rather than due to artifacts is suggested by the fact that other attitude measures did not show any effect due to grade. For example, the teachers also completed a questionnaire concerned with their attitudes about Indian students' ability to learn English, and there were no differ-

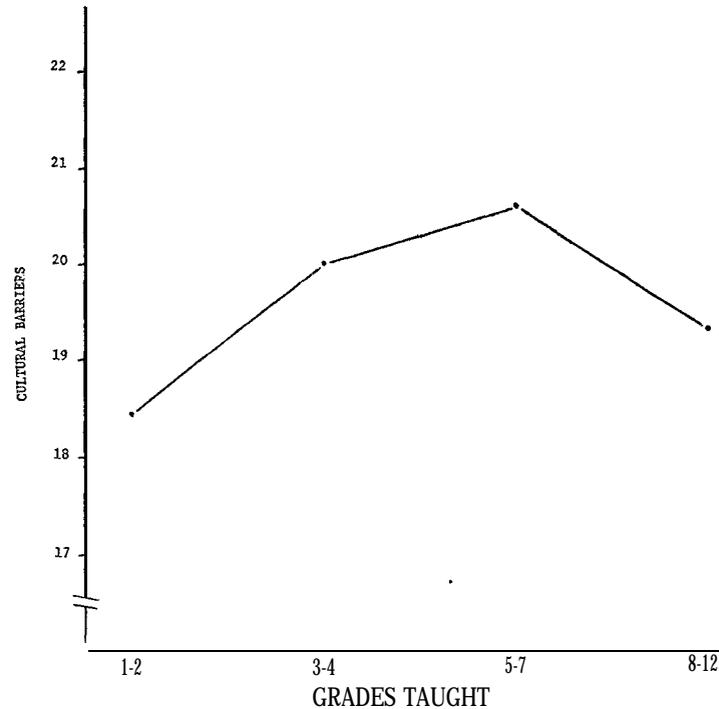


FIG 3. Educators' attitudes concerning the influence of cultural barriers in impeding English acquisition as a function of grade taught

ences on this questionnaire due to grade. If these results were due to the fact that teachers from grades 3-7 were dissatisfied with the level of English achievement of their students, it seems possible that they would have expressed concern about their students' ability to learn English. This result was not obtained, however. The teachers of the various grades seem to be experiencing different motivational qualities in their students which seem to reflect social factors operating passively but significantly on the students.

To summarize then, I'd like to review the major points raised. First, it seems clear that attitudinal motivational characteristics of the student are important in the acquisition of a second language. Secondly, the nature of these characteristics suggests that the truly successful student (i.e., the one who will acquire communicational facility with the language) is motivated to become integrated with the other language community. Thirdly, this integrative motive appears to derive from the attitudinal characteristics in the home and must be fostered by an accepting attitude, by the parents, concerning the other language group. And finally, the process of second-language acquisition involves taking on behavioral characteristics of the other language community and the fact that the child will experience resistance from himself and pressures from his own cultural community.

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Toward Psycholinguistic Models of Language Instruction

Robert L. Politzer

There is almost general agreement that principles of linguistics and psychology can and should be applied to language teaching. As a matter of fact the very name "applied linguistics" seems to imply that good language teaching consists to a large extent in knowing linguistic principles and the way in which they function in the language classroom. Just what is meant by linguistic principles or their application is subject to considerable controversy. Perhaps the least questioned or questionable application of linguistics is the contribution of contrastive analysis. Especially in the teaching of languages for which no considerable and systematic teaching experience is available, contrastive analysis can highlight and predict the difficulties of the pupil. Other applications of linguistic principles seem considerably more doubtful. Let us look at some principles: 1. Language is primarily a spoken phenomenon. Application: The teaching of speaking and listening should precede the teaching of reading or writing. Principle 2: Substitution in the same "slot" in a frame is a way of proving that elements belong to the same substitution class. Application: Exercises in which the pupil is asked to substitute language elements in the same slot will develop fluency in speaking as well as awareness of grammatical patterns. Principle 3: In making a description of morphological variants it is better to describe the larger form first and then the form derived from it. Application: In a language like French the feminine adjective form (e.g., /movez/) should be taught first and the masculine be derived from it (/move/ = /movez/ minus the consonant). Examples of such principles of "applied linguistics" could be multiplied quite easily. What they all have in common is that the application of the linguistic principle made in the classroom may, at best, be called reasonable—but has as such very little obvious scientific validity.

When it comes to the application of psychological principles to language teaching, the situation, is not very different, unless we deal in such generalities as the necessity of rewarding correct responses. In many cases, the psychological principles cannot be applied unambiguously. Often principles clash with each other; for example, it is a well known psychological principle that it is difficult to tie a new response to an old stimulus. This principle argues quite neatly for not using orthography (reading, writing) in the initial stages of learning languages written in an alphabet which is familiar to the student from his native language. For the speaker of English, the new response French /R/ will be more difficult if it is tied to

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the familiar orthographic stimulus *r*. But there are other psychological principles that tell us that withholding visual presentation and the written word will make language acquisition more difficult for many students—especially those with visual modality preference. Which psychological principle takes precedence? Ultimately the answer must be found in practical experimentation and by the language teacher himself.

As far as the application of linguistic or psychological principles to language teaching is concerned we can thus conclude that there will always be considerable doubt as to what principles are to be applied and whether a specific application of principle is really valid. The very concept that application consists of extending theoretical principles to practical situations is an oversimplification which is in need of re-examination. For the concept does not take into account the simple fact that validation of the principle of applied linguistics must be derived not only from its linguistic soundness, but above all its practical success. For this reason we can very well argue that the starting point of improved language teaching can be found in the language classroom itself and not in the theoretical considerations of the linguist or the theories of learning advocated by the psychologist. At the same time, however, both linguistics and psychology can be extremely useful to the language teacher, not because they furnish principles which can be extrapolated into the language-teaching situation, but because they are tools necessary for a meaningful analysis of the teaching process and of teaching experience.

In elucidation of the above statements, I would like to elaborate on a simple example of the use of linguistic and psychological principles as tools of the analysis of the teaching process. Part of the normal training procedure for language teachers is to have the apprentice teacher watch the performance of an experienced master teacher. Let us follow an imaginary student teacher into the classroom and observe the master teacher's performance.

The master teacher is presenting a simple lesson on the use of count nouns vs. mass nouns. The lesson as such is not terribly unusual. It has been presented in this or in similar form by many teachers and can be found in various textbooks. The teacher is utilizing two charts: One chart shows pictures of *shaving lotion, tooth paste, ink, soap, bread, milk, butter*, etc. The other chart shows *cameras, wristwatches, toothbrushes, nail files, pens, pencils, apples, pears, cherries* etc.

The teacher points at objects on chart 2 and models the sentences: *This is an apple* (pointing at *one* apple!), *This is a pencil*, *This is a tooth brush*. After modelling these sentences, he elicits choral and then individual repetition. After the teacher is satisfied that the pattern, *This is a . . .* has been learned, he turns to chart 1: *This is ink; This is milk*, etc. Again choral and individual repetition follow.

Next, the teacher returns to chart 2. He makes sure that the class understands that he is referring not to a single object but to all the objects depicted within one square of the chart: *These are tooth brushes, These*

are apples, etc. After a sufficient number of repetitions, the teacher returns to chart 1. He circles the entire square showing *soap*, *bread*, etc., but the sentences referring to *soap*, *bread*, etc. remain the same as before: *This is soap*, *This is bread*.

Now the teacher introduces these grammatical explanations. He puts the two contrasting patterns on the board:

This is <i>an</i> apple.	These are <i>apples</i> .
This is — butter.	_____

These are some nouns (count nouns) which take the indefinite article and which can be put into the plural. There are others (mass nouns) which do not take the indefinite article and which do not form plurals.

Our teacher returns to his charts. Pointing to the objects he asks questions: *Is this an apple? Is this milk?* The students reply with *Yes, this is an apple*, or *Yes, this is milk*. After this, the teacher keeps asking the same question—but doesn't point to the objects which he is naming: *Is this an apple? No this is not an apple; this is a pear. Is this milk? No, this is not milk; this is butter*. After several exchanges of this type, the teacher makes sure that the object to which he points is a mass noun whenever his question contains a count noun, (or *vice versa*). The result is that the student's answer must contrast the mass noun and the count noun pattern: *Is this an apple? No this is not an apple; this is milk. Is this milk? No this is not milk; these are apples*.

Next, the teacher reverts to simply asking *What's this?*—pointing either at a specific object or the whole square containing pictures of one type of object. The students reply, chorally, then individually: *This is milk, This is an apple, These are apples*. Then our teacher decides to dispense with the question, *What's this?* and to elicit the responses: *This is a _____, These are _____, This is _____* by simply pointing to the pictures.

At the end of the lesson the teacher explains that we buy *cameras, wrist watches, nail files, pencils, tooth paste*, etc. in drugstores. We buy *butter, milk, apples, pears* in the *grocery store*. Of course, in *supermarkets*, we can buy not only *milk, butter*, etc. but also *toothpaste, pencils* (but not *cameras, wristwatches*). The final exercise consists of the teacher asking *What do we buy in the grocery store? (drugstore, supermarket)*. Each student is free to choose his own answer, but it must include at least one count noun and one mass noun: e.g., *In the drugstore we buy soap and nail files*.

As we have stated before—this lesson is not terribly unusual. It is not meant to be a model in the sense that it is necessarily exemplary. What is of interest is the analysis of the underlying approach.

Linguistic Principles. The lesson was based on an obvious linguistic contrast in English, namely mass nouns vs. count nouns. We can also assume that it was based on a contrast between English and the native language of the pupil (e.g., If the native language of the pupil is Japanese or Russian, the use of any kind of article will be an entirely new phenomenon).

Psychological Principles.

a) **Frame of Reference.** It is generally assumed that new materials are learned better if they are introduced in relation to known materials or in relation to each other. A "multiple frame of reference" (relation to several facts) is presumably better than a single frame of reference. In the introduction of new language materials, the very nature of language itself can usually provide a triple frame of reference. A linguistic sign consists of a signifier and signified. The latter, the meaning of the linguistic sign, is the first and most obvious frame of reference that can be used. The signifier of the linguistic sign functions by virtue of its difference from other signifier of the same system. This contrast of one signifier with another signifier (in the case of the model, indefinite article vs. zero and plural vs. no plural) provides the second natural frame of reference. The third frame of reference is provided by the contrast between the signifier of the foreign language with those of the native language (in the case of the model lesson English *a* or zero vs. Japanese or Russian zero).

b) **Reward of Correct Response.** Throughout the lesson the teacher rewarded correct responses immediately by indicating approval. He attempted to avoid incorrect responses by modelling correct responses first and by having individual responses preceded by group response.

c) **Use of a Variety of Stimuli.** The teacher attempted to cue the same responses through more than one stimulus. He used repetition, questions, pictorial cues.

d) **Gradual Withdrawal of Control Stimuli** ("Fading of Cues"). The teacher attempted not only to use several stimuli, but the stimuli were arranged in such a way that the responses came gradually under control of stimuli which were increasingly dissimilar from the response itself. There was a gradual progression from repetition, to questions partially similar to the response, to pictorial stimuli, and finally to questions like *What do we buy in the drugstore?* (completely dissimilar from the original stimulus as well as from the expected response).

e) **Use of Concept Learning** (Grammatical Explanation). The teacher gave a concise grammatical explanation after the frame of reference had been introduced. Evidently he felt that the likelihood of correct response would be increased if the students understood the grammatical principle underlying the material which they were practicing.

I want to emphasize again that the model lesson which we have just analyzed is not meant to be a "model" in the sense that it should be imitated by all and everyone because it presents *the* best way of teaching. But the analysis of the model lesson can furnish us a "model" that can be defined, studied, and replicated in other teaching situations. As an example, let us take a very different problem, namely the English construction *I want someone to do something*, and see how our model may be applied.

Linguistic Principles. In English, sentences of the type *I want it* and *I am here* may be combined into a sentence of the type *I want to be here*.

If the subject of the second sentence is different from that of the first (*I want it, Charles is here*), then it must be preserved as a noun or object pronoun: *I want Charles. to be here. I want him to be here*. Sentences of the type *I hope (so) and I am here* may be combined quite similarly to *I want to* and *I am here*: *I hope to be here, I want to be here*. However if the subject of the second sentence is different from the subject of *hope*, the second sentence becomes a subordinate clause: *I hope that Charles is here* (as opposed to *I want Charles to be here*). In many languages (e.g., Spanish, French, German) the words corresponding to English *hope* or *want* follow the identical construction type. If the subjects of the actions governed by the words for *hope* or *want* are the same as the ones doing the hoping or wanting, a dependent infinitive is used (Spanish *Espero* or *Quiero trabajar* = *I hope to work, I want to work*). If the subjects of the dependent actions are different, a subordinate clause must be used in both cases: *Espero que trabaje* = *I hope that he will work*; *Quiero que trabaje* = *I want him to work*. The English construction *I want him to work* thus contrasts with another English construction, namely, *I hope that he will work*, as well as with the foreign (Spanish) construction which corresponds literally to something like **I want that he (will) work*.

Psychological Principles.

a) The frames of reference to be used are: (1) reference to reality (meaning); (2) the English contrast between the construction of *hope* (*I hope that he will work*) and *want* (*I want him to work*); (3) the contrast between the English pattern *I want him to* and the foreign construction **I want that he . . .*

b) Principles *b* through *e* as mentioned above are to be utilized in the lesson.

Lesson Plan:

The teacher introduces the following monologue:

Carlos is studying English. Why? Does he really want to study English? No, he does not want to study English. He is studying English because his uncle wants him to study English. And why does his uncle want him to study English? Because he hopes that Carlos will come to live with him in the United States.

The monologue is repeated several times. The teacher asks for choral and individual repetitions after each sentence. He then precedes to ask questions about the material presented:

Does Carlos really want to study English? No, he does not really want to study English.

Why is he studying English? Because his uncle wants him to study English.

Does Carlos hope to come to live in the U.S.A.? No, he does not hope to come to live in the U.S.A.

Why does Carlos's uncle want him to study English? Because he hopes that Carlos will come to live in the U.S.A.

Then the teacher introduces another monologue:

Pedro is studying engineering. Why? Does he really want to study engineering? No, he does not want to study engineering. Pedro wants to become a teacher. He really hopes to become a teacher. Why is he studying engineering? His parents want him to study engineering. Why do they want him to study engineering? Because they hope that Pedro will be rich.

This monologue is utilized in the same way as the first. Individual and choral repetition is followed by choral and/or individual answers to such questions as:

Why is Pedro studying engineering?

Why do his parents want him to study engineering?

Yet another monologue introduces the story of Juan:

Juan is studying law. Does he really want to study law? No, he hopes to become a film star. But his father wants Juan to study law because he hopes that he will become his partner in his business.

After the monologue has been utilized for repetition and question-answer type exercises, the teacher puts the contrasting constructions on the board.

His uncle wants Carlos to study English.
His parents want Pedro to study engineering.
His father wants Juan to study law.

He hopes that he will live in the U.S.A.
They hope that he will become rich.
He hopes that he will become his partner.

Now the class can be led to the rule of generalization concerning the construction of *I want . . . to do* vs. the construction *I hope that . . .*

As a next step the teacher may organize a pattern drill. Questions like *Why is Carlos studying English?* or *Why is Pedro studying law?* are to be answered by *Because his uncle wants him to study English*, *Because his father wants him to become his partner*.

The next pattern drill is used to pull together and contrast the *hope* and *want* constructions:

Why does Carlos's uncle want him to study English? Because he hopes that he will come to live in the U.S.A.

Why do Pedro's parents want him to study engineering? Because they hope that he will become rich.

After these drills, the lesson may continue with questions addressed to individual students: *Why are you studying English? Do you want to study English or do your parents want you to study English? Why do your parents want you to study English?* The students are told to answer truthfully, and to use the construction they have just learned. (*I want to, . . . wants me to, . . . hopes that I*) in their answers.

In a final exercise the teacher may attempt to elicit these constructions through completely dissimilar stimuli. But the students are instructed that they must use *hope* or *want* in their answers: *Why are you in this class? (Because my parents want me to study English.) Why do you stay home in the evening? (Because my parents, my wife, etc. want me to stay home.) Why do you work so hard? (Because my parents, my wife, etc. want me to work hard.) Why? (Because they hope that I will earn a lot of money.)*

In conclusion I would like to repeat again that the model which we have just described and applied is not meant to illustrate the best possible application of the best possible linguistic and psychological principles. The construction of psycholinguistic models of language teaching has, however, two important advantages: (1) A good lesson taught by a good teacher remains an isolated example—perhaps to be imitated by those fortunate enough to be able to watch the performance. But a psycho-linguistic model based upon the performance can be taught, imitated, transferred to different teaching situations. Both of the “model” lessons described in this article are as a matter of fact based on similar lessons taken from a syllabus dealing with teacher training in French (R. L. Politzer, *Practice Centered Teacher Training: French*, Stanford University, Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1966). (2) What is even more important, once the elements of the psycho-linguistic model have been identified, the model itself can be made the subject of research: The teacher variable can be eliminated through using the model in programmed instruction. Individual components of the model can be used as independent variables in educational research, for the creation of scientific principles of language teaching does not depend on the speculative application of linguistic and psychological principles to the teaching situation, but on the establishment of scientifically validated optimal models of language teaching. As language teachers we should learn that the disciplines of linguistics and psychology will *not* furnish the answers to our questions—but they do provide the tools for asking them.

Barriers to Successful Reading for Second-Language Students at the Secondary Level*

Joyce Morris

In several years of visiting reading classes in New Mexico, I have had the opportunity to observe the reading of Indian and Spanish-American children who were non-English speakers. Two examples may serve to illustrate the nature of some of their reading difficulties: 1) An eighth grade Navajo girl read a poem containing the line "He married his girl with a golden band. . ." The girl read the line perfectly in that she pronounced all the words correctly. However, when asked what was meant by this line, she was unable to explain it. 2) A Spanish-speaking boy was asked the meaning of the word *brave*. He replied that when something was put over your face, you couldn't "brave" (breathe). Aside from specific examples of reading-language confusion, I have been struck by the fact that we accept, as perfectly normal, the fact that we have entire classrooms of Indian students at the junior high school level who are reading at the second or third grade level. These children are graduated from high school with, perhaps, intermediate grade level reading ability. Several years ago I tutored Indian students at the University of New Mexico. The majority of these students were performing at approximately a fourth or fifth grade reading level as measured by a standardized test.¹ When we consider the fact that standardized tests generally overestimate true reading ability, the degree of reading retardation becomes even greater.

This situation is not new, nor is the fact that these problems become even more pronounced the longer the child stays in school. Let's take a brief look at what we know of the achievement of the non-English-speaking children in our schools.

1. In 1936, Loyal Tireman found that Spanish-speaking children in Albuquerque became more academically retarded the higher they advanced through the grades:²

Fourth Grade	7 months retardation
Fifth Grade	1.1 years retardation
Sixth Grade	1.8 years retardation
Seventh Grade	2.3 years retardation

2. In 1958, in studying the achievement of Indian children for the Bu-

* This paper was presented at the TESOL Convention, March 1968.

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¹ Miles V. Zintz and Joyce Morris, *Tutoring-Counseling Program for Indian Students, 1960-62* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, College of Education, 1962).

² Loyal S. Tireman, *Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children* (Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico Press, 1948), p. 68.

reau of Indian Affairs, Madison Coombs documented the same trend toward progressive retardation.³

3. In 1960, Boyce found that Indian children were achieving at grade level at the end of the second grade, but that by the end of the sixth grade they were two or more years retarded.⁴

4. In 1961, Townsend tested 558 eleventh and twelfth grade Indian students in selected high schools in Albuquerque. He found that 73% of the eleventh graders, and 65% of the twelfth graders were achieving at a level below the 20th percentile rank. Further analysis showed that 54% of the eleventh graders and 51% of the twelfth graders fell below the 10th percentile rank in reading achievement.⁵

5. In 1964, Smith surveyed the achievement of Indian children in New Mexico schools, and found the following to be characteristic in terms of age in grade:⁶

Grade	Of Age In Grade	1 Year Retarded In Grade	2 Years Retarded In Grade	3 or More Years Retarded In Grade
1	40%	43%	12%	5%
6	28%	38%	22%	14%
9	28%	46%	21%	7%
12	25%	42%	23%	11%

6. In 1966, The Coleman Report found that all minority groups (excluding Orientals) score distinctly lower than the children of the dominant group, and the degree of the discrepancy in achievement is greatest in the twelfth grade, a finding that led Bruce Gaarder of the U. S. Office of Education to remark that “. . . Indian children lose ground the longer they stay in school.”⁷

Now that we have established the fact that these children are able to achieve at grade level through the primary grades but that their level of achievement from that point on is an endless downward spiral, let's look at some of the possible reasons for this.

In the primary grades there is high interest in the initial decoding pro-

³L. Madison Coombs, *et al.*, “The Indian Child Goes to School” (Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1958), p. 3.

⁴George Boyce, “Why Do Indians Quit School?” *Indian Education*, No. 344 (Lawrence, Kansas: Haskell Institute, May, 1960), p. 5.

⁵Irving D. Townsend, “The Reading Achievement of Eleventh and Twelfth Grade Indian Students and a Survey of Curricular Changes Indicated for the Improved Teaching of Reading in the Public High Schools of New Mexico: Diss., The University of New Mexico (1961), p. 118.

⁶Anne M. Smith, *New Mexico Indians Today: A Report Prepared as Part of the New Mexico State Resources Development Plan* (Santa Fe, 1965), p. 47.

⁷Bruce Gaarder, “Education of American Indian Children” in *Reports of the Annual Conference of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers at El Paso, Texas* (November, 1967), p. 33.

cess. Children have a real sense of accomplishment in learning to say what is written on the page. This is the acquisition of a new and highly valued skill, and motivation is not the problem it becomes at higher grade levels. In addition, the vocabulary and the concepts the small child is asked to master are both rigidly controlled and are within the grasp of the learner. The primary school teacher is with the child all day, all year, and becomes intimately acquainted with him and with his specific needs and weaknesses. She can make time throughout the day to provide special help. Perhaps most important, in these years school is important to the child. He has fewer outside interests, and his teacher and his school work loom large in his life.

In the intermediate grades, there is a sudden and tremendous increase in the difficulty of vocabulary, content, and concepts that the child is expected to cope with. There is more pressure for academic achievement, and more emphasis on speed. The carefully controlled content and vocabulary of earlier grades breaks down here, and children are expected to learn, at a faster rate, more complex material in various content areas.

This same trend continues into the junior high years, and it is in these years that many teachers feel that now the children have learned to read and that from here on they simply read to learn. Just at the point where materials become more complex, as the quantity of reading increases, and as more refined reading skills are demanded—only too often—instruction in reading stops.

At the high school level there is even more content to master in less time; the teacher's time with each child is far less; and if the child has been having trouble with reading, the years of frustration and failure have killed his interest in learning to read *or* in reading to learn.

It may fairly be said that the above description fits many children and is not true only of the English-as-a-second-language learner. When speaking of this child, we realize that there are additional barriers to reading success. Obviously, the major problem of these children is the fact that they have little or no facility with the English language. This is so obvious that it has often been said that teaching reading to these children is, in reality, teaching English as a second language. It certainly can't be denied that in initial reading instruction command of the oral language must precede reading, and that in teaching reading we must observe the principles of TESOL: hearing, speaking, reading, writing. A few remarks of adult Indians illustrate their recognition of the importance of learning English:

If you could learn English, the other things related, it would come and open your mind, because you could begin to read, and pick up a book and read and understand—Here's a good occupation I could be training for. But with a minimum of English and no true challenge, well, the Indian is bound to take the lazy way out.

I think if they want us to speak English, if they want us to have a really good command of English and thereby as a result get along in the world of the white man, I think English should be emphasized at the beginning stages. . . We don't have good enough command of English to communicate effectively.

I didn't really learn English though a graduate of a BIA boarding school, until I went to Bacone and I began to feel that I could understand the newspaper, and really pick up a book and read it for pleasure or understanding, and I was no longer *simulating* understanding. Before Bacone I did recognize a few words and this and that but my vocabulary was very poor.⁸

Contributions from linguists have impressed on us that learning a language is not just learning words, but that pitch, structure, intonation, and the cultural setting are all a part of language learning. Further, the recognition of the importance of first teaching regular pronunciation and spelling patterns in beginning reading has influenced classroom practices. The value for the children in paying careful attention to phoneme-grapheme correspondence in beginning reading instruction has led to the development of improved beginning reading programs.

However, there are a few points that disturb me when we talk of applying TESOL approaches to secondary reading instruction. First of all, we know that lack of facility with English handicaps the child in learning to read English, *but*, conversely, we cannot say that the ability to speak English will insure ability to read English. If this were true, we would not have estimates from 10% to 15% of the general school population struggling with reading retardation. We know that it is possible for the upper-class Anglo child who has an above average command of the oral language to have serious reading problems at the high school and college levels.

My second point is that teaching oral English and teaching reading are not identical processes and do not have the same purposes. In the first we are concerned with oral production, and here the aural-oral techniques are effective. In teaching reading, we do not want the student to pronounce each word. A truly efficient reader uses a minimum of oral production, or even "mental pronunciation," as he reads.

The third point is that the processes and aims of initial reading instruction and advanced reading instruction are by no means the same. In initial reading instruction, the learner is learning how to break the code. He is learning that the symbols (graphemes) represent sounds—that writing is indeed "talk written down." In the first grade, perceptual skills and visual and auditory discrimination are necessary for success. However, at higher levels the ability to form and use concepts increases in importance. One study shows that by the fifth grade concept formation is more closely related to reading achievement than is I.Q.⁹

Studies of concept formation and learning have shown us that concept development is facilitated when: (1) the child (or adult) has had concrete experiences on which to base his concepts; (2) that the wider variety of associations the child can make with the concept, the easier it is to learn and to retain; (3) that the more *meaningful* the ideas to be assimilated, the

⁸Smith, p. 54.

⁹Jean Braun, "Relationship Between Concept Formation and Reading Achievement," *Child Development*, XXXIV (September, 1963), 675-82.

easier the learning and retention; and (4) that a concept, once formed, is represented by a symbol, and that the symbol is usually a word. The word then becomes sufficient in itself to trigger the release of the meanings of the concepts it represents.

Think of frequently used words, such as *democracy*, *hatred*, *patriotism*, or *prejudice*, and I think we will all realize that what comes to mind is not a dictionary definition, but a flood of feelings, emotions, and opinions that have been formed by innumerable past experiences, both real and vicarious.

In short, at higher levels we do not want children to equate words with sounds but with *meanings*. We do not want them to translate from graphemes to phonemes—we want them to be unaware of graphemes, as most of us are, and to grasp from the printed page the concepts, feelings, and opinions put there by the writer. The purpose of reading at the secondary level is usually not to teach the students to decode the written symbols—that is, to produce the corresponding speech forms—but to explore, interpret, and extend the concepts represented by the written symbols. The major weakness in the reading of ESL students at the secondary level is the fact that, in all too many instances, the initial reading step is performed: the child decodes the symbols and produces the word—and stops. The word fails to trigger *anything* because the concepts it represents to us and to the author simply do not exist for the child, or they exist in a limited, vague form.

This is the point where, in my opinion, our teaching of English and reading breaks down. We must realize that reading is a skill and a tool, and as such is meant to be used to extend knowledge. Teaching children to pronounce words, and *assuming* that they have meaning for the child is not teaching reading. Too many of us are guilty of limiting the children's ideas of what reading is by our acceptance of word calling without real understanding. We spend a great deal of time on workbook exercises calling for filling in blanks with words that can be found by a process of elimination. Questions teachers ask are usually concerned with simple repetition of fact and do not lead the children to develop or extend reading. Guzsak found that over 70% of teacher questions at the elementary level asked for simple recall.¹⁰

In addition to teaching children to pronounce words, we must also provide experiences—whether these experiences be real or vicarious—that will make the words mean something once they have been decoded. Certainly we cannot bring war, germs, or the Detroit riots into the classroom so that concepts may be formed through concrete experiences, but we can use audio-visual aids, field trips, or conversations with those who have had real experience with such things.

In addition we must enlist-or demand-the help of all teachers in developing meaning. Those in other content areas are best equipped to teach

¹⁰ Frank Guzsak, "Teacher Questioning and Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, XXI, 3 (December, 1967), 227-234.

the concepts and the vocabulary of their particular field, and they must do this. The English and reading teacher cannot bear the entire burden.

Test results, teacher comments, and personal experience and observation support the major assumption I have made here: that *meaning*, and not oral production, is the greatest problem encountered in the teaching of both English and reading to the secondary school student of ESL. Reading test scores of Indian students reveal that they consistently score lower in comprehension than in the mechanics of reading. Comments of teachers of Indian children are equally consistent: "They're word callers, but they don't have any idea what the words mean." Those dealing with Navajo children have one universal remark to make: "They just can't deal with abstractions. Everything must be concrete; and even then, only the literal interpretation is made." Perhaps this is interference of the native language and thought patterns, but we must also consider that maybe they have never had the opportunity to develop the conceptual basis for abstraction in English.

Most of our knowledge is gained through reading. Without reading skill the best and most profitable path to knowledge is blocked, as is the path to what we call "the mainstream of American life." By accepting a limited version of reading we are limiting the child's educational career and his later life. We are actually advocating a different kind of reading for the non-English speaker than that we consider suitable for the Anglo child. We have had a great deal of help from linguists in terms of increasing our knowledge of what our language is really like, and we have had help from the foreign-language teachers regarding methods and techniques of second-language teaching. But now we need to move on and ask how—once the children have mastered the initial oral language and reading skills—we can proceed to the development of real thinking and concept formation ability in the new language. We cannot be satisfied with less.

Reading Instruction for College Level Foreign Students*

Ted Plaister

In his article, "The Problem of the Advanced Student in American English,"¹ Schwab has stated succinctly the needs of foreign students who have reached or passed the operational level (defined by him as a person who can converse with natives, order food in a restaurant, purchase a railroad ticket, understand and give directions; and who can conceivably employ simple structural patterns in his writing and listen with comprehension to informal speech). Schwab points out, quite rightly, that this level is insufficient for pursuing academic work. What I want to do here is describe for you what we in Hawaii are currently doing in the area of reading instruction to raise our students above this operational level to a higher one.

All non-native speakers of English applying to the University are given a reading test² by the English Language Institute. This test yields four scores: vocabulary, comprehension, speed, and a total reading score (this is a derived score from vocabulary plus speed). Raw scores are then converted to stanines. On the basis of the scores, students are classified in four ways: exempt (stanines 7, 8, and 9); our course ELI 72 (stanines 4, 5, and 6); ELI 71 (stanines 2 and 3); and not admissible (stanine 1). When classifying, we pay particular attention to the vocabulary and comprehension scores, giving emphasis to comprehension. As would be expected, a given individual's scores tend to fall within one or two stanine ranges for all four sub-scores.

ELI 71 is our basic reading course. It meets daily for one hour. ELI 72 is a more advanced course meeting three times a week. Exempted students are those we feel read well enough so that they can compete on fairly even terms with native speakers.

Incidentally, for all of our courses we maintain a check on placement by having teachers evaluate students closely the first week or so of classes and make recommendations for possible reassignment in those cases where test scores have not revealed true ability.

Having placed students in class, what do we do with them? First of all, we talk about reading. We give the students a handout entitled "Are You a Good Reader?" This is a compilation of generally accepted good reading

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¹ *Language Learning*, X, 3 and 4 (1960), 151-156.

² Form IC, *Cooperative English Tests, Reading Comprehension* (Princeton New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1960).

practices along with what amounts to commonly agreed upon poor reading practices. These are discussed in some detail. (Students scoring in the ELI 71 range are quite often poor in other language aspects and so care must be exercised to be sure the lecture portion of the course is understood.)

The next step is to implement the approved reading skills and practices advocated on the handout. We begin this by having the students do timed reading exercises. I will detail this. Most of our students are word-by-word readers and, as a consequence, read at very low rates—125 to perhaps 150 words per minute. Evidence shows that reading by structures—in a sense by IC (immediate constituent) cuts—helps native speakers gain comprehension. To give the students practice in reading by structures we take reading materials³ and ditto two columns on a page, each column containing a structure of not more than three or four words. With this material in hand, the next trick is to get the students to read the structures with one fixation of the eyes—or at most two in the beginning stages—moving down to the next and so on. And, of course, we want the students to do this against time. We have had some success using a metronome. Each student is provided with a 3 x 5 index card. The metronome is then set at, say, 200 words per minute. Each time the student hears the metronome tick, he moves his card down. During this, the teacher moves around the room watching for lip, head, and finger movement. It usually takes about two weeks to break the students of these habits which are conducive to slow reading.

Non-native readers are often very insecure about their reading and will simply not move their cards in time with the metronome. They feel they must look at each and every word. Another task for the teacher, then, is to see that students are working in time with the metronome. Some students catch on right away, others require supervision for considerable periods of time. It sometimes becomes necessary to stand behind a student and take over the movement of the card from him. Prompting the student a few times this way generally suffices to take care of the problem.

Work with the metronome is normally restricted to one page with two columns of words on it. After the student finishes this page we move him into the text from which the short phrases have been taken. Our rationale is that the pace set by the metronome will be kept up as reading continues throughout the article. To help achieve this, we time the entire reading selection. For the dittoed materials, all students of necessity read at the same rate. For the reading of the complete article, each student reads at his own rate. However, the student continues to read against the clock.

Each student keeps a graph which shows his reading rate in words per minute. The chart itself seems to serve as a motivating factor. It is interesting to watch students shake their heads when their reading rate curve drops. It is rewarding to watch the smiles when the curve climbs.

³ *Reader's Digest Readings: English as a Second Language*, Books Four, Five, and Six (Pleasantville, New York: Reader's Digest Service, 1963).

Modern Reading Skilltext Series (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1966).

These procedures are followed daily. In other words, the students read selected materials under time pressure in the hope that they will pick up the habit of reading by larger groups of words. Results so far are encouraging. It is not uncommon to get 125-word-per-minute readers up to about 400 words per minute in one semester. (This rate, of course, is on quite simple material. What we are presuming is that the student will transfer his new reading habits to everything he reads.)

In three to four weeks' time we stop using the metronome. Students continue to read against time, however. We also train them to use a card or their fingers as a pacer. (This is somewhat like the technique advocated by the Evelyn Woods Reading Dynamics course.) The student moves his fingers down the page just a little bit faster than he can read comfortably. This takes self-discipline. Certainly not all students can do this; but a few do, and the results are obvious.

Once the students finish reading a given selection, they complete the exercises which follow. These are the usual comprehension-type exercises. Students read at different rates; therefore, they finish at different times. What do the students do who finish first? We require them to go back and re-read anything which they have read before. We urge them to re-read, pushing themselves to read just as fast as they possibly can. (I feel that we are also probably helping students learn some English grammar this way. If they fairly fly over the page, the eye is taking in large chunks of English structure. Hopefully, some of this will rub off and become embedded in the black box.)

One obvious fault is that the better readers get more practice than the slower ones. The teacher is anxious to get to the exercise material and discuss it. So the slowest students are watched and just as soon as they finish reading a given passage and answer the questions, the teacher begins the discussion. As a result, the faster students have been practicing reading while waiting for the slower students. I suppose the answer lies in better ability grouping.

What do we do about culture content and the ever-present problem of vocabulary? We take care of culture by means of lecture. I would suggest here that teachers have to learn to practice some restraint. It is great fun to take a passage and interpret it to death. Nevertheless, there is a real need for helping students gain a deep, rather than a surface understanding of what they read. For example, I once had a class draw a picture of the football after reading a passage about football. All drawings except one depicted the football as being round (and that student had been to a mainland U.S. university for one semester during the football season). Of course, football was being equated with soccer. Another passage mentioned that a group of teenagers got home quite late. I asked what the time involved was. The answers ranged all the way from 9:00 p.m. to 2:00 or 3:00 a.m.!

We ask our teachers to read over passages to be taught and make educated guesses as to those portions which need explaining. It is then up to the teacher to try to get the concepts across. A useful technique is to use

comparisons between or among the cultures represented in the class. In other words, what is "late" for a teenager to get home—or is there even such a concept as lateness (or teenager) in a given culture?

Other than the usual vocabulary discussion in class, we supply our students with a programmed text for homework. Our philosophy has been that we want the students to spend as much time as possible reading during class. Vocabulary can pretty much be tackled outside of class. Naturally, we work on such things as context clues during class.

Ideally, the vocabulary text should be written as an adjunct to the materials being read in class. This we are working towards. We expect to finish sometime in late 1984! Until that time, we have had pretty good luck with *Words*, an SRA publication.⁴ We find that many of our students have not had any work on prefixes, suffixes, bases—things most of us had in high school. (There is, of course, a theoretical question as to whether one learns any vocabulary this way, but I for one am willing to take a gamble that we get some results this way.) The *Words* book has a series of quizzes accompanying it which are administered throughout the semester.

In the upper level course, which meets three times a week, our basic text is by David P. Harris.⁵ This we supplement with the Merrill *Skilltexts* (see footnote 3).

To give the students practice in reading against time as well as practice in taking tests, we have been using certain of the SRA materials on an experimental basis. Because we wanted all the students to read the same material, enough of each test for class use was photocopied. We find these daily three-minute reading tests very useful. The students unquestionably pick up speed in handling these. The tests get progressively longer and more difficult. The short passages are interesting and the students seem to enjoy them. They are easy to administer, quick to score, and provide immediate feedback. It is my feeling that there is real psychological benefit in using these daily tests. For one thing, students overcome their fear of tests, and they get used to objective tests.

As with the lower level course, longer reading selections are timed and reading rates kept. In fact, we time everything which occurs in the Harris text, including the instructions. After all, instructions are reading material too.

Vocabulary instruction is not neglected at this level. The programmed format seemed to work so well with the lower level, that it was decided to incorporate the same method with the upper. Naturally, with no tailored text being available, we turned to commercial sources. Two were selected from the *Word Clues* series.⁶ Which two to use involved some educated

⁴ Susan Meyer Markle. *Words: A Programmed Course in Vocabulary Development*, rev. ed. (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1963).

⁵ *Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English as a Second Language* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1966).

⁶ (Huntington, New York: Educational Development Laboratories, 1961.)

guessing, but those selected, Books I and J, seem to be working satisfactorily. Because we are working with students from various major subject area fields we have to compromise on content. We assume the students are getting subject matter vocabulary from reading in their particular content field. What we hope the programmed vocabulary texts will do is improve their general vocabulary.

In summary, our reading courses stress (1) elimination of poor reading habits, (2) training in reading by structures, (3) timed reading exercises, (4) practice in reading different kinds of material in class, (5) lectures on important cultural concepts, (6) practice in taking tests under timed conditions, and (7) systematic attack on vocabulary growth by means of programmed texts.

CORRECTIONS

Below are corrections to be made in recent issues of *TESOL Quarterly*.

Volume II, Number 1 (March 1968), page 44, last line, first column. Replace *not* with *now*.

Volume II, Number 2 (June 1968), page 109, first column. In the quotation from Albert H. Marckwardt, *Studies in Languages and Linguistics*, line 5 should read: ". . . academic life he had had three or four. . ."

Volume II, Number 2 (June 1968), page 109, second column. In the quotation from Charles C. Fries, *American English Grammar*, the sentence beginning on line 8 should become two sentences and read: "We assume, therefore, that there can be no 'correctness' apart from usage and that the *true* forms of 'standard' English are those that are actually used in that particular dialect. Deviations from these usages are 'incorrect' only when used in the dialect to which they do not belong."

Volume II, Number 2 (June 1968), page 110, second column. In the quotation from Charles C. Fries, "As We See It," delete from the last sentence the word *rather*.

On Intermediate Language Instruction

Tommy R. Anderson

The aural-oral approach to second-language teaching is based on, among many other things, the assumption that language learning can proceed best if the student is first prepared to respond to and in his new language as he would have to respond if he were to be confronted with a native speaker of that language with whom he had to communicate. Thus the initial stage of second-language learning usually aims to build up what may be described as the ability to carry on a conversation. This conversational ability is rarely the ultimate object of second-language instruction, however, and the student soon reaches a stage where he begins to try to achieve whatever his own ultimate object may have been. He may want access to its literature or to the culture of the people who speak it. Or he may want to get an education in it which he would be denied using only his native language. In either case there will be a perceptible shift of interest toward reading and writing, and these two skills tend to dominate the intermediate and advanced levels of second-language instruction.

Unfortunately, this produces a real discontinuity in the instructional process. By their very nature, reading and writing are not as amenable to close structural control and massive practice as are the conversational skills. Two of the reasons for this are the relatively larger part of conversation which is phatic in nature and the relatively smaller units which make up the typical conversation. Because so much of real conversation is phatic, it is possible to play-act the same thing repeatedly without any overwhelming sense of unreality. And because the typical units of conversation—greetings, leave-takings, question-and-answer sequences, instruction-and-response sequences, statement-and-contradiction sequences, and the like—are so short, both linguistically and temporally, a lot of practice can be achieved in a short time. On the other hand, very little in reading and writing except parts of personal letters or greeting cards, for example, can be properly described as phatic; most of the reading and writing we do has other purposes. And almost any structural unit of the written language goes beyond the three or four sentences that suffice to describe most conversational units. The discontinuity between the conversation-dominated initial stages and the reading-and-writing dominated later stages of second-language study, then, is real, and intermediate level materials must somehow wrestle with it.

Many of the processes by which this discontinuity is bridged are obvious. At first, reading and writing are kept as close as possible to the conversational level. Reading selections are short and are prepared for by oral practice. Often they are followed up by oral questioning. The first work

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in written composition is likewise preceded by thorough oral preparation and followed up—if it is followed up at all—by similar oral activities. Only gradually is the student turned loose. Reading selections become longer and there is less preparation. Composition is likewise demanded in longer and less conversational forms with less preparation. The student finds himself advancing toward an eventual day of reckoning when he will be treated just as if he were a native speaker of the language he is studying. How far off this day of reckoning is, no one seems to know; very few students have ever reached it in practice. Or—to say the same thing in another way—we are regrettably vague about what we mean when we say that the student will be treated just as if he were a native speaker. Inevitably we must ask how we would treat—or do treat—a native speaker.

Let us begin by sketching what the native speaker of English faces when he encounters the written language and especially when he encounters literature. There is first of all the rather startling fact that the unstructured conversation of six-year-old children does not differ substantially in syntactic complexity from the unstructured conversation of adults.¹ This underscores again that a six-year-old child knows his language completely in some not-yet-well-defined sense. We are in the habit of assuming that he will learn vocabulary, but experience shows us that he also has much to learn in the areas of organization and style. It seems increasingly clear that Firth and his colleagues are on solid ground when they point out that language exists in certain definable ranges.² We do not acquire all of these ranges at once, but rather we progressively differentiate them from each other as the educational processes proceed. The basic range is probably what we might term “small talk” or casual conversation. This is what most people engage in most of the time, and it differs from the other ranges in being fundamentally disjointed. Because it is carried on face to face, it has a factor of self correction built into it which eliminates to a large extent the need for careful forethought. Because it is a rapid give-and-take, there is little possibility of forethought anyway. Hence conversation tends to structure itself into relatively short and easily defined sequences such as greeting and leave-taking sequences or questions and answers. The transitions between such sequences may be quite arbitrary, and the sequences themselves are so constructed that the utterances within them support each other contextually. Hence conversation is full of fragmentary pieces which properly constitute what is left after deletions from complete utterances. A recent monograph by Elizabeth Bowman provides a good deal of back-handed insight into what goes on.³ It is this range that the pre-school child and the adult both share.

¹ Milagros R. Aquino and Dennis Lee Brown, “Linguistic Analysis of Children’s Speech: Southwest Regional Laboratory progress report, Nov. 18, 1966.

² See, for example, J. R. Firth, “On Sociological Linguistics,” *Language in Culture and Society*, ed. Dell Hymes (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 66-70.

³ *The Minor and Fragmentary Sentences of a Corpus of Spoken English, IJAL*, XXXII, 3, Part 2 (July, 1966).

In English, though not necessarily in all other languages, we can see a number of different elaborations of material which we might expect to find in relatively unstructured form in casual conversation. Commands or instructions can be sequenced and the corresponding linguistic responses removed to produce a set of directions. The need for questions of a self-correcting kind can be reduced in narrative or expository writing by careful organization and by taking the forethought to answer beforehand most of the things which readers or listeners may ask about. This is the main feature which sets story telling apart from casual narration or the expository lecture apart from informal counseling sessions. We may consider this differentiation to be a middle ground. When a student enters school, he is not normally prepared to give a careful set of instructions, to tell coherently without omission a connected story, or to explain anything in a systematic way.

Thus far we have differentiated conversation from instruction, explanation, or narration mainly on the ground that the self-correcting factor of give-and-take has been eliminated. This elimination requires us to impose some form of organization on our language. The organization form does not permit the sort of deletion which can go on in conversation; hence these forms contain large numbers of syntactically complete utterances when compared with conversation. However, organization can become something of an end in itself. This leads to style and to all of the things which we must associate with style. It begins to appear that whereas mere communication would use grammatical processes in accordance only with some overall and only half arbitrary principle of organization, something which contains a style would use the same processes under further arbitrary socially defined conventions which would constitute the style. If this is true, then we may search in vain for gross quantitative measures which can differentiate a Hemingway novel from the coherent narrative of someone reporting about it. What would differentiate would be the fact that Hemingway systematically deflected his language from some sort of norm. Richard Ohmann attempts to define the Hemingway style as a persistent use of reported speech, a use which is far greater than the actual content of the narrative demands.⁴ This is compensated for by a systematic disuse of extended structures of modification and certain other grammatical processes. My own observations have shown me that Eugene Nida has a strong tendency to use nominalized verbs rather than clause structures, while Charles Hockett uses such nominalizations surprisingly rarely. In both cases these are linguists writing about linguistics, so that the subject matter of the two selections was substantially the same. It seems likely that what we may call prose style will be reduceable to systematic deflection in the expected number of occurrences of a relatively few transformations rather than in some overall quantitative index of transformational depth. If so, then the definition

⁴ Richard Ohmann, "Generative Grammar and the Concept of Literary Style," *Word*, XX, 3 (1964), 423-439.

of style is likely to be specific to each author—something to be determined only upon examination of his writings and not pre-determined in terms of some index or series of indexes for all authors.

The idea that an author can systematically manipulate the frequency of particular transformations suggests that there must be some sense in which different transformations can serve the same purpose. There are many kinds of modification, for example, and many alternatives to modification. We may say, "The destruction of Nineveh was considered to be a turning point in world history," or "When Nineveh was destroyed, it was considered to be a turning point in world history," or we may say "The fact that Nineveh was destroyed was considered to be a turning point in world history." In these sentences the idea of destruction is used as noun subject of the sentence, as verb in a subordinate clause of time, and as verb in a modification structure modifying the subject. The essential information communicated is the same. The vocabulary used is the same as far as root content words are concerned. The organization of ideas is the same—we have not changed the relationship between *destroy* and *consider*. Style as we have defined it must work within alternations such as this. If transformations alter the fundamental organization of ideas or can not be avoided in expressing ideas, they obviously affect content and not style. Hence we should not expect to find a difference in this regard between casual conversation on the one hand or any of a whole range of possible styles on the other. Linguistically, that much transformational depth is inherent and must be discounted in arriving at any kind of index. It should not differ from one person to another, and this should hold true regardless of education and differences of temperament. But in fact such completely determined relationships in language are either non-existent or very rare. Hence there is an important grammatical problem involved in determining possible alternate utterances and thus defining some sort of possible limit on stylistic variations.

Even above this level of linguistic organization, there is a further level. This defines the line between what may be considered prose in some sense and what must be considered poetic language or poetry. A great part of poetry would be lost if it failed to concentrate upon some kind of manipulation of the surface form. That is, poetry in the narrow sense contains systematic rhythm and rhyme, and the symbol or the balance period of certain kinds of prose also represents systematic manipulation of the external form and consequently verges into poetry. Much of our humor—most notably the pun—also depends upon systematic manipulation of the external form. Hence this also defines a line between what is prose in the sense that it intends to communicate and what is humor in the sense that it tends to elicit laughter as well as to communicate.

Much of what we acquire in our educational system is simply an awareness of and a sensitivity to such linguistic ranges. If so, then, the difference between the six-year-old and the adult will reside in the fact that while the six-year-old controls conversation, the educated adult controls much more. How much more is open to question. I think that we have not been very

successful in teaching this substance. We should expect the adult to do a better narrative, a better instruction, a better explanation, or a better imitation of some range of style than the child. But I do not know how much better it would be, and I do not know exactly where the line between child and adult would normally fall for a given population or a given task. Certainly the normal teenager can mimic the style of popular singers much more effectively than the normal adult. At least I would say this on the basis of unsystematic observation. Could the average teenager mimic Walter Winchell or Robert Frost?

The task of a pre-literature text for a native speaker, then, can be summed up under three main points. First, it must teach the organizational patterns which enable an adult to raise conversation to the level of systematic instruction, narration, or coherent exposition. This is an organizational question in part and a question of empathy in part. To take an obvious case, a set of coherent instructions normally is given in a rigid order: the chronological order in which the instructions are to be carried out. This is an organizing principle of great importance, but like many other obvious principles, it is only obvious after you know it, and the six-year-old child does not yet know it. He can not tell you coherently how to play a game, and the chief defect in his attempt will be that he has not thought about the proper place to put various instructions. He will also be defective in empathy. He will not have attempted to anticipate the places where his instructions will be ambiguous or unclear. He will not have attempted to take into account the special knowledge that he has which someone else might not have. Essentially the same points could be made for narration or exposition.

Second, a pre-literature text would have to consider the extent to which alternative ways of saying something are equivalent. The native-speaking child may not realize that there are situations where two grammatical patterns really amount to the same thing. Abstractions like "the destruction of Nineveh" have long been known to present difficulties—difficulties which could be removed if the child were made consciously aware of such alternative forms as "when Nineveh was destroyed" or "the fact that Nineveh was destroyed." The traditional educational system takes up this question as a question of vocabulary building; *destruction* is learned on the basis of what the child already knows about *destroy*. But equivalences like the one given above are rarely if ever spelled out. They are left to be intuited by someone who knows the grammar.

Third, a pre-literature text should prepare the child to recognize the conventional patterns which we call style. It seems unlikely that just any deliberate warping of transformational probabilities will lead to a style. The warping occurs and must occur along socially defined lines. Establishing a new line or creating a radical stylistic departure is something which takes the greatest genius to achieve and which probably can be accomplished only once or twice in a century. Such schools as romanticism, naturalism, or stream of consciousness writing have achieved their effects in part by a re-structuring of the prevailing kinds of stylistic modifications. We do not teach

this kind of originality in a pre-literature text. Rather, we attempt to establish some kind of awareness that such a selection goes on and what such a selection may entail in a particular style.

A pre-literature text for the intermediate instruction of second-language speakers would have to do all of this but would labor under two possible kinds of modification. First, the students for whom the text was intended would not know the grammatical processes in every case. They would have to work with an incomplete ability to interpret the information which their grammar provides. For example, there are Filipino students who do not have the capacity to get the tense information from such a sentence as *I left my muddy shoes by the door* and are not able, therefore, to define exactly what this sentence says about the time at which the shoes were muddy. We derive this sentence from *My shoes were muddy. I left them by the door*, and so the shoes were muddy at a time in the past. The sentence simply says nothing about whether they are still muddy, for *be* can not be interpreted tense-wise in the same way that *leave* is interpreted. That is, if I left, I am not still leaving, but if my shoes were muddy, they may or may not still be muddy. This leads to the curious phenomenon that, except where generalizations are involved, English verbs like *be* tend to take their tense from surrounding verbs, while verbs like *leave* base their tense primarily upon the time of the action. A pre-literature text will have to make this clear by presenting the student with situations where an interpretation like this is necessary for proper comprehension. Then the interpretation will have to be forced with an appropriate question and the generalization reinforced with appropriate writing exercises. Many other instances of this sort can be cited. A pre-literature text must probably wrestle with such deficiencies on the interpretive level. That is, a student must be questioned in such a way that he becomes aware of the information conveyed within the pattern. We have accumulated overwhelming evidence from testing of this sort that Filipino students often really are not capable of such interpretation. Then creative oral and written exercises within an appropriate framework of controls can be used to follow up and fix the new structure.

Just as we must cope with the fact that our students may not have a full English grammar, so we must cope with the fact that they may have learned something about style and/or organization in studying their first language. Some of this may carry over. Hence, where the students have received a good education in their native language, it may not be necessary to spend as much time teaching organization as we would have to spend with native English-speaking students because they might have learned some of it in connection with their previous instruction. On the other hand, some languages have a narrower range of options in the area of style than English and may lack certain kinds of differentiation which would be important to note in reading or writing English. Many of the languages of Asia, for example, do not distinguish clearly between a literary style and a scientific style in writing. Students who have received a substantial part of their education in such languages may tend to carry over all that they learn

about literary English into their scientific writing and vice versa. Hence a knowledge of the stylistic and organizational resources of a background language in which second-language students of English have received a large part of their education may be as necessary for a pre-literature text as an examination of the structural features of such a language is for elementary instructional materials.

I wish to suggest, then, that intermediate language materials may have to be differentiated from elementary language materials along lines both of methodology and of content. They may have to place less emphasis on pattern practice with isolated sentences and more emphasis on close reading and carefully controlled writing of units which go beyond the limits of a few sentences. Though many people have talked about the analysis of such units, relatively little has actually been done to define and exploit them outside of the give-and-take of conversational sequences. What the "basic dialogue" has done for elementary language instruction may have to be duplicated at the intermediate level with "basic narrative," "basic exposition," "basic description," and "basic instruction" sequences. But attention would inevitably shift from isolated sentences and their structure to the larger structure which unifies the whole piece and to the possible alternative structures which might have been used at the sentence level instead of the ones that actually were used. The roles which tense, article usage, pronominalization, the intonational system, and stereotyped ordering of materials play in unifying these larger structures would be presented to the students in an explicit way. These features of English cannot be considered as unifying factors when they are taught in isolated sentences, and we have paid for our failure to teach their unifying function in that we have permitted students to produce sentences which would be correct enough in isolation but which are glaringly wrong in context. And, of course, a basic knowledge of equivalent forms for expressing a given idea is just as useful in enabling the second-language speaker to achieve a style or to define the style of others as it is to a first-language speaker. If intermediate materials are thought of within this framework, they can avoid the pitfalls of being an attempt to do remedially at the last minute what should have been done properly from the beginning or of providing the student with a smattering of pseudo-culture as a pretext for getting him to practice his language skills.

Social Dialects and Language Learning: Implications for TESOL *

Rudolph C. Troike

In this paper I shall discuss some of the implications for TESOL which arise from research studies in dialectology that can be related meaningfully to the development of action programs in the schools, and from a general understanding of the nature of language, language learning, and language variation. Although it would be possible to expatiate on this subject at great length, I shall focus my remarks on those major points which seem most immediately relevant.

As a point of departure, I begin with a quotation from Daniel Defoe (best known today as the author of *Robinson Crusoe*), taken from the chapter "A Tour Thro' Somerset" in his book *A Tour Through the Whole Island of Great Britain*, published in 1724:

It cannot pass my Observation here, that, when we are come this Length from London, the Dialect of the English Tongue, or the Country-way of expressing themselves, is not easily understood. . . . It is not possible to explain this fully by Writing, because the Difference is not so much in the Orthography, as in the Tone and Accent; their abridging the Speech, *Cham*, for *I am*; *Chil*, for *I will*; *Don*, for *do on*, or *put on*; and *Doff*, for *do off*, or *put off*; and the like.

I cannot omit a short Story here on this Subject: Coming to a Relation's House, who was a Schoolmaster at Martock in Somersetshire, I went into his School to beg the Boys, or rather the Master, a Play-day, as is usual in such Cases. I observed one of the lowest Scholars was reading his Lesson to the Usher in a Chapter in the Bible. I sat down by the Master, till the Boy had read it out, and observed the Boy read a little oddly in the Tone of the Country, which made me the more attentive; because, on Inquiry, I found that the Words were the same, and the Orthography the same, as in all our Bibles. I observed also the Boy read it out with his Eyes still on the Book, and his Head, like a mere Boy, moving from Side to Side, as the Lines reached cross the Columns of the Book: His Lesson was in the *Canticles of Solomon*; the Words these;

'I have put off my Coat; how shall I put it on? I have washed my Feet; how shall I defile them?' The Boy read thus, with his Eyes, as I say, full on the Text: 'Chav a doffed my Coot; how shall I don't? Chav a washed my Feet; how shall I moil 'em?'

How the dexterous Dunce could form his Mouth to express so readily the Words (which stood right printed in the Book) in his Country Jargon, I could not but admire.

This is one of the earliest observations I have been able to discover concerning a phenomenon which is of the greatest importance to teachers of language, but which until recently has received only scant attention. The

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phenomenon I refer to is that of *receptive bi-dialectalism* or *bilingualism*. The Defoe example is typical of many we have observed in which an individual, who is presented with a stimulus in one dialect and asked to repeat it, will respond by producing the form that is native to his own dialect rather than the form which he has heard or seen. This substitution of native forms for stimulus forms includes not only features of phonology, but extends to vocabulary and syntax as well, as may be seen in Defoe's example.

Such responses seem to give unequivocal evidence that the person has an adequate receptive knowledge of the stimulus dialect, and that he performs—and has learned to perform—*instantaneous translation* from that dialect into his native dialect. Such evidence should further give us pause at attempts to judge a child's linguistic competence solely or even largely on the basis of his *production*, as we are prone to do, and as our tests are now largely designed to do.

Instead, we should begin by attempting to assess the child's *receptive* competence, as the basis from which to proceed in determining appropriate instructional procedures. Thus, if the child has an already well-developed receptive knowledge of a more formal or "mainstream" dialect of the language, much of the instructional task can be seen as guiding him toward an automatic *productive control* of the "mainstream" dialect, rather than of having to teach it to him from scratch. Implicit in this approach is the idea that only positive stimuli and motivations will be supplied to lead him to develop and practice this control, and that no negative values or stigmas will be applied to his use of his native linguistic forms. The goal is to make clear to the child that the choice of dialect is a matter of social appropriateness and expediency rather than one of right versus wrong, or good versus bad.

To the oft-repeated objection that the first-grade child is too innocent of the social world around him to appreciate the significance of dialect differences, I can only reply, "*Nonsense!*" Five- and six-year-olds are far more perceptive than adults usually give them credit for, and it is only a cultural myth which prevents us from seeing this fact. With his indulgence, I should like to illustrate my point with an account of an actual event reported to me by a colleague of mine. As is well known, there are two ways in American English of pronouncing the word *creek*: in large parts of the North, even by educated speakers, it is pronounced to rhyme with *pick*, while elsewhere it rhymes with *peek*. My colleague happens to be a "crick" speaker, while his wife is a "creek" speaker. Several years ago his son, then five, said something to his father about the "creek" behind their home, and was promptly reproved by his four-year-old sister, who happened to be standing nearby, with "Don't you know that you're supposed to say 'crick' to Daddy and 'creek' to Mommie?" Many more examples could be cited to show that even pre-first-graders are far from linguistically naive and have already learned a great deal about the adaptive significance of linguistic behavior within their own very real social world.

Against this background, then, let me sketch briefly what seem to me to be some of the major implications of current research on non-standard dialects, and of dialectology in general, for teaching English to non-English speakers.

First of all, the teacher must realize that she is a teacher of *language*, and that all languages spoken by more than one person have dialects. Dialects arise by natural processes beyond the reach of coercive methods to control, and are specific to particular social groups and particular areas. There is no such thing as a "standard language" as contrasted with "dialects"; there are only more or less culturally valued or socially prestigious dialects, and more or less formal dialects, of a language. Any other view simply reflects the ignorance of the one who holds it.

Any instructional program, whether in a more widely prestigious dialect of the native language, or in a second language, must begin with as full an *objective* knowledge as possible on the part of the teacher and of the materials preparer of the specific features of the native dialect of the learner. Only in this way can an accurate prediction of the linguistic interference between the native language (or dialect) and the target language (or dialect) be made, and an understanding of its sources achieved. With specific respect to Spanish, there are, as anyone who knows the history of Spanish settlement in the New World might expect, different dialects of Spanish spoken today in Puerto Rico, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. (At this point I should like to dispose once and for all of the prevalent idea that there is in Texas a supposedly corrupt form of Spanish known as "Tex-Mex"; this is a dangerous myth and, like most dangerous myths, has no basis in fact.) There are in fact several native dialects of Spanish spoken in Texas alone—even in a single city such as San Antonio or El Paso—and most of these are simply local varieties of the much larger regional dialect of North Mexican Spanish. But these dialects are enough different that we cannot afford to ignore their differences, whether we are teaching a more formal or mainstream dialect of Spanish or whether we are teaching English.

To illustrate the relevance of these differences with a single example, the phoneme represented in Spanish orthography by *ch* may in some areas have as its phonetic norm [š], the initial sound of *ship*, while in other areas the phonetic norm may be [č], the initial sound of *chip*. In still other areas, [č] may occur after pause or a preceding consonant and [š] everywhere else. In teaching Spanish, if the pattern used locally should have less prestige than one of the other patterns, the teacher should attempt to guide the student toward a habitual use of the more prestigious pattern. In teaching English, the teacher needs to know which of the patterns is in use among her students (even individuals in the same class may differ) in order to arrange and sequence the examples used to contrast the two sounds. Obviously if [š] is the norm of pronunciation, it is [č] which must be introduced and contrasted. If the dialect uses [č] and [š] in different positions, then the program for teaching the /č/:/š/ contrast in English must be modified accordingly.

Those who are teaching the Navajo in New Mexico and Arizona must know also that there are different dialects of Navajo, and that these likewise need to be taken into account in teaching.

Another point which deserves mention because it is so often ignored is that in teaching either a second language or a second dialect, we need to know what syntactic patterns are or *are not* in the repertory of the speaker at different age levels. Thus, for example, we have found that some first-grade Spanish speakers—whether as a development or dialectal feature we are not sure—do not have the inflected verb form for expressing futurity (Infinitive + Suffix, e.g., *cantar-é*, “I will sing”), but instead use only the construction *ir a + Infinitive*, comparable to the English “be going to” future: *voy a cantar*, “I am going to sing.” Materials designed either for teaching a more “standard” dialect of Spanish or for teaching English to Spanish-speaking children at this level should certainly take such matters into account. A prime need today is for more detailed studies of the structures present or lacking in the grammar of first graders of various dialect and language backgrounds. It is patently absurd as well as frustrating to the learner to base reading lessons or classroom questions on structures which the child does not yet understand or which are absent from the dialect.

Speaking as an anthropologist, I should also like to emphasize the cultural and social dimensions of language learning as they affect the disadvantaged child. I think it is important that at all times we show respect for the language the child brings to school, whether it be a language which differs altogether from that of the school or a dialect which differs in only a few points of phonology and morphology from that which serves as the medium of instruction. Whatever the child’s language, he has worked it out for himself—and it is a marvelous intellectual achievement—as an adaptive mechanism for communication within a specific social and cultural environment. When he enters school, he comes in contact for the first time with a new subculture, or a totally new culture in many instances, and has to undergo rapid and sometimes traumatic acculturation, often with little guidance. But while some of the features of the child’s native culture may be accepted or at least tolerated in the school, he often finds his language, that adaptive instrument that has served him so well in his own environment, suddenly and inexplicably brought under direct attack. Even where he escapes this fate, he may discover that his linguistic skills do not serve him adequately in meeting the demands of the new environment, and so, baffled and frustrated, he may withdraw or rechannel his energies, and cease to try.

Learning the language of a society which is outside the immediate ken of the disadvantaged child cannot be left to chance. We must structure the child’s experience with the new language or dialect in such a way as to optimize his chances for internalizing it, and then make sure that sufficient opportunity is provided for intensive practice in the new patterns so that they can become fixed and automatic. Since his language is one of the most important tools the child has for adapting to the demands of the new cul-

tural environment, it is imperative that he be provided with this tool as rapidly as possible. "Nothing succeeds like success" is a two-sided coin, and the child's whole attitude toward academic achievement will often be fixed before he leaves the first grade.

To return to the point made at the beginning of this paper, *receptive* knowledge of another language or another dialect can be imparted much more speedily and more efficiently than can productive control of that language or dialect. Once receptive knowledge has been developed, it can be used as the basis for a more efficient and effective program for developing productive control. I am strongly persuaded that the only way we can hope to develop this receptive capacity with the speed and efficiency that is needed is through the use of appropriate motivational materials—in which I would particularly include tape-recorded materials—and organized structural drill, within a carefully worked out program which combines instruction in the native and target languages in an integral whole rather than in separate-but-parallel sequences. Further, we should not wait until the child is six to begin that training, for by then he will have lost the four most crucial years in the language-learning process, but rather we should start working with children at the ages of two and three, in order to help them achieve the fullest development of their linguistic capabilities. When we realize that most academic casualties are made before the first grade, we can't afford to wait. There is no time to lose.

Priorities in Instituting the Teaching of English As a Second Language in a Southwest Texas School

Robbie Choate Cooksey

This is the history of a small step one Texas school took toward better education for Latin-American students who had been denied the equality of opportunity which is America's traditional promise. This simple story is told for the encouragement of other schools which must begin their journeys to educational equality at the same point. For this one began, as theirs must, from a point of almost total disregard of the second-language problems of a ninety percent Spanish-speaking student body in a district which at that time was still using instructional methods and texts identical to those of schools whose total school population were native speakers of English. It is possible that taking the first small step required more determination and singlehearted effort than will many of the miles yet to go.

To understand the sequence of steps taken, one must know the local conditions which dictated priorities. The following are elements of the local situation as I saw them after I had been in the district as supervisor for two years.

The teachers were not trained in second-language teaching. Faculty members laid the blame for the poor academic progress of Spanish-speaking students at the doors of their parents: "They'll never learn to speak English if they don't speak it at home!" This frequently-voiced suggestion for solving the language problem, offered with a straight face, registered a lack of training, an unawareness of the nature of language, and a necessary hardening of the heart toward the plight of the children. Hardening was necessary if a teacher was to return day after day to a defeating classroom.

As in many schools of this area, the faculty was marked by its number of non-degree teachers, its many teaching outside their fields of training, its many who had had no fresh college training for ten, fifteen, or twenty years, and its large annual turn-over in staff. One or two teachers held membership in professional organizations other than the Texas State Teachers Association and the Classroom Teachers Association, both of which must be classified, on the local level, as being essentially politically-oriented rather than curriculum-directed bodies. When I first came to the district, there was no local supervision and no inservice training program. The word was *laissez faire*, i.e., indifference coupled with and encouraged by administrative non-interference which both reflected and reinforced the prejudice existing between the socially and economically dominant Anglo minority

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and the Spanish-speaking majority. Truth, even when moderated by compassion, realistically spotlights these conditions of six years ago.

School statistics, compiled in the fall of 1965, reveal the damage done by language deficiencies, educational deprivation, and poverty—a syndrome of disability which seemed destined to perpetuate itself endlessly.

**SYSTEM-WIDE DATA ON EDUCATIONAL DISABILITIES
SHOWN IN PERCENTAGES BY GRADES**

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Over-Age</i>	<i>Below Grade</i>	<i>Inadequate in English</i>	<i>Spanish-Speaking</i>
1	40%	13%	95%	96%
2	56%	35%	88%	95%
3	64%	48%	88%	94%
4	66%	45%	84%	92%
5	74%	59%	64%	91%
6	69%	60%	88%	94%
7	73%	71%	45%	91%
8	66%	63%	57%	88%
9	65%	39%	52%	86%
10	67%	45%	62%	85%
11	54%	28%	52%	77%
12	60%	64%	60%	75%

Grade—Current Grade Assignment

Over-Age—Percentage of children one year or more older than normal for assigned grade

Below Grade—Percentage of children testing one year or more below the assigned grade level in all English language skills

Inadequate in English—Percentage of children with deficiencies in English language skills so marked as to handicap their participation in class

Spanish-Speaking—Percentage of native speakers of Spanish

Such disturbing statistics, translated into the living faces of boys and girls defeated by their world, demanded action. Yet, there had to be first a very great desire to salvage the Latin-American child. There had to be a desire great enough to reckon the cost of, and be willing to pay for, possible failure; schools in this tip of Texas are frequently the battleground for local political factions, and roots of bitter factionalism feed on the differences in culture and language. Because of that climate, school personnel who wish to remain in the district appear indifferent to local inequities while wearing the protective coloring of the dominant faction.

Realistic willingness to try for change was the first necessity. Following two years of probing into the depths of local failure, desire to effect change hardened into determination on my part as supervisor. Together with determination was the disturbing certainty of my inadequacy. Searching for possibilities of bringing education to our children, I began an intensive study of second-language teaching with a book salesman's gift copy of Nelson Brooks' *Language and Language Learning*.¹ References in Brooks led to other books; their footnotes and bibliographies led to others, and

¹ (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1960.)

challenging possibilities began to appear. Without formal training or guide, my search was without plan; and, while persistent, it was not unlike the burrowing of a gopher crisscrossing his tunnels in the dark. The search could have been easier, but it could not have been more exciting or rewarding. Since its beginning four years ago, many books have joined Nelson Brooks on my shelves; but the first three which were studied—perhaps a curious trio—are treasured: English Language Services' *English This Way*, Book 3,² Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures*,³ and the Boggs-Dixson *English Step by Step with Pictures*.⁴

While trying to learn the best theory and techniques of second-language teaching, I assessed the hazards of beginning a broad program of teaching English as a second language from preschool through grade twelve. My decision was that no program could get off the ground as long as the faculty maintained its defeatist attitude, complacency, and seeming contentment with a fourth-rate education for the Spanish-speaking child. Working under the assumption that the temporary defeat of the teachers was due in large part to lack of training and absence of challenge, I decided to begin an intensive teacher-training program, with changes in attitude as its first goal. I believed there could be no better way to initiate change in teacher attitude than to involve them in the joy of language discovery. In training meetings, I forced teachers to take their own language out of its category of unconscious habit. As they explored its complexity, rigidity, and flexibility, they gained respect for the grip it has on the user because of habit. The speech of five-year-olds demonstrated how native language is learned, as well as the firm grasp the child may have of both structure and sound before he attains school age. Specific structural patterns in English and Spanish were contrasted, using as illustrations errors heard daily in the school halls or encountered repeatedly in student compositions:

This peoples have move.
He appreciated me to help him.
He didn't had some pencils, too.
Does she lives here?
You like to study, isn't it?
My father was content of the work.
Bill asked whether can the old cars start.
The govern was sick all more for a year.

As teachers realized the reasons for a Spanish-speaker's making errors similar to these, they grew in tolerance; and the old solution, "They just need to speak English at home," was heard less frequently. The idea was emerging that language cannot be originated out of simple desire to communicate and that one can produce only what one has been taught.

² (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963.)

³ (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1967.)

⁴ (New York: Latin American Institute Press, 1956.)

During the year and a half since this effort was begun, inservice training has remained the heart of the program. It has never been a sophisticated type of inservice with "name" speakers or university teams imported as trainers. That was not possible. It has been, simply, that as I learned, I taught. A prompt transfer of learning was attempted, usually in small group meetings by levels—primary, intermediate, or secondary—in an effort to give each what seemed immediately useful in both theory and methods. Also, as quickly as possible, the best of instructional materials and equipment was purchased, and a materials-and-training center was established where teachers could become acquainted with both before their placement in the classrooms.

Almost immediately following the earliest training, secondary language arts teachers began using tape recorders and headphones with commercially prepared tapes for English as a second language, intermediate teachers began using oral drills from *English This Way*, and primary teachers taught non-English-speaking five-year-olds for ninety minutes after school each day. The after-school classes were necessary because there was neither space nor teachers to hold classes during the regular day. Extended exposure to spoken English was provided in our community by showing free at night, during the regular term and in summer, standard movies in English rented for that purpose.

It would be foolish to state that all teachers applauded this program, all learned what was presented in inservice meetings, all tried new language techniques in their classes, all dropped cherished superiority illusions and displayed new warm regard for the Spanish-speaker and his culture. It would be equally incorrect to state that the program of teaching English as a second language did not lift off the ground. After the first year's four-month effort, response on the part of alert intellectual leaders and the faculty was encouragement enough to validate another year of training and trial.

As in the first four months, inservice training gave direction, cohesion, thrust, and heart to the effort, even as it expanded the teachers' understanding of second-language teaching. Phases of language theory and methods which were covered in this training included the intimate relationship between a culture and its language; a limited contrastive analysis of the sound, structure, and vocabulary systems of the two languages; oral drill techniques with practice and suggestions for their use in class, including methods for a judicious control of student origination of utterances beyond their point of training; some ideas for adapting to the needs of second-language learners the texts provided by the State, with emphasis on preparing sound and structure drills from selections in those texts; and good sequencing of the introduction of new structural elements. This last was particularly difficult for teachers to grasp because of the brevity of their training and the great gulps of new information they were force-fed in haste. Sequencing information offered the teachers was that which I obtained in a step-by-step comparison of the order in which new structures are introduced

in five currently available texts for students of English as a second language. Much of the success of this inservice program has to be credited to the new receptivity of most teachers, their continuing spirit of willingness, and their high interest. Of help also was the feeling abroad that our small district led this area in beginning to break through the second-language barrier to education, that it alone was definitely training teachers in second-language teaching, and that it had the only K-12 second-language program in the area.

Some success was measured in the classrooms. Administering locally-prepared tests of oral language proficiency to all students in grades four through twelve proved that we needed more skill in making tests. However, they also seemed to provide enough valid results to justify our selecting some specific structures as instructional goals for grades four through six. After ninety-six days of instruction directed at these goals, our post-tests indicated that the pre-test disability of 85% had been cut to 31%. Informal teacher evaluation of the effectiveness of the entire program has been encouraging. The most obvious affirmative result, in my opinion, has been the disappearance of much of the attitude of complacency and defeatism, and replacement by fresh-blowing winds of enthusiasm, enterprise, and expectancy. Many successes seem suddenly possible and surely are possible any time an intelligent corps of teachers is informed and challenged.

Witness to the new spirit is an attempt by secondary English language arts teachers to write a curriculum guide which will actually try to reach each student at his exact level of language ability and bring him forward along the full continuum of language skills to a point of proficiency commensurate with his native ability. No one can fully appreciate the terrifying difficulties of writing such a guide if he has not had to try teaching English to the conglomeration of extreme language abilities and disabilities confronting the teacher of our secondary classes. At present, it seems that the guide will be as fresh and novel as is the effort. For there are no guides available to copy—none, that is, which provides guidance for teachers who have in one class students ranging from the completely non-English-speaking to native speakers of English whose proficiency with their language is far above that of their assigned grade level. That local teachers see the need for such a realistic guide, and will attempt to develop one, is indication that change is already inside the door.

In review, the priorities for instituting a program to teach English as a second language in this school were the priorities necessitated by the local social-political climate, the mood and competency level of the faculty, and the lack of language training on the part of the one instructional supervisor. Such local restrictions dictated this order of needs: (1) leadership concern so great as to sustain the effort of self-training and to reckon the need worth y of the risk involved in attempting a vigorous school-wide program; (2) training and challenge for the teachers; (3) selection and procurement of the best materials and equipment; (4) decision as to extent of the attack, i.e., how many students to teach and in what grades; (5) testing for dis-

ability, selecting objectives, teaching for change, and post-testing; (6) re-appraisal of methods, materials, and inservice training; (7) maintenance of the high level of interest and effort necessary for a continuation of the program. If this last need can be met, despite the loss of key supervisory personnel and the influx of untrained new teachers, there is a possibility for full two-language competency for Latin-American students in this school and for their scholastic achievement in other fields—an achievement which has had to wait upon language development.

If the effort can be maintained, such success is possible. There remain, however, dangers to success in this tip of Texas. There is danger in a rejection of personnel whose vision and drive forced a beginning. There is danger in a re-ascendancy of those on the school board who see in power the promise of return to the “Old South” idyll of a decade ago when Anglos, fat in their egos and bank accounts, sat comfortably on the stooped back of uneducated Latin poverty, whose fourth-rate education was guaranteed by prejudicial policies. There is danger in the Spanish-speaking citizen, with attention and energies totally engaged by his own rising expectations, permitting the replacement of concerned and aggressive educator-administrators by political administrators. There is a peculiar danger in the re-appearance of the administrative lullaby of *laissez faire*. In the heat-soaked lethargy of the Southwest that song, like the high-frequency incessancy of cicadas in the mesquite trees, drugs the mind and dulls the heart's resolve.

One reality forced itself to the front during the length of the program. It is the reality which prompted my writing of this account—the truth that a full solution, even to its own language problem, cannot be made by any one school district. The extreme mobility of school populations in this area of winter homes for migrant farm workers and the culture-language cohesion of the Latin-American people make necessary a coordinated, systematic area-wide attack, rising out of each local school. For one school to give realistic attention to the language needs of four levels of disability in its secondary English classes is good; but it is not enough. For one school to admit the inadequate training of its faculty and attempt to make up the deficit by specialized inservice programs is good; but it is not enough. Pupils move; teachers move. What is needed is not ideas endlessly discussed in area meetings, nor small spot experiments in scattered classrooms, but an admission that second-language teaching has been done effectively overseas for many years. For students who are here today and in the fields tomorrow is the answer high-level conferences carried on with detached placidity? Or regional elbowing for grants and promise of publicity while the season runs out in the classrooms? The thousands of students pouring out of our schools year after year, fully equipped for failure, demand the immediate bold implantation of established second-language techniques into classrooms manned by trained teachers, even if those teachers must be trained on the job and as they perform the job. This has been done in nations overseas who have seen their need. Why cannot it be done here?

Role Conflict in Native Communication*

Lee H. Salisbury

Those of us who are involved in native education in Alaska are in many ways more fortunate than many of you in this audience who may be concerned with teaching English to the Amerindian groups in the lower forty-eight states and Canada. I am afraid that our good fortune is not because we have pursued a more enlightened course of action with the native peoples in Alaska since the time of contact, but rather because the peoples with whom we work first met white people in quite a different way. One striking difference is the fact that Alaska was never invaded by white people anxious to exploit the land and resources as was the case in Canada and the lower forty-eight states. Alaska's native peoples do not regard themselves as a defeated race. No treaties were signed or broken. The native peoples of Alaska do not have a long, bitter, blood-stained history to look back upon and to brood about.

When the white man first came to Alaska it was in very small numbers, and the native people and their valuable knowledge of the terrain and survival techniques were highly valued by those who chose to remain in the North. The land, particularly in the northern part of our vast state, was valueless for pasture, timber, or grazing. The minerals that the white man dug from the ground did not interfere with the native's traditional subsistence pursuits. The inhospitability of the arctic environment had bred a race of people whose primary cultural aim was survival, and, being a pragmatic people, they accepted and adopted with great enthusiasm Western innovations such as the outboard motor, the automatic rifle, and the fish wheel, all of which provided more effective and economical means of subsistence. There is little feeling that acceptance of the white man's conveniences represented a dangerous erosion of their traditional culture.

As a consequence, the native culture, that of the northern Indians and Eskimos of Alaska, is today a kind of potpourri of traditional ways and Western conveniences. There are very few outposts in Alaska where the impact of the white man's technology is not immediately evident. The peoples of the northern interior area of Alaska were traditionally nomadic, following game and fish from season to season. Although the interior of Alaska is dotted with hundreds of small Indian and Eskimo villages, the majority of these settlements came into being as a result of the advent of the white man and his economy. Small villages were established up and down the waterways of Alaska to provide food and fuel for the riverboats which plied these waterways with miners and mining equipment. Ironically, many of these villages have far less contact with the white man's culture

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today than they enjoyed a generation ago when gold mining and the river-boat traffic was at its height. As a consequence, many of these small communities which were rather far along the road to acculturation many years ago have slipped back into their traditional pattern now that the white man has disappeared.

The native today, in Alaska, faces tremendous problems in the cash economy society which has all but replaced the traditional subsistence economy of past years. An Alaskan economist recently estimated that if all of the present economic ventures in the northern part of Alaska come to fruition—these include mining and oil lease properties—that the total number of jobs made available by these ventures will amount to only 169 positions each year. When we consider that the Alaska native enters the labor force at a rate of 200 per year, that he constitutes 30% of the permanent population, and that his birthrate exceeds that of any other group in the world, it is painfully apparent that he must seek education and training to fit him for positions in the urban structure of Western society if he is to survive. Many of the students who come to our university from small native villages realize that education represents the only alternative to the despair and poverty and welfare checks which represent village life today. These students realize that in a very real sense they are learning new techniques of survival to fit them for the society in which they must find a place.

Unlike many of the Indian groups in Canada and the lower forty-eight states, the Indians and Eskimos of Alaska, for the most part, are not resentful of the acculturation process which this transition demands. They are, quite justifiably, unhappy when Western education as it is presently offered on the village level does not seem to equip their children for the world when they leave school. Many of the recently formed natives' rights associations in the state see education as one of the most important native social issues. Unlike many of the Indian groups in Canada, our native people do not consider the word *integration* to be a dirty word, perhaps because integration has never been forced upon them. They quite readily acknowledge that native students who are educated in urban Alaskan schools are more likely to succeed in Western terms.

Essentially, our prime educational aim in Alaska is to help the native to become an autonomous, productive member of the larger society which he is entering. I suppose this is to a certain extent the aim of all teachers who are teaching English as a second language. We are teaching them the culture that our language expresses at the same time that we teach the code itself. Looking at this problem as an anthropologist might, for a moment, we can regard all education, whether formal or informal, as a process of enculturation, the means by which the group teaches its young how to become productive, happy adult members of their own society. This enculturation process is tremendously challenging even among the young who are born into our Western cultural framework, because we live in an age where technological advances make yesterday's learning obsolete, but this problem is confounded when the group we try to teach about our culture

comes from another culture which does not share our Western conceptual base. Teaching in this context goes beyond teaching vocabulary and techniques, and must also include the conceptual framework upon which our language rests.

Education, whether formal or informal, has always been an adult responsibility. The older teach the younger members of the society how to become adults. It is unlikely that this tradition will ever change, but the roles which education thrusts upon the teacher and the student present severe problems when the student is a member of a cultural group which is considered by the teacher's cultural group to be primitive. It is very easy to regard any cultural group which has no written language, survives on a subsistence economy, and lives in virtual isolation as primitive, and hence, childlike. It is also easy to regard the process of learning English as the process of maturing from a childlike to an adult status. Ironically, many of the native people who know English rather imperfectly are regarded as adults in their own culture and as children in ours. This attitude, of course, is destructive and demeaning, and will postpone inevitably the acceptance of these people into our society as first-class citizens.

The Alaska native child within his culture is treated (from a very early age) in a more adult fashion than children in *our* culture are. His own thoughts and opinions are regarded to be inviolable and sacred. Indeed, there is more regard for the differences of an individual in their culture than there is in our own. However, when the native child learns English from a teacher who not only regards him as a child, but regards his parents to be children as well, he cannot help but feel that the role of the child is strictly connected with the use of this language. His parents have learned what they know of English in a dependency role. It is a code they have learned and used with people in authority: missionaries, teachers, construction foremen, etc., and until fairly recently, these people in authority have regarded their role to be parental. It is not surprising then when a VISTA worker comes into an Alaskan village hoping to establish an adult-to-adult communication relationship with a village member, for him to discover that the village adult finds this new role to be completely incomprehensible and rather threatening. Although the childlike role is demeaning, it can be comfortable in a welfare state. It makes few demands on the person.

Another problem which the teacher must deal with is the student's attitude toward the communication process, generally—whether speaking or writing. As we are all aware, there is no written tradition among the Alaskan Indians or Eskimos. The vast cultural heritage of these people has been transmitted by oral means, chiefly through stories and dances and games. Whereas a child in the Western culture is taught to behave in a socially acceptable fashion by admonition—"Thou shalt not . . ."—or verbal manipulation—by rewards and sometimes bribes—or by corporal means when all else fails, in the culture of the Alaska native these means of influencing behavior are unknown. A child is educated by example. He receives a cooperative orientation toward the life in his society. He watches his elders and

his neighbors carefully, and he learns from them. He is never consciously "taught." He learns the attitudes and values of his culture through stories which are often allegorical. In the Knife stories played with a stick in the damp mud of the Lower Kuskokwim River, a child learns that a very bad thing happened to a little girl at one time who didn't listen to her grandmother. Perhaps the most cruel punishment that can be inflicted upon any member of a tightly knit subsistence group by his peers is that of ostracism, of symbolically murdering the individual by refusing to recognize his existence for varying periods of time.

Oral communication is important for the maintenance of day to day transactions in village life, but it is not regarded as a means of manipulating the environment. Children in our culture quickly come to realize that their language is a means of influencing the behavior of others and making their way in the world. It is almost regarded by some people to be a means of defending oneself against a hostile environment. This attitude toward what our language is capable of doing contrasts sharply with the way in which the Alaska native uses his language. Conforming to social norms is important in any society, but conformity in the Alaska native environment is achieved through rather oblique means (when judged by our standards). We have proverbs and adages and epigrams, but they are likely to be direct statements of how a human being should or should not behave. The Alaska native in his cultural context would regard such proverbs to be rather aggressive and insulting.

Our society places a great premium upon the conflict of ideas. It is in the crucible of disagreement, we feel, that the truth is found. In the highly cooperative and closely knit Alaska native milieu, conflict is to be avoided at all costs. Aggressions are not manifested openly, but rather internalized. From the point of view of our modern psychologists, this internalization of conflicts, anxieties, and aggressions is destructive to the human personality, but it is a crucially important means of retaining the cohesiveness which the Alaska native culture demands. The greatest enemy in the north is not your neighbor but the cruel physical environment in which you live. It is more important to survive than to be right. Many lawyers and judges who are asked to enforce white man's law in native communities have found the concept of "individual truth" which the native possesses to be quite unique. For example, we place great credence in eyewitnesses to an antisocial act, and a person may be convicted of a crime on the testimony of an unimpeachable witness. The Alaska native, on the other hand, knows that each individual perceives truth in his own unique fashion. Hence, no two people can ever agree as to what really occurs in any given situation. This is somewhat frustrating to our legal establishment which must often regard certain acts to be either right or wrong. It is with considerable delight then that native students who read Hayakawa discover that the study of semantics embodies a philosophy which has been an integral part of their own cultures for thousands of years.

In fact, many of the newer, more revolutionary attitudes toward education are not as innovative as we think. Marshal McLuhan's revelation that many of the ills of modern education are caused by the conflict between the multi-directional education which the child receives up until the time he goes to school and the linear type of learning which is thrust upon him when he enters the classroom situation certainly applies to the Alaska native education scene. In many respects the native child who leaves a non-literate culture and enters the Western educational track faces the same conflicts as does the TV-educated Western pre-schooler. He, too, has not learned things in a formal way. He, too, has been bombarded on all sides by experiences which he has learned to interpret and to make a part of himself. As one native student pointed out, "We have been educated in the McLuhan manner since the dawn of history. What's so great about written language anyhow?" We must admit that many of the world's people have survived just as long as we have without it.

We have learned many important concepts in our last four years' experience with entering native college students in the College Orientation Program for Alaskan natives (COPAN) which would certainly seem to apply to teaching generally. Education, if it is to be successful, cannot be regarded as a one-way process. The teacher and the student should not have sharply differentiated roles, because each can learn from the other. It is only when the student realizes that his contributions are valuable and unique that education becomes a meaningful and exhilarating process which continues far beyond the bounds of the classroom.

The final problem which each teacher of native students must recognize is that each of his students is seeking his own individual sense of identity. When the teacher ceases to regard himself as the dispenser of "truth" and places himself in the learning role, the student comes to view his own culture as a worthy one which has a status and importance among the cultures of the world. When he loses the feelings of inferiority which ignorant teachers all too unconsciously foster by ignoring his background, he can then *accept* himself and see himself not as a member of a particular race or cultural group, but as a unique individual with something special to offer the world around him. The Western world, then, does not represent the adult world, nor does his original culture represent the childlike, primitive world. Each society has its own unique set of values and traditions and he can choose the desirable elements from both cultures. Then he is not faced with the dilemma which confronts many members of the non-white races who are made to feel that they must choose whether they are to be white or native. Obviously, the choice is an artificial one, but it can seem a very real one to the native student who has come to feel that the culture of his parents is undesirable and inferior. When the Indian and Eskimo learns to speak English in an adult role—with the feelings of security and dignity which accompany it—he will be able to escape his present role of crippling dependency.

In summary, we can agree that the purpose of education, whether for-

mal or informal, is to help the individual to develop into a responsible, productive member of the particular society in which he chooses to live. We must also recognize that the role of the teacher, although historically construed to be that of the adult teaching the child, presents pitfalls when the student consciously or unconsciously concludes that the culture which the teacher represents is also the superior or "adult" one. When the teacher realizes that each of his students has a unique contribution to make to the world and *each of his students comes to recognize this himself*, then the learning process has meaning.

Teaching English to the Indian of the Plains and the Northwest

Mary Rita Miller

The thirty-six participants at the NDEA Institute in English for speakers of other languages at the University of Montana in the summer of 1967 came from eight states in the western United States, and for many of them it was their first contact with ESOL. Indeed, some had never heard of ESOL prior to the winter of 1966-67 when the institute announcement came to their attention, and two had had any previous training in this field. Together they taught children from sixteen Indian tribes, ranging from Navajo, where many children come to school knowing no English, to Salish and Kutenai, where most children speak English when they begin school.

All the participants were closely involved in the problem of Indian education. By definition a participant in this institute came from a school where at least 20% of the enrollment was Indian. Some came from schools where the enrollment was 100% Indian. The percentage of Indian enrollment and the question of who is Indian and who is not, however, is blurred by the fact of considerable intermarriage with whites in some areas, and differing criteria for determining Indian and non-Indian status. According to the best estimate available, eleven participants came from schools where the enrollment of Indian children ranged from 25-50%; five came from schools where the Indian enrollment varied from 51-94%; but the vast majority (twenty participants) had an Indian enrollment of 95-100% in their schools. Schools sending teachers to the institute were public, private, and Bureau of Indian Affairs schools. As might be expected, the BIA schools had the highest percentages of Indian children enrolled, six of them with 100% Indian enrollment. Four of these all-Indian schools enrolled Navajo children, one enrolled Navajo and Apache children, and the sixth school enrolled Sioux children. A BIA school in North Dakota had the lowest Indian enrollment, with an estimated 87% of its enrollees being Indian.

Three teachers represented two private schools. One of these schools was in Idaho and 98% of its enrollment was Indian. The other school, in Montana, was an all-Indian school. While it might be anticipated that most Indian children attended BIA or private mission schools, one public school in Idaho enrolled 98% Indian children, and another in Washington was 97% Indian. In Montana it was particularly interesting to note that six participants came from public schools where Indian enrollment exceeded 95%, and another Montana school was 80% Indian. These figures regarding enrollment percentages, as well as all other such figures in the report, must be viewed as approximate, as each participant was asked to estimate not only the percentage of Indian children attending his school without recourse to

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any supporting figures, but also to estimate a considerable variety of other things on which he was only partially prepared to pass expert judgment. In addition, all figures are based not on a single, individual judgment, admittedly not professional nor substantiated, but on thirty-six such personal judgments. The results were consolidated and an effort made to bring some meaningful order to the statistics.

The participants were next asked to categorize their students according to whether they spoke standard English, non-standard English, or little or no English. Since the school systems represented did not offer kindergarten, most children did not begin school until the age of six or seven, or sometimes later. It was therefore assumed that the oral language structure of these students was developed pretty much to the state of other speakers in the home or neighborhood. The participating teachers were asked to apply these categories to the children when they first began school. While all the teachers taught elementary school children (first through sixth), and all administrators administered elementary schools, some of them were not in really intimate contact with first graders, and again it was necessary to estimate not only each student's status at the earliest level of his education but also the dividing points between standard English and non-standard English on the one hand, and the difference between speaking some English and not speaking it on the other. Some effort was expended in attempting to formalize the guidelines for each category, but for all this, the results are still very approximate. There are two reasons for this, both of linguistic interest. The first has to do with the teacher's standards of oral speech plus something which might be called the degree of teacher permissiveness.

The second reason is that most teachers, without realizing it, sought only to perceive the message conveyed by the linguistic signal without any attention to the structure of the linguistic signal itself. Since most teachers were oriented toward acceptable norms in reading and writing only, they were quite unaware of the speech of their students. Thus many of them struggled in the classroom to teach passable written expression, which is only a representation of language, while they remained deaf to the oral expression which is the language itself. The question of language proficiency was further complicated by the fact that some participants felt that a fourth category was needed, along with standard English, non-standard English, and no English. Some students attending their schools spoke standard English, but their chances for academic success had been prejudiced by a variety of socio-economic conditions which resulted in a lack of meaningful experiences, concepts, and the language needed to express them. Children in this category lacked both linguistic and non-linguistic experiences expected in a "normal" first-grader. They especially lacked adequate vocabulary.

With the establishment of four categories, every participant felt that he could classify every student in one of the four classes, and estimates were accordingly made. In the twenty schools where the enrollment was 95-100% Indian, teachers felt that no more than 20% of the children spoke standard English. This means that the other 80% in each school spoke no English,

spoke non-standard English, or were severely disadvantaged language-wise when they enrolled in school. Where the Indian enrollment was 51-94%, the total number of beginners lacking standard English closely paralleled the number of Indian children enrolled. For example, in one school where 50% spoke no English when they entered school, and 35% spoke non-standard English, the total Indian enrollment was 90%. In another school, where 10-15% spoke no English when they entered school, and 70-80% spoke non-standard English, the total Indian enrollment in that school was 87%. In a third school 80% of the children spoke non-standard English and the Indian enrollment was also estimated at 80%.

Of course it cannot be determined, in spite of the seeming correspondence of percentages, whether the children who did not speak standard English were in fact all Indian children. In some schools, where the percentage of speakers of standard dialect was considerably less than the total Indian enrollment, it is clear that the problem of spoken English in these communities is not confined to Indians. These figures tend to suggest the lamentable conclusion that the many children who attend our schools to learn English only succeed in learning a non-standard variety, or in preserving it if they arrive speaking non-standard English. The figures are all the more damning when we realize that some of these evaluations were undoubtedly made, not of first graders, but of fifth and sixth graders. It seems natural that teachers of the upper grades would be influenced in their evaluation of beginners at their schools by conditions in their own classrooms. It appears that large numbers of children in certain areas attend school without ever learning standard English, and because this complicates and all but destroys academic accomplishment, when they have complied with the minimum requirements of the law, they drop out.

Even allowing for a considerable margin of error, there was nevertheless general agreement that large numbers of students do not know or learn standard English in the lower grades. According to the participants, in only six schools among the entire number represented did 50% or more of the students speak standard English. For example, in one school where the enrollment was 20-25% Indian, only 25% spoke standard English. In another school, the Indian enrollment was 30% but only 20% of the student body spoke standard English.

The participants were also asked whether or not they had an oral language period. Four reported no oral language period at all. Of those who had an oral language period, the time varied from five or ten minutes daily to as much as one hour daily. However, indications are that these periods were sometimes catch-alls for many and varied activities, some not connected with oral language, others only incidentally connected with it. The "show and tell" period, storytime, reading, spelling, and vocabulary drills were typical activities during the oral language period. In other areas, notably in BIA schools in Navajo country, the oral language period was well utilized with carefully planned and supervised lessons in English as a second language. Participants from these schools who had had no previous formal train-

ing in ESOL methods and subject matter had sometimes remedied their lack of training with considerable outside reading. This small but challenging group promoted some of the most rewarding moments in the institute. Still other teachers were not aware of an oral language problem and were totally ignorant of its obvious connection with poor achievement in other areas, especially reading.

The participants were next asked to comment on the motivation of their students, an elusive quality to evaluate, and perhaps one even more difficult to deal with objectively. Comments varied from "wildly enthusiastic" to "reluctant," with special teachers and reading specialists bearing the brunt of the indifference. It was also noted that the degree of enthusiasm generally subsided as the grade went up, so that most first grade teachers reported high motivation, and most fifth and sixth grade teachers reported poor motivation. Subsequent discussions in class which attempted to verify this trend toward growing tired of school and to assess possible reasons for it more than confirmed the preliminary conclusions. The typical Indian child was portrayed as interested and alight with curiosity when he began school. Unfortunately, this light is gradually extinguished, it appears, as he grows up, by largely unknown causes, until the Indian student in upper elementary school is best characterized as passive and "silent." Effective communication with him has often ceased, and education has stopped for all intents. It was suggested that the cause is partly cultural, for it is at this time that the child realizes that being Indian is different from being white. However, many also acknowledged that the Indian child in the upper grades cannot express his thoughts, which are rapidly becoming more complicated and sophisticated, and as a consequence he withdraws into silent linguistic frustration. In addition, he is a poor reader, misses a great deal of what is going on in the classroom, and thus has no feeling of accomplishment.

Teachers were asked to evaluate community attitudes on education. The comments of the participants regarding community interest in education were nearly as varied as those regarding student motivation, ranging from poor to excellent. Some of the more expressive comments were "timid," "dollar-conscious," or "positive." When asked to comment on administrative attitudes toward education, and particularly toward ESOL, similar comments were given, although it appeared that a great many administrators were enthusiastically behind ESOL training. One delightful participant described the attitude of her administrators as "over anxious," while participating principals and one superintendent participant said they looked with favor upon new materials and methods. While a few characterized administrative attitudes as frugal or conservative, in general teachers supported the policies of their administrators, and administrators the policies of their school boards.

Support for superiors, whether administrators or school boards, was further reinforced by the fact that no participant cited school policy as a major teaching problem. Poor attendance of students at school was a general complaint heard everywhere but at boarding schools, but more shocking were repeated complaints of no breakfast and little sleep for small children, as well

as other types of parental neglect. Differing values seemed related to the parental concept of education, and more specifically to irregular patterns of attendance, meals, and sleep. Teachers in general had little knowledge of Indian culture, and this was an important area of misunderstanding. For this reason, the anthropology course given in the institute was of special interest to participants, and all of them expressed appreciation of the new insights they had gained. While many participants listed non-linguistic problems as being the most thorny ones, twenty of the thirty-six mentioned problems which can be considered language connected. Specific mention was made by many of the lack of communication between teacher and student, of socially withdrawn and "silent" students, of the lack of student ability to speak or write English, of inattention and inability to comprehend what was going on in the classroom, of lack of interest, of poor self-expression, of inability to understand what they read even if they could pronounce the words, and of non-standard speech. Above all, teachers lamented the inability of their students to read.

While the silent, withdrawn child may have non-linguistic problems, in a bilingual setting it seems certain that some of these children are suffering from lack of proper tools to communicate. The fact that many of them speak only limited English after reaching the middle grades points to the fact that school, and reading in particular, must be almost incomprehensible exercise for them. Some drastic steps seem necessary to convert the eager Indian child who arrives at school knowing no English into the sixth grader with the versatility to make school a meaningful experience. It is first of all suggested that the quiet, orderly classroom must go. This should be replaced by a noisy, orderly classroom, filled with the sound of participating students. The noise should be the sound of English speech. A great deal of opportunity for speaking is necessary to learn a language well. This will require a new concept of classroom discipline, a great deal of understanding from administrators, and healthy nerves from everyone; but especially it will require teachers who know how to make effective use of oral language in teaching standard English. It will require cooperation from teachers of other disciplines, especially remedial reading, and the acknowledgment by all that children do not easily learn to read a dialect they cannot speak. Children who need remedial reading will begin with intensified remedial work in oral language. In addition, the teacher will give up the idea of monologue in the classroom. Instead, he will become an expert in eliciting natural replies and discussion somewhat longer and more complete than "yes" and "no."

The task is overwhelming, but it is also an exciting one. Most of all, it is of primary importance that all those children who have somehow failed to learn acceptable English in this country be given the opportunity to do so.

EDITOR'S NOTE:

The following article by A. Hood Roberts, describing ERIC (Educational Research Information Center) and its relation to TESOL, serves to introduce a new feature of *TESOL Quarterly*, a regular section devoted to reprinting abstracts from ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics of materials relevant to teachers of English to speakers of other languages. The first of such listings begins on page 205.

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***ERIC and Its Role in TESOL* ***

A. Hood Roberts

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is a nation-wide information service, funded and monitored by the U.S. Office of Education. It had its origin some two years ago when the Bureau of Research of the Office of Education, acutely aware of the lack of an effective information system in the field of education, decided to do something about it. The field of education was divided into subfields, and requests for proposals went out to a number of institutions known to be interested in these areas of concern. The proposals called for establishing a network of information clearinghouses, with each clearinghouse covering a certain field. Their basic objectives would be to collect, process, and disseminate information on significant literature in fields within their own scope. And so, on June 1, 1966, ERIC became a system when twelve clearinghouses began operation. Since then more clearinghouses have been added so that they now number eighteen with scopes ranging from "early childhood education" to "linguistics."

How does the ERIC system work? The documents collected by the clearinghouses are first evaluated for their relevance and educational value, and then are processed for either the national system or clearinghouse files only. "Processing" means that a one page résumé consisting of an abstract, indexing terms, and the necessary cataloging information is prepared for each document. Both abstracting and indexing follow strict rules established by the central ERIC office. Once so processed, the document and its résumé are forwarded to ERIC's electronic data-processing facilities where the résumé is stored on magnetic tape and the document itself is placed on micro-

* This paper was presented at the TESOL Convention, March 1968.

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fiche. The entire résumé is then listed in the U. S. Office of Education monthly publication *Research in Education*, which is available from the Government Printing Office at an annual subscription rate of \$11.00. From then on, anyone wishing to obtain a microfiche or hard copy of a document so listed may, for a fee, order them from ERIC Document Reproduction Service. In cases where the document is copyrighted and the author or publisher does not grant permission to have it reproduced, the résumé contains the information as to the status of the document's availability.

At the moment, the ERIC collection consists of approximately 6,000 documents. During the present year another 8,000 to 10,000 will be added. In addition to the abstracting and indexing service, ERIC clearinghouses publish hundreds of newsletters, bibliographies, state-of-the-art papers and monographs. Before 1969 an indexing service for hundreds of journals relevant to education will, hopefully, become a reality. And by 1970, ERIC central files will be accessible from remote points in the country by means of special telecommunication equipment. This means that the user will be able to interrogate the master file and receive an answer within minutes from a centrally located point within his region. By that time individual ERIC clearinghouses will also be connected with central processing facilities by means of remote keyboard devices. In addition, local clearinghouse files will also be stored centrally and thus increase the size of the data bank. All these developments will mean that readers will at long last be able to cope with the flood of new information that is being generated daily.

So much about the past, present, and future of the ERIC system. And now, I would like to tell you about the clearinghouse at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C. of which I am the director. Its official name is ERIC Clearinghouse of Linguistics and the Uncommonly Taught Languages, and its scope consists of four major components: (1) linguistics; (2) uncommonly taught languages—those other than French, German, Russian, Italian, and Spanish; (3) teaching standard English to speakers of non-standard dialects; and (4) teaching of English as a foreign or second language. This last component makes us an official, government-funded clearinghouse of all TESOL materials.

What can ERIC do for TESOL and its members? (1) The clearinghouse will attempt to organize and keep on file all significant documents of interest to the field of TESOL; (2) it will process all of the relevant documents and will place in the national ERIC system material deserving particular attention; (3) it will list titles of processed TESOL materials in its bulletin; (4) it will make available to interested persons one-page résumé of already processed documents; (5) it will commission occasional state-of-the-art papers and bibliographies; and (6) it will attempt to respond to those inquiries for which answers could not be found on the local or regional level.

Here I would like to emphasize that state or local (institution) sources should always be consulted first before turning to ERIC. I am sure you will understand that the answering of individual inquiries on a large scale would seriously undermine the pursuit of our primary mission, which is the process-

ing of documents and information analysis. However, once the ERIC information retrieval system is fully mechanized, inquiries will be handled routinely and will not interfere with regular clearinghouse operations.

As you can see, the benefits to the TESOL profession may be many. My use of the word "may" was not a slip of the tongue, but was deliberate. ERIC will do all of these things for TESOL, but only if individuals cooperate by sending in the material for information storage. In short, ERIC is placing at your disposal all of its facilities; however, its usefulness ultimately depends on you. The clearinghouse is interested in classroom material, formal and informal papers, theses, experimental studies, statistical studies, and articles. Ask yourself whether the document in question may be of some use or interest to someone else. If so, send it in, and we will make a decision about its relevancy.

Reviews

BEGINNING FLUENCY IN ENGLISH AS A NEW LANGUAGE (text material, film strips, and records). Laura Olsher and Robert D. Wilson (North Hollywood, California: Bomar Records, Inc., 1967).

New language-teaching problems, or problems newly recognized because of increased social awareness, necessitate new approaches. New approaches, accompanied by appropriate changes in methods and techniques, often generate developments in technology which meet the challenge by restructuring materials, often creating a new pedagogy of their own. *Beginning Fluency in English as a New Language* is the result of such a chain reaction.

Speaking generally, the teaching problem being addressed is the linguistically disadvantaged—the student who arrives at school with inappropriate or inadequate language experience to operate effectively in the school environment. More specifically, he might be a Spanish-speaking student of the Southwest who speaks English only ineffectively, if at all, but is required to carry out the major portion of his educational tasks in English.

The approach presented in this series (only one of several being tried throughout the U.S. and reported at various times at professional meetings and in the *TESOL Quarterly*) attempts to provide the student, in a relatively quiet environment, structured language experience in English significant to his age level. The aim is, of course, to provide aural-oral language practice to develop simple communication skills as rapidly as possible.

The pedagogy evolves both from the structuring of the linguistic content of the lessons (i.e., the patterns and vocabulary being introduced or reinforced) and from the combined use of recordings and film strips. Although the specific techniques employed in the series are not strikingly new—all or part having been used by creative teachers previously—they are combined in new ways with a high degree of professional sophistication and technical expertise.

The series includes five sets of two or three records (33 1/3 rpm), two or four film strips (approximately 40 frames each), a script, and a teacher's manual. The record typically presents a simple story involving a very few, easily identifiable characters. Record One, for example, is the traditional story *The Three Pigs* greatly simplified. It is accompanied by a film strip which illustrates the story.

Each recording of a single story is divided into four parts: repeat-confirm story, prosodic passage, original story, and participation story. The first lesson employs repetition of the sentence patterns read by the narrator on the recording as the film strip illustrates the story. Meanings of major vocabulary items are generally apparent from the pictures, and ample time is provided for students to look at the picture as well as repeat the sentences. Additional daily lessons, taking approximately one week per record, create in the child, according to the authors, an awareness of the processes basic to language: phrasing, transformation, and substitution.

Each new set of the series introduces sentence structures to be learned and provides additional practice in using the patterns previously introduced. Records One and Two, for example, introduce the following patterns:

1. Yes-No questions like *Is it a paper house?*
2. Affirmative and negative responses to such questions.
3. *Is* and *are*.
4. *He, she, it, and they*.
5. The use of *is* with *he, she, or it*.
6. The use of *are* with *they*.
7. *My, his, her, and their*.

Record Three adds:

1. Who questions like *Who's sitting on the chair?*
2. Responses to such questions.
3. The use of *is* and *are* with *-ing* verbs.

Sentence structures are largely framed within dialogue which is significant to the development of the story and is genuine communication for the characters in the story. The students are then led from simple repetition of phrases in the language to recognition of and responses to transformations of English sentences, and finally to active participation in dialogues with other individuals.

The materials combine the following important features of good language teaching:

1. The use of stories provides high motivation through pictures, voice characterization, and the drama of the situations. Children would be much interested in how the story is going to come out at the end. (I am personally pleased to hear a cultivated reader of English as opposed to the typical "man-on-the-street" reader frequently heard on language recordings.)
2. Meaning evolves largely from language context. Little time is spent drilling vocabulary, but repeated use of words in recognizable contexts gives the necessary practice.
3. The introduction of and practice of language patterns is highly structured. Only a few simple patterns are stressed.
4. The patterns are reinforced through additional language experience in which some items are new and others are comfortably familiar.

The handsomely-boxed series provides the harried classroom teacher with one effective attack on a complex teaching problem. But even more significant for the profession is the fact that the series symbolizes the increasing availability of the technology which, when combined with sound pedagogy, can help provide the additional experiences so essential to the self-development of the linguistically disadvantaged.

Our profession has a unique and vast challenge, for the experiences and skills we are expected to provide necessitate a reappraisal of our traditional

language-teaching attitudes, our whole pattern of educational practices, and an evaluation of the goals and achievements of our own culture as well as that of our students. If the various media in cooperation with the language-teaching profession respond to this urgent challenge, members of our society need no longer be restricted to inferior roles because of limited language ability.

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ENGLISH SOUNDS AND THEIR SPELLINGS: A Handbook for Teachers and Students. Robert L. Allen, Virginia French Allen, and Margaret Shute (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1966, 104 pp.).

The authors say that this handbook can be used "in different ways for different purposes in different kinds of classes for students of any age." They do not seem to be overstating the case.

In approach and format this is a departure from the usual book that introduces the sounds of English. One distinctive feature is that it establishes a systematic sequence for coordinating the teaching of sounds with the patterns of spelling. The vowel sounds are presented along with selected consonant sounds, to show how each sound or combination of sounds is usually spelled in English words. The presentation then proceeds gradually from regular spellings to irregular. This achieves a considerable degree of order, especially in the first few lessons, and should save the beginner from the feeling that all is hopeless confusion in English spelling. The goal is similar to that of *i/t/a*— that is, to give the student a sense of security. One difference is that while *i/t/a* tampers with the alphabet, in this system there is no interference with spelling.

The so-called "short" vowels, which are introduced first, are called the basic *sounds* of the vowels. The "long" vowels are called the *name sounds* because they are pronounced like the names of the letters which represent them. In general, the presentation of vowels and consonants is organized so that each new sound may be practiced in contrast with the sounds that have been taught in preceding lessons.

Another exceptional feature is that the book, avoiding the use of the conventional phonetic symbols, represents the vowel sounds by numbers. The No. 1 sound, for example, refers to the vowel sound in *but*. If, later, the teacher wishes to introduce a new word like *come*, with its irregular spelling, he simply places a small *1* under the *o* to indicate its sound. He also places a dot under the *e* to show that the *e* is silent. As the example indicates, words need not be rewritten in phonetic symbols to show their pronunciation. The authors believe that their number system (based upon a device originally used by Michael West) has the advantage of simplicity, frees the student from having to memorize a new set of symbols (some of which are easily confused with the symbols of the English alphabet itself), and is more

convenient for classroom drills and for correcting mispronunciations. A teacher may, for instance, elicit or correct a vowel sound by calling out its number from any part of the classroom and is not dependent upon the blackboard. A convincing rationale for using the number method is presented in "An Epilogue for Teachers and Phoneticians."

The format is both unusual and practical. In each of the 40 lessons, explanations and instructions appear in a series of steps on the left-hand page, and the actual practice material appears on the right-hand page. The left-hand page, which requires some English proficiency, is intended for the teacher in guiding the student through the practice material, which assumes that the reader knows no English. Each lesson offers practice in hearing, saying, reading, and writing words that contain the sounds and letter combinations featured in that lesson or in earlier lessons.

The authors suggest that the book may serve as a supplementary text or as a reference, that it may be used by teachers of standard English as a second dialect as well as by teachers of English as a second language, and that it may be used not only for beginners but also for review by students with "a fair working knowledge of English but with problems in pronunciation and spelling." The book is not intended for teaching vocabulary or structure. However, an appendix includes a picture accompanied by examples of oral exercises for practicing the sounds in short sentences and in simple dialogues related to the picture, and a list of words that the student can presumably read after finishing the lessons. The appendix also includes "A Guide to Handwriting."

Films, which show the production of the sounds through animated diagrams, have been prepared to accompany the text.

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ERIC-TESOL Document.

The following are TESOL documents which have been selected from those processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics and entered in the ERIC system. Articles from *TESOL Quarterly* or materials which have been reviewed in *TESOL Quarterly* have been omitted.

Where indicated, hard copies (HC) and microfiche (MF) of the full text are available through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, The National Cash Register Company, 4936 Fairmont Avenue, Bethesda, Maryland, 20014. Copies of documents must be ordered by the individual ED numbers. Prices are given for microfiche (MF) and hard copy (HC). Payment must accompany orders totaling less than \$5.00. For orders totaling less than \$3.00, add \$.50 for handling. In the U.S. add sales tax as applicable. Foreign orders must be accompanied by a 25 percent service charge, calculated to the nearest cent.

ED 012 440 *English Language Teaching in Northern Nigeria, A Survey*. B. W. TIFFEN 51p. Jun 1966. M-F-\$0.09 HC-\$2.04.

This survey is an overview of English language instruction in Northern Nigeria from primary school to university. The introduction provides a brief description of the linguistic and general educational background of the country. Following chapters deal with the primary school, postprimary work, the secondary school, the teachers training college, Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria, and current experiments and future needs. Specific mention is made of the "Straight for English" and "Total English" courses as well as the Grieve Report and its effects on the English teaching situation.

ED 012 458 *Ananse Tales, A Course in Controlled Composition*. GERALD DYKSTRA AND OTHERS. 1966. (Document not available from EDRS.)

An illustrated set of African animal tales has been selected and linguistically structured for practice in writing English composition. First used by foreign students at Teachers College, Columbia University, and by sixth grade students (native speakers of English) in Massachusetts, these materials are now being used by various groups in the United States and in Africa. Each of the 42 passages is followed by a set of directions for graded exercises. Strictly controlled, these exercises range from simple copying and rewriting to more complex transformations and free creative composition. The format is designed to allow the student to repeat a step at a given level of difficulty as often as necessary without repeating previous subject matter. The accompanying teacher's manual provides detailed instructions for teaching each step, as well as time-saving suggestions for correcting. *Ananse Tales*, 44pp., and Manual, 21pp., are published by Teachers College Press, Columbia University, New York, 10027.

ED 012 459 *Selected Conference Papers of the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language*. ROBERT B. KAPLAN. 111p. Dec 1966. MF-\$0.18 H-\$4.44.

These papers were presented at the 1966 Annual Conference of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs in Chicago at section meetings of the

Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language. Authors and subjects of papers presented are as follows—M. Finocchiaro, Curriculum, Patterns—S. Ohannessian, Teacher Preparation—W. B. Van Syoc, Asian and American Educational Systems—P. Schacter, Transformational Theory and Contrastive Analysis—R. D. Wilson, Contrastive Analysis of English and Tagalog—L. McIntosh, Transformational Analysis—C. A. Ferguson, Sociolinguistics—J. C. Catford, Sociolinguistics—J. B. Carroll, Second Language Learning—R. C. Gardner, Psychological Adjustments—C. H. Prator, Planning Guidelines—L. A. Palmer, Tests—V. F. Allen, Listening and Reading—E. Enata, Pronunciation—W. R. Slager, Composition—R. B. Kaplan, Reading and Writing. This document is also available from The University of Southern California Press, Los Angeles, California.

ED 012 460 *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Series 3.* BETTY WALLACE ROBINETT. 189p. Mar 1967. (Document not available from EDRS.)

The contents of this series (a compilation of papers read at the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference, New York City, March 17-19, 1966) are grouped according to general subject and authors—(1) TESOL as a Professional Field by S. Ohannessian, A. H. Marckwardt, G. Capelle, D. Glicksberg—(2) Reports on Special Programs by C. H. Prator, P. W. Bell, L. H. Salisbury, J. B. King, M. Finocchiaro, G. S. Nutley—(3) Some Key Concepts and Current Concerns by R. B. Long, J. D. Bowen, S. C. Lin, N. Greis, C. C. Fries, E. M. Anthony, R. N. Campbell, E. Ott, B. Reifel, C. Senior—(4) Materials, Their Preparation and Use by W. N. Francis, R. J. DiPietro, A. MacLeish, C. B. Paulston—(5) What to Do in the Classroom, Devices and Techniques by C. J. Kreidler, R. Brande, R. J. Schwartz—(6) The TESOL Conference at New York by G. L. Anderson. This document is published by TESOL, Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D. C., 20007.

ED 012 465 *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, United States Activities, 1966.* LOIS McARDLE. 14p. Apr 1964. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$0.56.

This report on new programs and significant developments in ongoing programs was prepared for the Eighth International Conference on Second Language Problems, held in Heidelberg, April 26-29, 1967. Programs listed are—(A) General Activities, (B) English Language Teaching and Teacher Training Overseas, (C) English Language Teaching and Teacher Training in the United States, and (D) Materials Development and Testing. Information was supplied by federal, state, and city government agencies, universities, foundations, and other private organizations. An index of organizations appears on the last page. This document is also available on request from the English Program, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C., 20036.

ED 012 902 *English as a Second Language for French-Speaking Students in Secondary Schools. (Text in French and English.)* 46p. Aug 1965. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$1.84.

This report was submitted in July 1965 by the Francais Sub-Committee and the Modern Language Committee to the Ontario Curriculum Institute. The subject was a survey undertaken in 1964 to study the teaching of English in Canadian secondary schools attended by French-speaking students. The fundamental issue involved in the secondary education of these students is the problem of bilingualism. Since a student's ability to cope with a second language is in direct relation to the level of his achievement in his mother

tongue, a school system that aims in strengthening and maintaining the first language contributes strongly and directly to the development of the second. Among the recommendations made by the Committee (based on these assumptions) were the following— (1) the curriculum in English (grades 9-13) should be more suited to the language ability and needs of the French-speaking students, (2) appropriate and suitable texts and examinations should be provided, (3) teacher-training institutes should provide a course in methods and techniques for teaching English to French-speaking students, (4) regulations should allow more extensive use of French, and (5) French-speaking secondary school students (under certain conditions) should be grouped homogeneously. This report was published by the Ontario Curriculum Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

ED 012 903 *Bilingual Readiness in Earliest School Years, A Curriculum Demonstration Project.* MARY FINOCCHIARO. 126p. Dec 1966. MF-\$0.18 HC-\$5.04.

A two-year experimental program to develop "bilingual readiness" was undertaken in kindergarten and first grade classes in New York City. Two public schools, one in a poverty area and one in a middle class area, were chosen for the study. Efforts were made to choose six kindergarten and six that grade classes composed of equal numbers of Negro, Spanish-speaking, and "other" children. General ability and intelligence were not considered. Every day for 1.5 minutes a teacher bilingual in Spanish and English visited the classrooms and presented specially prepared materials using Spanish about 65 percent of the lesson time. The children were encouraged to respond in both languages, and the Spanish-speaking children were also encouraged to participate as "informants" and to act out stories in Spanish. The curriculum stressed verbal interaction and stimulation in both languages. Stories, songs, games, dances, and audio-visual aids (puppets, realia, etc.) were used extensively. The regular classroom teacher was shown how material presented in the "bilingual" class could be coordinated with regular classwork. The results of the study indicated that there was greater acceptance by the children and their parents of second-language learning. The Spanish-speaking children acquired greater self-confidence and cultural awareness. Appended to this report are numerous sample lessons and lesson plans.

ED 012 907 *Teaching English as a Second Language in Adult Education Programs, An Annotated Bibliography.* (Preliminary edition.) SIRARPI OHANNESSIAN AND RUTH WINEBERG. 25p. 1966. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$1.00.

This annotated bibliography is a selected listing of— (1) background readings in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, (2) teachers' guides and handbooks, (3) adult education course materials, (4) general course materials, and (5) specialized English language texts and dictionaries. The materials included were taken mainly from the library of the Center for Applied Linguistics, and lists and bibliographies prepared by state and city education systems. Selecting was confined largely to publications by American authors and those materials best suited for use in the United States. This bibliography is available on request from the Center for Applied Linguistics, English for Speakers of Other Languages Program, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W. Washington, D. C., 20036. Single copies are free; additional copies are \$0.25 each.

ED 012 917 *American English for International Businessmen.* SANDRA COSTINETT AND GORDON ROSS. 1967. (Document not available from EDRS.)

Designed for non-English speakers on an intermediate-advanced level of English, this text provides for Practice in conversational business English.

Each of the twelve units is based on a specific topic—phone calls, travel arrangements, quarterly reports and sales, organization charts, ordering, plant layout, investments, employee benefits, employment conditions, and plant maintenance. A feature of the dialogues is the presentation of alternative synonymous patterns which allow the student a choice of responses. Questions for discussion and a reading unit follow each dialogue. Suggestions to the student for self-instruction with or without the accompanying tapes, and instructions to the teacher for classroom procedures are included in the Introduction. This text and recordings of the dialogues are available from the Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1666 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C., 20009.

ED 012 919 *English as a Second Language in Elementary Schools, Background and Text Materials*. 8p. Oct 1967. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$0.32.

This selective, annotated bibliography is a list of the outstanding publications available in the field of teaching English as a second language in kindergarten and elementary schools. Section A (Methodology) lists background readings dealing with theory and approaches, materials, and techniques. Section B (Pre-School or Primary School Materials) lists texts designed for children of specific age and learning levels. Of special interest are the various materials for teaching Spanish-speaking children prepared by the New York City Board of Education, Imperial County Schools (El Centro, California), Dade County Public Schools (Miami, Florida), Agency (Austin, Texas). This bibliography is also available on request from the Center for Applied Linguistics, English for Speakers of Other Languages Program, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C., 20036.

ED 012 922 *English Language Proficiency Testing and the Individual*. PAUL D. HOLTZMAN. 15p. Apr 1967. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$0.60.

The author points out problems in test research and interpretation, some of which are due to conflicts between the findings of the data analyst who is restricted to basing his decisions on selected data only, and the test interpreter who is aware of variable validities of such untested factors as situational anxiety, personality, mother-tongue influences, cultural clash, and sense of communication. However, the author feels in spite of these and other shortcomings, there are a number of reasons for continuing to do factor analysis of test results. One factor, "feed forward," based on the psychology of perceptual expectance, deals with sets of the categories that individuals have available for the processing of any internal and external perceptions including those for language reception and production. A valid test of language proficiency would be a test of the categories that the subject brings to any processing of the language. The author reviews recent and current research which is concerned with the factor of "redundancy utilization," the ability of the native speaker to predict sequential language signals as contrasted with the non-native speaker's dependency on interpreting each word on the basis of the signal itself. This work-paper was presented at the ATESL Seminar in Houston, Texas, April 27, 1967.

ED 013 434 *Special English*. 1967. (Document not available from EDRS.)

This 14-volume series of technical English texts is designed to provide practice in technical terminology for non-native speakers of English. Language fluency level is upper-intermediate/advanced. The various fields of industry which the texts deal with are as follows—(1) Agriculture-Book 1, Soils; (2) Agriculture—Book 2, Field Crops; (3) Aviation—Book 1, General; (4) Aviation—Book 2, Radiotelephony; (5) Aviation Mechanics; (6) Banking; (7) Engineering-Book 1, Mechanical and Civil; (8) Engineering—Book 2, Electrical; (9) International Trade; (10) Journalism-Book 1; (11) Journalism-Book

2; (12) Medicine—Book 1; (13) Medicine—Book 2; (14) Medicine—Book 3. The format consists of topic-oriented conversational dialogues, terminology practice with key terms glossed in English and used in contextual sentences, and “check-ups” for further practice. Texts are illustrated by phonographs and simple line drawings. Appendices contain exercise keys, additional and equivalent British-English terms, and glossaries. These texts are available from Collier-Macmillan International, 60 Fifth Ave., New York.

ED 013 447 *TENES, A Survey of the Teaching of English to Non-English Speakers in the United States.* HAROLD B. ALLEN. 1966. (Document not available from EDRS.)

This two-year pilot study, covering the period between April 1964 and April 1966, provides statistical information concerning the educational background and qualifications of the teachers, the variety of teaching situations, and the materials involved in the teaching of English as a second language in the United States. Specific problems and needs in the field are pointed out. Recommendations of the Committees on Administration, Teacher Preparation, Methods and Materials, and Research are included in Appendix A. Representative English-teaching programs in New Mexico, Florida, Maine, California, New York, Arizona, and Utah are described in Appendix B. Appendices C and D contain the questionnaires used in the survey and a list of tables and key findings. This document is published by the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois, 61820.

ED 013 449 *Classroom Experiment to Measure the Relative Efficiency of Two Different Linguistic Models in Their Application to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.* MILTON WOHL. 45p. Feb 1967. MF-\$0.09 HC-\$1.80.

This study, conducted in Quito, Ecuador, from May through July, 1966, was designed to investigate the feasibility of using transformational concepts, symbols, and terminology directly in the classroom. Forty-four girls aged twelve to fifteen were divided into a control and an experimental group after being given general intelligence tests and two pre-tests on English vocabulary and aural comprehension. The instructional materials given to all the students consisted of 42 lessons, each containing a short dialogue, vocabulary, and a grammar frame. In addition, the experimental group received a transformational analysis of the grammar presented in the frame. Grammar points from the frames were later tested in four post-tests. Assuming that neither group was innately superior, results showed little or no difference between groups in the early post-tests, but a marked increase in post-test 4 in favor of the experimental group. Because of the apparently inconclusive results of the study, the author suggests that this type of experiment would be more valuable conducted over a longer period of time. The report also includes sample instructional materials and the measuring instruments used in the tests.

ED 014 051 *Teaching English as a Foreign Language, A Survey of the Past Decade.* ALBERT H. MARCKWARDT. 10p. Oct 1967. MF-\$0.25 HC-\$0.40.

The author has traced the recent development of the teaching of English to non-native speakers in the United States and abroad. After World War II, the scope of English language teaching became “literally global,” embracing rapidly developing programs in the Far and Near East, Europe, India, and Africa, along with earlier established programs in Latin America. Particular mention is made of the work carried out by U.S. Government agencies, the Ford, Rockefeller, Asia, and Nuffield Foundations, the Center for Applied Linguistics, Georgetown University, University of Michigan, and the TESOL organization. A description is given of the linguistically-oriented teaching

materials and methods now in use, and the university degree programs and training courses for teachers being offered in American institutions. In summary, the author stresses the need for long-term programs of materials development and teacher training, and continued research on language, culture, methodology, and language learning. This article appeared in Supplement Number 19, October 1967, of *The Linguistic Reporter*, and is available from the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

ED 014 070 *Effecting Dialect Change Through Oral Drill*. WILLIAM R. SLAGER. Nov 1967. (Document not available from EDRS.)

The author's aim in this paper is to introduce the classroom teacher to the techniques of preparing and using oral drills to teach standard English to speakers of non-standard English. Suggested linguistic readings and a brief outline of the work being done in the United States in the field of regional and social dialectology precede explanation of the different types of drills which the teacher can adapt to his own teaching situation. Models for drilling changes in pronunciation and grammar are presented with practical teaching suggestions. The author warns, however, against limiting this teaching to oral drills, and points out the need for developing the syntax and vocabulary of the non-standard speaker. This calls for greater emphasis on sentence building and paragraph writing in the classroom. This article appeared in the *English Journal*, Volume 56, Number 8, November 1967.

ED 014 721 *Miami Linguistic Readers*. RALPH F. ROBINETT AND OTHERS. 1965. (Document not available from EDRS.)

This two-year beginning reading series was prepared by a group of linguists which included Ralph F. Robinett, Pauline M. Rojas, and Paul W. Bell, in cooperation with the Dade County Public Schools, Florida. This revised experimental edition comprises 10 pre-primers, primers, readers for the first year level, and 11 texts for the second year level. Each of the 22 texts is accompanied by a seat-work booklet and a teacher's manual. The series also includes supplementary charts, "Big Books" 1 and 2, for language practice and special work on reading problems. This material, which was prepared specifically for the Spanish-speaking children in the Dade County Public School System, has also been used with other non-English-speaking groups of children. The series is published by D. C. Heath, 285 Columbus Avenue, Boston, Mass., 02116.

ED 014 723 *Reference List of Materials for English as a Second Language. Part I, Texts, Readers, Dictionaries, Tests*. SIRARPI OHANNESSIAN AND OTHERS. 157p. 1964. MF-\$0.75 HC-\$6.36.

This annotated bibliography covers classroom materials in the field of English as a second language published between the years 1953 and 1963. Comprehensive in scope, it also includes a few earlier "classics" in the field. The annotations are descriptive rather than evaluative, and indicate the reading audience range as well as the educational levels and specific features of each volume. The first section covers general text material available in the field, the following two sections covering text material for specific language backgrounds and specialized fields. Succeeding sections list readers (which because of the number have been limited to American publications), dictionaries, tests, and examinations. An author index is appended. This reference list is also available for \$3.00 from the Publications Section, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

ED 014 724 *Reference List of Materials for English as a Second Language. Part 2, Background Materials, Methodology.* SIRARPI OHANNESSIAN AND OTHERS. 115p. 1966. MF-\$0.50 HC-\$4.68.

This annotated reference list is a companion volume to "Part 1, Texts, Readers, Dictionaries, Tests" and follows the same format. The first section, Background Materials, covers texts in linguistics and the English language, bibliographies, and periodicals. The second section, Methodology, covers language teaching in general, preparation and analysis of materials, preparation of teachers, language testing, and programs in specific geographical areas. This bibliography is also available for \$3.00 from the Publications Section, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

ED 014 727 *The Study of the Problems of Teaching English to American Indians. Report and Recommendations.* SIRARPI OHANNESSIAN. 46p. Jul 1967. MF-\$0.25 HC-\$1.92.

The purpose of the present study was to assess the learning and teaching of English in elementary and secondary BIA schools as well as in adult education programs and selected public schools enrolling American Indian students. The main problem areas studied were—(1) administrative aspects of boarding and day schools, (2) the performance, preparation, recruitment, and retraining of teachers, (3) the performance of students, and (4) instructional materials. The twelve-man Study Group was composed of specialists in linguistics and the teaching of English to speakers of other languages, American Indian languages, anthropology, psychology of language learning, and other related and pertinent fields. This Report describes the preparation and procedures followed in the Survey, as well as the major and specific recommendations presented by the Study Group. The recommendations include—(1) the institution of an independent National Advisory Council on Indian Education, (2) a re-examination of patterns of schooling for Indian students, (3) special preparation, recruitment, and retraining of personnel, and (4) research projects. This Report is also available for \$1.25 from the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

ED 015 435 *A Study of English Teaching in Primary Schools in Japan.* 119p. 1967. MF-\$0.50 HC-\$4.84.

This final report describes two research experiments carried out in Tokyo in 1965 and 1966. Study A, a comparative study of the acquisition of a foreign language at two different age levels (3rd and 4th grades), was based on a course of three fifteen-minute sessions a week, using ten-minute tapes. Some results noted were—(1) no difference between grades in the first aural test, a significant difference in the second test five months later, (2) a significant predominance of 4th graders over 3rd in oral production, (3) no significant difference in "mimicry," and (4) no correlation between pupils' scores and IQ's in the perception test. Study B was a comparative study of a 5th-grade "tape-lesson" class with a 5th-grade "live-voice" class. Lessons were somewhat modified and used fifteen-minute tapes. Some results of this study were—(1) no significant difference between the experimental (taped lessons) group and the control group in perception tests, (2) significant difference (at one-percent level in favor of the control group) in the second and third aural comprehension tests, (3) a significant predominance of the control group in the second (last) production test, and (4) a superiority of the experimental group in individual sounds and fluency in the "mimicry" tests. This report is published by the Japanese National Commission for UNESCO and the Modern Language Institute of the Tokyo University of Education.

ED 016 235 *English Language Proficiency and the Foreign Student*. ROBERT B. KAPLAN. 1968. (Document not available from EDRS.)

The author believes that English language proficiency should not be made a college entrance requirement for foreign students. He also believes, however, that institutions which are not able to provide adequate training in English for foreign students should not encourage these students to enroll. The consortium plan whereby schools with no English-for-foreign-students programs could share student population, faculty, and facilities is a suggested alternative. Existing programs for foreign students should not be considered remedial English, but rather on the same level as the foreign language courses for American college students, with equivalent credit and status. Moderate acculturation, which is "both desirable and necessary" and not to be confused with propagandizing or "brainwashing," may be furthered by somewhat more formal, rather specific instruction in the areas of nonverbal communication. The need for small classes for foreign students is accompanied by a need for grouping the students either by linguistic criteria (which is pedagogically impractical) or by proficiency, which "appears to be the only practical solution." This article is published in the Winter 1968 issue of *Exchange*, a publication of the U.S. Advisory Commission on International Education and Cultural Affairs, and may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20403, for \$0.25.

ED 016 977 *ESOL and the Mexican-American*. PETER SCARTH AND TIMOTHY F. REGAN. 2p. Apr 1968. MF-\$0.25 HC-\$0.16.

Currently, federal agencies and various state departments of education are conducting literacy programs and programs in ESOL (English for speakers of other languages) for some 1,500,000 Mexican-American migrant workers. To a great extent these programs have been to some degree unsuccessful because they have disregarded the learner's psychological set and cultural heritage. In spite of research which shows that children learn to read and write English faster and more effectively if first taught their native Spanish, schools continue to insist on all-English classes. This, in addition to the mental confusion and incomplete mastery of the two languages which the all-English approach produces, results in (1) poor achievement on diagnostic tests and in classwork, (2) high dropout rates, and (3) illiteracy (often in both Spanish and English). Inappropriate methodology and materials are two basic reasons for failure in the adult education programs. Signifying a "brighter future" in the field of ESOL are (1) greater efforts at coordination by national agencies, (2) innovative programs, and (3) the use of professionally trained ESOL specialists. This article appears in *The Linguistic Reporter*, April 1968. Single copies are available upon request from the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

ED 016 988 *English for Today. Book One, At Home and at School*. WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1962. (Document not available from EDRS.)

At Home and at School is the first of a six-volume English-as-a-foreign-language series designed primarily for intermediate and secondary or high school level students overseas (e.g., for students age 10 years and older). The material and presentation are structurally controlled and graded, with emphasis in this volume on pattern practice. Basic sentence patterns using limited vocabulary are introduced in "natural social situations," illustrated by line drawings, and followed by examples, exercises, and controlled conversation. Each of the 25 lessons centers around a particular topic or situation, in a format adaptable to a variety of situations. Because the content is not intended for a specific language group, the material may be used by students of any language back-

ground. Records, tapes, cue cards, and a student's workbook accompany this volume. Also available is the teacher's text, which consists of the student's volume with an additional special section of teaching guides and extensive suggestions for each lesson. These materials are published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036 (student's text, \$1.48, workbook, \$0.76, and teacher's text, \$2.95).

ED 016 989 *English for Today. Book Two, The World We Live in.* WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1962. (Document not available from EDRS.)

This second volume (second year) of the *English for Today* series follows the same general five-unit format and audio-lingual approach as Book One. The 25 readings contained in this volume are graded and controlled, dealing with such geographical and social topics as maps, travel, exploring, famous sites and monuments, and progress in transportation, health, and education. This volume is accompanied by a student's workbook. Published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036, the student's text is \$1.48, the teacher's text, \$2.95, and the workbook, \$0.76.

ED 016 990 *English for Today. Book Three, The Way We Live.* WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1964. (Document not available from EDRS.)

This third volume of the *English for Today* series covers the third year of English instruction for foreign students on a junior high school level. The major emphasis in this volume is on reading. Each of the 25 lessons is introduced by an illustrated reading selection, followed by a series of comprehension questions and a selection of grammatical exercises based on the vocabulary and reading. The five units are topic based—(I) Ways of Life, (II) Eating to Live, (III) Buying and Trading, (IV) Interesting Jobs, and (V) Using Leisure Time. This series is published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036. *The Way We Live* student's text is \$1.48 and the teacher's edition, \$2.95.

ED 016 991 *English for Today. Book Four, Our Changing World.* WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1966. (Document not available from EDRS.)

Our Changing World, the fourth book in the *English for Today* series, contains 20 readings dealing primarily with scientific developments in the space age. Designed for upper-intermediate students on secondary school level, the topics range from jet planes and rockets, satellites and nuclear submarines to computers, supermarkets, and miracle drugs. While the earlier books of this series emphasize control of a limited set of sentence patterns and a restricted vocabulary, Book Four attempts to develop great fluency in conversation and composition. This text may also be used as a reader and a grammar review independently of the series. This volume, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036, is available for \$1.48, teacher's edition, \$2.95, accompanying workbook, \$0.66.

ED 016 992 *English for Today. Book Five, Life in English-Speaking Countries.* WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1967. (Document not available from EDRS.)

On an upper-intermediate to advanced level of English as a foreign language for secondary students, *Life in English-Speaking Countries* is the fifth volume in the *English for Today* series. The main emphasis in this volume is the transition from reading to composition. Each of the 14 readings is followed by intensive comprehension questions, exercises requiring the interpretation and application in writing of ideas contained in the read-

ing, composition exercises, and grammatical exercises which may be used optionally. The selections are topic-grouped into a three-unit format. Unit I, "Art Forms, Old and New," contains articles on movies, Shakespeare, jazz, and skyscrapers. Readings in Unit II, "A Language in Common," discuss British, American, and Australian English, and the history of the English language. Unit III selections, "Societies in Change," deal with culture and educational systems in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain. The student's text is published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036.

ED 016 993 *English for Today. Book Six, Literature in English.* WILLIAM R. SLAGER AND OTHERS. 1964. (Document not available from EDRS.)

The sixth and last volume in the *English for Today* series, *Literature in English*, presents a wide range of well known contemporary writers from the English-speaking world—England, the United States, Australia, Canada, India, Ireland, and Scotland. The selections include—(I) short stories by Saki, Callaghan, O'Connor, Hemingway, Joyce, Steinbeck, and Cather; (II) essays by Faulkner, Rau, Moorehead, Priestley, Sandburg, Huxley, and Narayan; (III) plays by Barrie and Saroyan; (IV) poems by Frost, Housman, Dickinson, Yeats, Hardy, and Whitman. Each unit is prefaced by an introductory essay in which the basic critical vocabulary ("plot," "theme," "exposition") is presented and the student is told what to look for in the reading. Footnotes explaining words and expressions not easily found in dictionaries accompany, and comprehension questions follow each selection. This volume may be used independently of the series by advanced students of English as a foreign language. The student's text (\$1.75) and the teacher's text (\$2.95) are published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036.

ED 017 929 *Selected Bibliography of References on Training of Teachers of English as a Second Language for Work Abroad.* WILLIAM F. MARQUARDT AND OTHERS. 9p. Nov 1967. MF—\$0.25 HC—\$0.44.

Part I of this two-part selected reference list contains books and articles of general interest in training teachers for language teaching abroad. Part II lists books and articles useful for training teachers in English as a second language in particular areas—(1) Africa, (2) Asia, (3) Australia, (4) Europe, (5) Middle East, (6) Oceania, and (7) the Americas. The selections, over 100, represent recent linguistic research in teaching methodology.

Announcements

Professor W. R. Lee, Editor of *English Language Teaching* (Oxford University Press), has notified us that the Second Annual Conference of the British Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (ATEFL) will be held in London, December 27-30, 1968, at the Overseas Students Centre of the British Council, Portland Place, London, W.I. The guest of honor the first evening will be the Rt. Hon. R. E. Prentice, M.P., Minister of Overseas Development.

If you plan to be in England at that time, Professor Lee would be happy to make arrangements for you to attend the conference. His address is 16 Alexandra Gardens, Hounslow, Middlesex, England.

Publications Received

CEA Critic, XXX, 9 (June, 1968). Saratoga Springs, New York: The College English Association.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics Bulletin No. 5 (July, 1968). Washington D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

TESOL Reporter, I, 4 (Summer, 1968). Laie, Hawaii: English Language Institute, The Church College of Hawaii.