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A NEW APPROACH TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING.

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ARIZONA STATE DEPT. OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, PHOENIX

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THIS IS AN UP-DATED EDITION OF ARIZONA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION'S 1939 "INSTRUCTION OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN" PUBLICATION. ITS PURPOSE IS TO PRESENT THE PRINCIPLES OF MODERN LINGUISTIC SCIENCE AS THEY RELATE TO TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE. AREAS COVERED INCLUDE THE PROBLEMS OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN, IMPORTANCE OF A FRIENDLY CLASSROOM CLIMATE, CULTURAL CONFLICTS IN TEACHING INDIAN CHILDREN, CURRICULUM OVERVIEWS, INCLUDING LANGUAGE ARTS, MATHEMATICS, SCIENCE, AND SOCIAL STUDIES, THE ROLE OF THE LINGUIST IN THE CLASSROOM, AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, AND COMPARISONS BETWEEN ENGLISH AND THE NAVAHO AND SPANISH LANGUAGES. REFERENCE MATERIALS ARE INCLUDED FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE. THE EDITOR STATES THAT THE IDEAS AND PROBLEMS PRESENTED ARE COMMON TO OTHER MINORITY GROUPS. (RB)

A New Approach to Second Language Teaching

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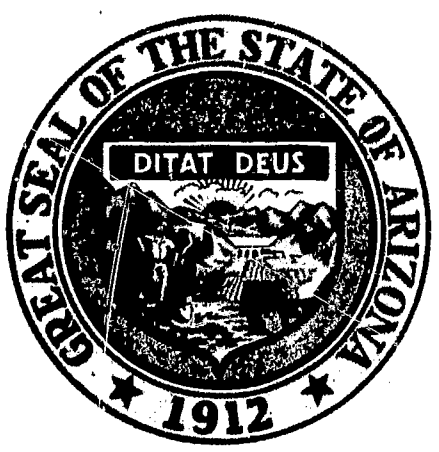

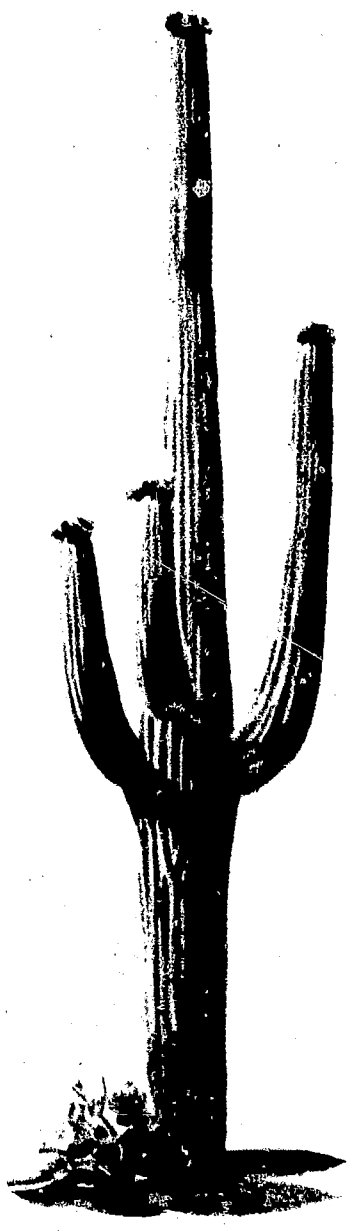

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Edited by: Mamie Sizemore

DEDICATED TO THE YOUTH OF ARIZONA

WITH THE HOPE THAT IN THEIR LIVES THE

GOOD THAT IS OLD AND THE GOOD THAT IS

NEW MAY EVENTUALLY BE ENTWINED LIKE

THE STRANDS OF A LARIAT.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD

The bulletin *Instruction of Bilingual Children* was published by the State Department of Public Instruction in 1939. Throughout the years this publication has had wide use in the schools of Arizona, and while the supply has been depleted for sometime, the department still receives requests for this material. As a result of the program of curriculum evaluation, and development instigated by Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mr. W. W. "Skipper" Dick, it was decided to rewrite and bring up-to-date the material in this bulletin.

Only through the help and cooperation of many experienced and dedicated teachers has it been possible to produce this new bulletin *A New Approach to Second Language Teaching*. We cannot name them all but we want them to know how grateful we are for their skillful, conscientious, and painstaking work.

The bulletin in its present form attempts to set forth in non-technical terms the principles of modern linguistic science for use of teachers in the classroom. Although most of the book is devoted to second language teaching a special effort has been made to encourage teachers to gain an insight into the cultural heritage of each of their students. As the school teaches a new language, it also much teach new behaviors to take the place of ones learned in the child's own culture.

Teachers who use this publication will use, in addition, the other bulletins as presented by the State Department of Public Instruction as partial fulfillment of its statutory responsibility to the schools of Arizona. The contents of *A New Approach to Second Language Teaching* is suggestive, not prescriptive. Its sequence is planned but not mandatory. There are among us many colleagues who have developed empirically some highly effective language teaching methods. Using this bulletin as a guide, examine your own methods and find out not only that they work, but also why and how they work. Let us, in Arizona, combine the practices of the most skilled teachers with the language theories of the linguists, anthropologists and psychologists and evolve our own principle of second language teaching that will be effective for all children in the schools of our state learning English as a foreign language.

W. MAURICE GEMMELL
Director of Indian Education

I. INSTRUCTION OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN

If civilization is to move forward, society must take responsibility for the proper development of all its prospective members. The school has long been considered the essential agency of education. It is necessary therefore, that basic education should be provided to all children regardless of race, color, economic level or social position. The program of the elementary school must be adapted to the nature and needs of all children, including those who come from homes where a second language is spoken. Teachers, supervisors, and administrators in this state have shown evidence of being concerned with the problem of improving the quality of instruction in all phases of school work. Bilingualism and its effect upon various aspects of school work is a problem of vital importance to those interested in education in our state.

Bilingualism is a much more complicated condition of affairs than that of the use of two languages by children. From the point of view of dictionary definitions, the concept of bilingualism is quite simple. The *American College Dictionary* defines it as (1) "the habitual use of two languages," and (2) "the ability of being bilingual." It defines the word bilingual as a person "able to speak one's native language and another with approximately equal facility."

The complications begin to arise when one attempts to apply the dictionary definition to specific students. Teachers soon discover that most of the practical situations referred to as "bilingual" involve factors that extend far beyond those of the "habitual use of two languages." Educators have usually been aware of this, but somehow have not realized the necessity of isolating cultural factors from the basic concept of bilingualism.

Function of Bulletin:

The Arizona State Department of Public Instruction issues a series of bulletins which deals with various phases of our curriculum. These bulletins have been planned primarily for the child from homes where English is the native language. The activities suggested in them are based upon an assumption of familiarity with the everyday life in the United States and the ability to speak and understand English very well.

The province of this bulletin is to deal with the needs of the bilingual child. Its existence is justified by the fact that the problems of the bilingual child are in some fundamental respects different from those of the child from a home where English is the language used in communication.

The educational policies of today are greatly influenced by recognition of the fact that fundamental differences exist among all children. Not only do individuals differ, even individuals who belong to the same school, the same grade, or the same family; but one group of children differs in needs, interest, abilities, and tendencies from another group.

Educators today recognize the importance of the fact that no teaching situation is exactly like any other teaching situation. Not only do the members of any one classroom group differ in many respects from each other, but each group differs from every other group. This is especially true of the Indian tribes in Arizona. Each of these groups has its own system of social relationship and social controls, by which it maintains its own culture. Each has met non-Indian culture in its own way, improving its life with what it has selected from this culture, or finding social and personal disorganization as the result of change.

Children from the homes of America vary greatly in knowledge and understanding of the English language, in experiental background, in physical and mental well-being, in cultural heritage; but, however wide these differences may be, the children of parents who have, to the extent of their various abilities, assimilated the American culture will have many points in common. Children whose parents have recently come to this country, or other groups who have not had the opportunity to assimilate the language and mores of the dominant culture, will have difficulty many times in adjusting to the school environment.

If the non-English speaking parents make no decided effort to learn and use English in their daily life, it is probable that they also cling to the customs and traditions of their native culture. Whenever this is true it has a deep significance in all education problems concerning their children.

The essence of the problem of instruction lies in the fact that the child with whom we are dealing is finding his way from one culture to another. He may be struggling with antagonistic forces if his school environment and his home surroundings differ too widely and if either is too insistent in its demand upon him. The teacher who attempts to implant his own notions of success, and makes the student dissatisfied with every element of his native life without offering a way out that is possible of achievement, builds a gulf between the student and his people, leaving him in some "no-man's land," neither native nor American.

The language problem, though it is a difficult one for both child and teacher and calls for special techniques on the part of both, could be solved with greater ease if it were not complicated by out-of-school conditions. Supplementing the experience background of the child from a sub-cultural home to an extent that will make his school curriculum meaningful is a problem even more fundamental and more difficult than that of language. Here again progress is affected by the dominant factor, cultural heritage. It is much easier to lose a linguistic accent than a cultural one.

Cultural heritage is, then, one of the most important factors that makes the non-English-speaking child a spe-

cial problem in an educational world which is rapidly learning to accommodate itself to the fact that no two children are alike and likewise no two groups of children are alike.

The bilingual child is different to the extent that he lives in a world of different languages, standards and traditions. He comes more nearly to resemble the other English speaking children in his needs, interests, and achievements as his home environment becomes more like that of his classmates. At some point in his advance he merges with groups for whom the other state curriculum bulletins have been prepared. It is the function of this bulletin to deal with the needs of the bilingual child through the stages of progress in which his educational needs are greater than those of the English speaking child in your classroom. The wider the home opportunities of a child, the more readily he fiits into the instructional program, with issues many times planned for children from the typical middle-class family. Socio-economic levels are a factor in most cases of a group endeavoring to accommodate itself to accepted standards of our culture. It is therefore the underprivileged children, regardless of race, who constitute a special educational problem.

Today, in our state the children of agricultural migratory workers represent a significant underprivileged minority. The plight of these boys and girls requires thoughtful and energetic action. Particularly, improved schooling for these people, with programs planned around their needs, represents an important force in improving their lot in life. Many of these children come from Indian and Spanish-American families. Knowledge of the racial and cultural complexion of these students is essential for the teacher of migratory children. The emphasis on teaching of the socially-related knowledges and practices must be adjusted to the particular student.

The cornerstone of our American democracy is the belief in the supreme worth of every human being. In accordance with this principle, each child in our schools should find it possible to live the richest, fullest kind of life regardless of race, nationality, sex or creed. Although America accepts this principle of equal opportunity, it has not yet translated it completely into practice. The members of various minority groups have suffered the effects of misinformation, misunderstanding and prejudice in many aspects of daily life because of this. *Most everyone tends to criticize and reject the things he does not understand.*

It is the hope of the State Department of Public Instruction that this bulletin will be useful to teachers who are new to teaching in the state, as well as provocative for those teachers who have been carrying on work of intercultural education for some time. It is not the policy to present a blueprint for teachers to follow as they work with children. The nature of teaching is such that blueprints cannot be made which will take care of individual differences in children and in all situations.

The endeavor has been made, however, to make the information specific enough and to give sufficient examples so that creative teachers in every part of Arizona will be able to work out the specifics for the children whom they teach.

Here is a word of caution to the readers of the bulletin. Any one or all of the suggestions offered may fail in a particular classroom. The task then of the individual teachers of bilingual children is not to become discouraged by a failure of a particular technique or method, but to bring her creativity, her perseverance, and her patience to bear on the problem and to work out a solution that is best for her *special situation,* and for her *special children.*

If the solution of such a complex problem as the organization of a suitable curriculum is attempted by one person or by too small a group, the result is not likely to meet the needs of a large number of the state. The State Department of Public Instruction believes that a curriculum should be worked out by a large representative group of educators and should be based upon wide contribution of thought and experience. The problems in this field have become so highly diversified that few of the writers on the subject attempt any longer to do research and writing in all its phases or even to be proficient in them.

The essentials for evolving a good curriculum by group effort are:

1. Common understanding based on a study of social needs.
2. The formulation of philosophy and objectives as a "frame of reference" in analyzing problems and in setting standards for evaluating results.
3. Wide contributions of defiinite materials: "This is how I met it."

   "These are the results I accomplished."

The function of this bulletin is not to offer a detailed curriculum for the teaching of bilingual children. It is designed to "start the ball rolling" not in any sense as a final or finished work.

II. PROBLEMS OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN

Wes. A. Townsend
Director of Elementary Education
State Department of Public Instruction

Nature of Problem

In an effort to spell out some of the problems of the bilingual children in the schools of Arizona the State Department of Public Instruction examined statements made by education, health, welfare, and other service personnel who have worked with these children and their parents. An effort was made to find out what problems and issues these workers felt existed. It was felt that these findings would present valuable information, and offer an objective basis for working towards better understanding and relationships among all concerned and aid in the solutions of many of the so called educational problems.

Information received has certain validity in terms of the workers' feelings and reactions. However, it must be kept in mind that the responses are not necessarily facts about all American-Mexican, Indian or other bilingual peoples. It must be recognized that many of the problems listed as problems of these people are social economic problems and would be applicable to other races in our society. It was found that many of the responses were influenced by prejudices, and lack of knowledge of the students' culture. On the other hand the knowledge gained cannot be overlooked as these people speak from first hand experience with the children. The findings are not presented here with criticism but in an attempt to help the teachers in Arizona schools solve some of their existing problems.

Lack of Appreciation of the Value of Education

Teachers who work with children from homes where English is not the native language feel many times that one of the main educational problems they encounter is the parents' apparent lack of understanding or appreciation of the value of education for their children. They support this by pointing out the attendance records of these children which show a greater percentage of tardiness and days absent than the English speaking children in their classes. Mentioned is the fact that parents of the bilingual child seem to have a greater tendency to keep them home from school to care for younger children, to run errands, to pick cotton, to herd sheep, and the like. Teachers consider such parental influences and practices as showing lack of appreciation of educational values and as standing as a deterrent to the school's efforts to get and keep their children from being dropouts. Parental attitudes could also be responsible for indifference found in some upper grade American-Mexican and Indian students toward achieving in academic subjects. Interested teachers are constantly seeking ways to educate parents, to help them understand the value of regular attendance and encouraging their children to do their best each day.

Language Difficulties

When a child enters school speaking only his native language — where English is the language used for instruction he faces a serious problem. Up until this time the native language has been his means of oral communication. English is now immediately imposed upon him and he is faced with many difficult problems. The student is not alone in his problems, the English speaking teacher has difficult instructional problems. Just knowing how to speak English does not justify the teacher to teach it as a second language. As a teacher on the Navajo reservation remarked, "It is sometimes difficult to make the child see the importance of becoming more fluent in English when their world outside the school is primarily Navajo-speaking."

For many students, teachers are sure that the sudden shift from one language to another creates not only learning problems but also precipitates emotional difficulties of various degrees. For example the Spanish speaking child who finds his language and that of his parents rejected by his teacher as unacceptable for use in school may evolve strong feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. He may even feel his language, his home, and he himself is second rate. The thinking of a teacher along this line is caught in the following statement: "How can we teach a child pride in his own language and culture at the same time we teach him English? Can we parallel his native language with English, not replace it?"

Diverse Experiental Background

Most of the educational practices, materials, and tests used in Arizona schools are based on our dominant middle class culture. The creators of these materials assume that most of the children will have had the same experiences as the average six year old child in an English speaking home. This creates another set of educational problems to the child from non-English speaking cultural background. Various teachers point out that many of these children have not traveled widely for education and pleasure, that fewer have reading materials at home, that fewer have access to radio and television programs, and many live in homes which do not have modern appliances. These and many other diversities in experiences are considered operating against the bilingual child in public schools where the structures and materials are based upon assumed communality of experiences with those of children from the dominant culture.

Feelings of Insecurity

Teachers and counselors have found that the bilingual student many times faces educational and social adjustment problems because of feelings of non-accept-

ance, discrimination, and self-inadequacies. Such feelings are particularly evident among students enrolled in schools where they are a minority of the student body. When these feelings exist even when there is no objective basis for such reactions, they are critical determiners of behavior. A teacher in one such school stated "the basic problem in my particular teaching situation is one of understanding and appreciation between the English and Spanish-speaking groups at the pre-teen level."

Old ways change slowly, when the student attempts to introduce his new found ideas in his home. Here he encounters a further threat to his security if he or she attempts but fails, in his effort to introduce new ideas and ways of doing things. Because of his failure to gain adequate acceptance whether at school or at home, the student finds himself in a "half-belonging world." It is thought by some teachers that some of these students attempt to gain security and acceptance by creating "their own world" which is neither of the dominant culture nor that of their native culture. Such social structures often become worlds of bravado or even real trouble, but one where the members feel they can find acceptance and status.

Participation of Parents in School and Community Activities

Another common concern among educators is that parents of bilingual children seldom participate or show any sign of interest in school and community activities. Parents rarely visit the school, attend PTA programs, serve on committees or join in parent-school activities. Teachers and administrators in the state ask: "What are other schools in the state doing to get these parents to participate in school activities? How are they achieving better parent-teacher cooperation in the schools?" They claim in spite of assuring parents that an interpreter is available, and being warmly invited only a small percentage of parents come to the meetings. Every school where bilingual students are enrolled feels there is a great need to get these parents involved in school planning in the hope of developing in them a greater understanding and appreciation of the goals of public education. Several schools in the state have had success in involving parents in the educational planning for their children. Where and when this has happened the success is reflected in the educational program as a whole.

Communication

Most people who work with children coming from another culture and speaking another language feel that hope of making any broad advances in many problem areas depend upon improving the process of group communication. It has been found this language problem exists not only with the elder parents who speak only their native language but also with the younger people, since many of them speak neither good English nor adequately in their native tongue.

Communication problems go far beyond simple difference in language. Even if there were a common language the inability for one group to understand another is rooted in diverse cultural backgrounds, and different economic levels. This is especially true when attempts are made to communicate in areas of feelings, attitudes and ideas.

Health

Although the situation is improving there is a continuing belief in the use of "folk medicine" and a closeness to primitive ideas in the practices of health still found among some of the Arizona Indian tribes and Spanish speaking people of Arizona. Health workers do not feel all of these practices are bad but they are seeking the best way to approach these people in attempting to break down superstitions and practices which stand in the way of solving health problems.

Health workers were critical of their own efforts and felt that some of their failures with these people could be attributed to a lack of understanding of their culture and environment and how to start or carry out health projects. They felt that they were often too impatient in working with specific individuals. The workers reflected on how much they as professionals were at fault at not being able to relate and transmit their services.

Social Responsibility

Teachers find it difficult to get the Indian and Spanish-speaking student to accept leadership roles. Many times there is little regard for responsibility and care of school property. Many teachers find that this is one of the areas where much emphasis must be placed and educational guidance practiced.

Individual Attitudes

Each child in a class is an individual. Teachers of bilingual children realize this fact. However, they find by knowing about certain cultural differences in groups in their classrooms that it helps them to better understand their students. Experienced teachers have found that "Time Walks" for the Indian child and "Runs" for the Anglo. Another related time attitude found among some Spanish-speaking children is the "Manana Concept"; they are so willing to put off for another day what can be done today. This is upsetting to some teachers.

There is in these families, as with many other races, a conflict between the attitudes and beliefs of the older and the younger generation. The school child, who is in social transition, often finds he faces rejection by his parents because of his changes in attitude and behavior. At the same time the child realizes he is not fully accepted by the dominant group of the community.

Community Attitudes

It cannot be denied, as much as the administrators and teachers in Arizona schools wished it were true, that there are still individuals who do not wholly accept members of minority groups into their communities. They tend to stereotype all individuals with different cultural backgrounds rather than trying to know them as individuals.

This is a definite problem area recognized by teachers and one where much work can be done. Most teachers believe that there are aspects from minority cultures and their human resources that could enrich the total

community; if these could be accepted, were brought out, and if conditions for their expression were developed.

Conclusions

Research reveals that persons working with Spanish-speaking, and Indian, children have a tendency to think that their problems are unique without adequately realizing that many of them are common to many peoples in social transition. They have a tendency to overgeneralize from specific cases. Also too many times they concentrate on specific behavioral problems, rather than seeking out the basic cause. A teacher's own feelings and attitudes color his evaluation and reactions to these people.

By reviewing the many studies that have been made of the bilingual child of Arizona, by contacting many people interested in the welfare and education of them, the State Department of Public Instruction feels that certain problem areas have been spelled out. Such data are needed to give definition to intergroup problems and to point the way to better solutions of the educational problems of the bilingual child.

III. WELCOME CLIMATE

When Arizona schools commence this fall and the bilingual child goes through the classroom door, the most important person in the world at that time is the teacher who receives him. The teacher's welcome is as easy for the child to feel as the temperature of the room; and his welcome, be it warm or cold, will be evident in the expression on his face as he prepares a place for the child. His graciousness, his warm and human interest, and the courtesy of his voice will be readily detected.

To some teachers a warm and friendly attitude is a vital part of their personality; it is expressed unconsciously, and without a doubt is their most important contribution to the bilingual child's learning. The welcome climate can be more easily controlled than the physical climate, if the teacher working day by day with the children in the classroom learns to accept and to absorb additional children with comfort and ease.

Welcome from the teacher must come first. Every teacher should extend this to each and every child who enters the door of any classroom.

The world of children from another culture is unknown to many teachers. Communication is difficult with parents where many times there is a language barrier. Basic professional data are often hard to obtain from these children. Understanding these children may not come easy to teachers not accustomed to teaching them. Nevertheless a complete understanding of the child is essential if the teacher is to do an efficient job of teaching.

It is well for the teacher to keep in mind that all children come to school conditioned by the culture their families and communities have taught. Some families are now quite thoroughly acculturated to the dominant culture's way of life while on the other hand some groups know little or nothing about life away from their own environment. The children from the first group adjust more easily to school while those from the second group need more of what we term in this bulletin "Welcome Climate."

What has reality for the bicultural child in your classroom; what values does he live by; and what goals motivate him? What cultural influences shape his patterns of behavior?

Welcome comes first. However, understanding is more difficult to offer than simple acceptance and making the child feel comfortable. With each new child teachers come to know well, they find themselves better able to understand other boys and girls who come from similar backgrounds.

You will find that bilingual children feel more anxiety about school work than generally would be expected. Attendance many times is poor. This causes the child to fall behind the class. Language difficulties and low educational aspirations of parents are only two of the complicating factors. They often find themselves lost in a classroom where the teacher has not found out at what level they can work most successfully.

Teachers of these children need all the professional skills they can develop; skills in diagnosis of learning difficulties, in organizing good learning situations, in stimulating children's purposes. They need to be calm, encouraging, and interested in *every child.*

Fortunately, the program that is best for all children is best for bilingual children.

1. The program for academic progress should be richly stimulating. It should be a content program where interest in, and enthusiasm for learning are constantly fostered.
2. Individual differences should be recognized, so that in the skill program everyone can have the help he needs to take the next learning step. In this kind of program there needs to be a rapid diagnostic survey made of each child so that he may be placed in the skill program without waste of time.

It is difficult many times for children to put into effect at home a great number of the things they learn at school, in the areas of health, safety, and nutrition. Yet never underestimate the influence of such teaching for each family feels it in some degree when the child returns home each night as he does when he attends public school.

To make teaching in the area of practical living effective teachers must know how their students' families live, and how they think. It is useless to teach health habits that are not practical in local home situations. Take into consideration the limitations in their home environment and do not advocate health practices that are impossible to carry out. You cannot immediately have the family change food habits; improvement must be based on present diet. This is a particularly important consideration where the family income is low. Safety training also needs to be based on practical and possible changes. Hazards that are actually in the home and neighborhood can be where your safety program originates.

From the time they are small girls, especially if they are from subcultural groups, they carry heavy home responsibilities. They need help in the upper elementary grades in homemaking education more than girls from the dominant culture. Early marriages are not uncommon so both boys and girls need this instruction in order that they may establish a better home life for their own families.

Life for the present day child can be much better than that of his parents because of what teachers do in the classroom. It will be found that instruction, if given wisely, will show up immediately in clean teeth, hair and clothing; better choice of food in the lunchroom; in good safety habits on the bus and on the playground, and in increased health and vigor.

Many research studies testify that children from lower socio-economic groups, on a whole, have less aspirations for vocations, for homes, for possessions and higher education, than children from middle class families. This is where teachers and counselors can be more influential than almost anyone else in the children's lives. These people are the ones most likely to give them help. It is an accepted fact that personal example is probably the most powerful influence in shaping children's pictures and dreams of their own future, and identification with a teacher is common. The increasing number of young teachers, with similar backgrounds to the children will undoubtedly have a great effect. All elementary teachers as well as secondary teachers can help by having a wider knowledge of possible vocations, including those that are a step above the one the child's parents are following.

There are now thousands of bilingual students in the public schools of Arizona. Many of them are not up to age-grade level. Because of this they may leave school early and never realize their full potentialities as persons, as workers, or as citizens. It is heartening to hear that teachers and administrators are realizing more keenly the importance of their roles in the lives of these children of Arizona and are working to make education more effective for them.

The colleges are offering workshops and special courses to help teachers interested in teaching children from other races. Research is being done in the field of bilingual and bicultural education. Pilot programs are being started in many schools to meet the needs of these exceptional children.

It is important that each school accepts the responsibility for doing the best possible for the bilingual children enrolled in each classroom. These children should not be given special favors but should be allowed to grow, to develop, and to realize their greatest possible achievements.

IV. CULTURE CONFLICTS IN TEACHING INDIAN CHILDREN

You will find many ideas in this chapter that will apply not only to Indian students but other minority groups.

Lest non-Indian teachers be appalled at the seeming lack of progress in the acceptance of the dominant culture's ideas by Arizona Indians, here is a word of advice gained through years of experience. Let them allay their fears by reminding themselves that many important changes are rapidly taking place in the various cultural systems of the state's Indian tribes. These changes, and many times accompanying frustrations, will be reflected in the Indian children as well as the adults, in their attitudes toward education and its purposes. Changes will not occur immediately. The time lag will vary with the nature and extent of the cultural changes.

The more the Indian people themselves are brought into the planning for schools the faster the change will come. They must be encouraged and helped to participate in the development of their educational system.

This requires from teachers a truly educational outlook and a considerable belief in other human beings, in their capacity for growth, and a belief that human growth and development are best encouraged in any given environment as the people concerned participate both in *purpose* and activity in their own *progress*.

Teachers should have respect for tribal culturals and try to provide the Indian children of Arizona with the kind of education that will enable them to make a wise final choice of what they accept and adopt from the dominant non-Indian culture.

Culture Conflicts in Teaching Indian Children

by

LOUIS C. BERNARDONI

Although the various Indian tribes in Arizona vary tremendously from each other, there are common elements that allow you to speak of Indian children as a group. Granting that each tribe may have a different language and somewhat of a different culture, in common, most tribes attempt to perpetrate their culture and resist attempts of acculturation.

To gain a sympathetic view of the Indian, one must realize that he is not the same as other minority groups that constitute our nation. He did not come to America to find a new way of life, to change, to find happiness and escape problems that he faced. He was already here, quite happy with his way of life and wanted to continue as he was. It is easy to see why Indian tribes resist acculturation and want to maintain their culture. He was engulfed by non-Indians and usually was quite resentful about the situation.

His engulfment, coupled with instances of ill-treatment on the part of non-Indians, has resulted in the Indian tribes retaining their culture for generations after other minority groups have become acculturated. Yet, if the education of Indian children is to be successful, certain aspects of Indian culture must be changed. Teachers of Indian children should be aware of the process of acculturation and the problems it presents if they are to be successful. It is much more difficult to teach cultural values than it is to teach a second language.

Listed below are some of the cultural conflicts that must be resolved if the Indian student is to succeed in school:

Indian Cultural Values	*Values Needed in School*
1. Co-operation	1. Competition
2. Time not important	2. Time consciousness
3. Docileness	3. Agressiveness
4. Live day-by-day	4. Live for the future
5. Follow tradition	5. Question tradition
6. Live with nature	6. Manipulate environment
7. Live like others	7. "Get ahead" of others

Many teachers who are not familiar with the cultural values of the Indian child insist that the child exhibit the values needed for success in school. This is frustrating to the Indian child since he cannot immediately assume these values even if he could logically identify them. These are subtle values that must be built over many years.

On other occasions, the teacher may teach subject matter material that may conflict with the parents belief. This might include some of the following:

1. Bathe every day
2. Eat lots of leafy vegetables
3. Watch out for germs
4. Go to a doctor when you are sick instead of a medicine man.

The exposure to values that contradict those of his parents places the Indian child in conflict and he may reject the teachings offered him. On the other hand, conflict is necessary before acculturation or acceptance of these values can be effected. If the teacher is to be an instrument of acculturation, he must be aware of this role and approach the problem in the most effective manner. Following is a theoretical approach that can be used by teachers to effect the acculturation needed for success in school:

1. The teacher should acquaint himself with the culture of the Indian children in his class. This will help him understand the children better, help in establishing rapport, and isolate conflicts in values of the two cultures.
2. The teacher should gain the love of the children before he attempts to investigate conflicts in culture. He cannot be an effective instrument in acculturation until he gains the confidence and love of the children to use as a lever.

   The teacher should not require that his students immediately stop speaking their native language.

Since language is one of the dearest aspects of any culture, the teacher should carefully explain that he does not want the children to give up their native language but he does want them to master two languages. The students need to know that they should speak English well to succeed in school and that they will be encouraged to speak English because it is necessary—not because it is better.

3. Things that are of interest to the children such as horses, rodeos, pick-up trucks, pets, etc., should be discussed to help establish rapport.
4. The similarities between the two cultures should be discussed to give the children some basis of security.
5. The classroom could be decorated with objects familiar to the students, such as pottery, baskets, bead work, etc., to make the classroom as homey as possible.
6. The degree of acculturation of the families should be discovered as quickly as possible to help the teacher establish conflict areas.
7. The idiosyncrasies and role-identification of the children should be established. Since acculturation is an individual process, it is important to know the child's world before you attempt to change it.
8. Areas of culture conflict should be introduced slowly as the child is ready to explore them. The teacher should not be too directive in this. As he is asking the child to rebel against a cultural value, the child is apt to rebel against him instead, although he will be outwardly accepting.
9. Allow time for the child to present these values to his parents and discuss the differences with them so he will not feel guilty.
10. Discuss conflict areas openly bringing in possible reasons for these differences. Use role playing to bring out the viewpoint of both cultures.
11. Attempt to elicit possible solutions to the two viewpoints.
12. Counsel with the student individually to allow him to express his own feelings on the problem.
13. Maintain good cumulative records so that the next teacher can continue at the appropriate stage.
14. Visit the parents to dispel any doubts that are the result of misunderstandings.
15. Emphasize that you do not want to change anything but the values that will be needed for success in school and on the job.
16. Discuss the facets of the Indian culture that appear to be superior to those of the dominant culture, such as lack of anxiety, ulcers, etc.
17. Reward the advances made by students in such a manner that he will not gain the emnity of his peers.
18. Realize that acculturation is a slow process and will not advance at the same speed for all students.
19. Explore situations in which students may have to play a dual role—one at school and one at home.
20. Allow each student the right to choose between conflicting values. However, be sure that he understands the consequences of these choices.

Many teachers attempt to fully acculturate their students and proceed headlong. Some of these teachers meet resistance and become frustrated. Others feel guilty after awhile and ask themselves what right they have to change people who are probably happier before being changed. To avoid this dilemma, teachers should isolate those aspects of Indian culture that he wishes to change and the authority from which he derives the right to change them.

In our democratic society, it is generally accepted that each group has the right to maintain its unique culture as long as it is not unlawful or contrary to the welfare of the dominant group. In the past, educators who worked with Indian groups did not have the consent of these groups to affect acculturation. Education was thus based upon the assumptions that the dominant culture was superior and that acculturation was good for the Indian people. Since most Indian groups did not hold these same views, education was imposed upon them and was successful in most instances only if the Indian culture was destroyed. The author feels that it is possible to change those facets of individual Indian cultures that impede education without destroying or changing the total indigenous culture.

In recent years, most tribes have come to realize that with an exploding population and limited reservation resources many of their people will need to leave the reservation for work and other trained persons will be needed on the reservation to exploit reservation resources to the fullest. With this realization, most tribes have asserted that they want their children to be able to compete in school and on the job market. This assertion is the basis of authority from which educators derive the right to change those cultural aspects that must be changed to prepare them to compete.

This authority is not clear cut, however. Most tribes say that they want their children to compete but they also state that they want to retain all of their culture. The authority to change certain aspects of the culture of Indian students is thus based upon tribal inconsistencies and involves a value judgment on the part of the educator. If an educator is to be effective, he must realize the source of his authority to change Indian children, isolate those factors that must be changed and proceed logically in those aspects of acculturation that are needed to prepare the Indian child to compete. The teacher who attempts full acculturation should realize that he does this on the basis of his own value judgments and should be prepared to face resistance.

The theoretical approach just advocated is not backed up by comprehensive research, but then neither is any other approach currently in use. The basis of this approach is current psychological learning theory utilized

in a cultural setting. This approach does not answer many questions, such as:

1. What are the similarities between the various Indian cultures and the non-Indian culture?
2. How can a teacher establish role-identification for individual students?
3. What is the complete list of areas of conflict that impede education?
4. How does a teacher reward efforts in acculturation?
5. What facets of the various Indian cultures are superior to the dominant culture?

Many of these questions must be answered for each individual tribe.

The purpose of this chapter may thus be summarized as the presentation of a theory of acculturation and an examination of the source of authority that allows attempts at acculturation. It is hoped that individual teachers will attempt to test the theory and in so doing, lay the ground work for a more comprehensive theory.

*TABLE 1**

EXCERPTS: SCALE OF ACCULTURATION: SPANISH TO ANGLO

*Zintz, Miles V., Director. **The Indian Research Study:** Final Report, Section I. Albuquerque: College of Education, University of New Mexico; 1960. p. 62.

SUBJECT	TRADITIONAL ACCULTURATION	MEDIUM ACCULTURATION	FULL ACCULTURATION
Religion	Usually Catholic. Life Hereafter. (blind faith)	Catholic, some Protestant; Life Hereafter. (More enlightened faith)	Catholic or Protestant; Rational Faith.
Family	Extended family concept; large families; autocratic.	Little extension to family; medium-sized. Less autocratic.	No extension to family concept; small or medium; paternalistic or democratic.
Education	Barely literate or illiterate; ruling class refined and polished.	Both parents speak English; elementary & probably high school; some value in education.	Has lost contact with all Spanish culture.
Health	Folkway; herb medicine; superstition.	Some folkway; more professional medicine and attention; hospitalization.	Has lost contact with all Spanish culture.
Economics	Agrarian: subsistence level; welfare.	Farm; semi-skilled; labor; teacher; low average income.	Has lost contact with all Spanish culture.
Politics	*Lower Class:* uninterested or recreational. *Middle Class:* nonexistent. *Upper Class:* sharp politicians.	*Lower:* Uninterested. *Middle:* Value in franchise; local political boss. *Upper:* State political boss.	Indifferent.
Recreation	Family recreation communal; non commercial.	Little family recreation; noncommunal; commercial.	Has lost contact with all Spanish culture.

TABLE II*

CONFLICTS IN CULTURAL VALUES

AMERICAN SCHOOL TEACHERS ARE SURE TO PLACE GREAT VALUE ON THESE PRACTICES:	CHILDREN FROM TRADITIONAL INDIAN FAMILIES MAY BE SAID TO HAVE ACCEPTED GENERAL PATTERNS DESCRIBED BELOW:	CHILDREN FROM TRADITIONAL SPANISH - AMERICAN FAMILIES MAY BE SAID TO HAVE ACCEPTED THESE GENERAL PATTERNS:
Mastery over Nature. Man must harness and cause the forces of nature to work for him.	*Harmony with Nature.* Nature will provide for man if he will behave as he should and obey nature's laws.	*Subjugation to Nature.* An often observed reaction in the traditional Spanish-American was, "If it's God's will."
Future time orientation. All living in our society are future oriented.	*Present time orientation.* Life is concerned with the here and now. Accepting nature in its seasons, we will get through the years, one at a time. "If the things I am doing now are good, to be doing these things all my life will be good."	*Present time orientation.* For the traditional Spanish-American family, the only important goal of life was going to heaven after death. One only passed through this temporal life to receive his "reward" in the next.
Level of Aspiration. Climb the ladder of success. Success is measured by a wide range of superlatives: *first, the most, the best,* etc.	*Level of aspiration.* Follow in the ways of the old people. Young people keep quiet because they lack maturity and experience. This de-emphasized experiment, innovation, and change.	*Level of aspiration.* "To work a little, rest a little." Follow in one's father's foot steps. Be satisfied with the present.
Work. Success will be achieved by hard work.	*Work.* One should work to satisfy present needs. Accumulating more than one needs could be construed as selfish, stingy, or bigoted.	*Work.* Work to satisfy present need. The Spanish American was particularistic in nature. He operated on emotional response rather than subordinating the individual to the societal institution. A businessman looks first at himself as a brother to the man who is asking for credit, and secondly as a businessman who is dealing with a customer.
Saving. Everybody should save for the future. "A penny saved is a penny earned." "Put something away for a rainy day."	*Sharing.* One shares freely what he has. One of the traditional purposes of Shalako was that a man could provide a ceremonial feast for the village if he were able to do so.	*Sharing.* Traditional pattern included sharing within the extended family group. Those established in the dominant culture accepted Anglo values in sharing.
Adherence to time schedules. "Take care of the minutes and the hours will take care of themselves." In practice, we might be termed "clock watchers."	*Adherence to time schedules.* Time is always with us. The unhurried inexactness of the Indian with appointments has led to the expression, "He operates on Indian time."	*Adherence to time schedules.* The expression for "the clock runs" translated from the Spanish is "the clock walks." It has been said that this explains the "manana attitude" which Anglos have observed in Spanish-Americans.
Acceptance of change. Change, in and of itself, is accepted as modal behavior.	*Reaction to change.* We may follow in the old ways with confidence.	*Reaction to change.* We may follow the old ways with confidence. The reason may not be at all the same as the Indian's however. This life on earth is endured only to win eternal life in Heaven.
Scientific explanation for all behavior. Nothing happens contrary to natural law. There is a scientific explanation for everything.	*Non-scientific explanation for natural phenomena.* Mythology, fear of the supernatural, witches, and sorcery may be used to explain behavior.	*Non-scientific explanation for natural phenomena.* Witches, fears, and non-scientific medical practices were used to explain behavior.
Competition. Aggression. One competes to win. Winning first prize all the time is a coveted goal.	*Cooperation.* Remaining submerged within the group. Traditionally, a man did not seek offices or leadership or attempt to dominate his people. In sports, if one won once, he was now ready to let others win.	*Humility.* Acceptance of the status quo. Submission might categorize behavior.
Individuality. Each one shapes his own destiny. Selfrealization for each person not limited.	*Anonymity.* Accepting group sanctions, and keeping life rigidly routinized.	*Obedience.* The Catholic Church kept life routinized, placed emphasis on obedience to will of God.

TABLE III

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE INCIDENTAL AND THE LINGUISTIC METHOD FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE BY THE AURAL-ORAL METHOD:

Consideration of the merits of the Incidental Method (1) and the Linguistic Method (2) of the aural-oral teaching of English as a second lenguage. This chart is a modification and alteration by the Workshop for Teachers of Bi-lingual Students, Ed. 296s, University of Arizona, 1961, of the chart issued by Dr. Condie, State Department of Education, Division of Indian Education, New Mexico, in May, 1961.

SYSTEM SAYS RE:	INCIDENTAL METHOD SAYS	LINGUISTIC METHOD SAYS
Comparative analysis needed of two languages.	Interesting and useful but rarely undertaken.	Imperative.
Teachers need to know native language.	Helpful, desirable, but not essential.	Helpful, desirable, and certainly advantageous.
Use of native language in the classroom.	No general agreement but often discouraged.	Effective aid for comprehension of second language.
Use of vocabulary.	Essential, but words are given through meaningful experiences.	Essential, but the words are presented in meaningful sentence patterns relating to experiences.
Sentence pattern emphasis.	Patterns are gradually evolved when the vocabulary is comprehended.	The patterns are introduced initially in the instruction program.
Drill and repetition.	Necessary but not a dominant feature of instruction.	Imperative and so controlled as to give the student much more time for individual practice.
Unit importance as vehicle for language learning.	Essential for comprehension of second language.	Essential, but desired sentence patterns dominate the development of the unit.
Instructional. Aids Utility.	Indispensable, care is exercised that such aids add to the comprehension of language and of the situation.	Indispensable if the language is comprehended but care is exercised that the language is in patterns.
Sequential Guide of sentence patterns required.	Teacher should be interested but must improvise now.	A matter of urgency so that the linguistic method can be effectively applied.
Correct English importance.	Importance as a basic discipline for teaching a child to think. Teacher is aware of appropriate speech for different situations.	Important for the same reason but correct conversational English should be developed first in the sentence patterns.

(1) The Incidental Method for teaching a second language requires the development of vocabulary and sentences following the incident of experience, the teacher being responsible for recording, recognizing, and utilizing the educational opportunities of the incidents as they arise. Such a method is applicable in both the progressive and the traditional classroom.

(2) The Linguistic Method of creatively drilling students in sentence patterns of patterns with proper rhythm, intonation, and stress, requires an anticipation of and/or arranging for incidents in which such patterns can be used.

*Zintz, Miles V., Director. **The Indian Research Study:** Final Report, Section I. Albuquerque: College of Education, Univ. of New Mexico, 1960. pp. 57-58.

V. CURRICULUM OVERVIEW

Education of the bilingual child in your classroom can be built on the hypothesis of combining the best of the old and new in education. He may be taught directly and in a highly organized way. If the teaching is consistent with what is known about the nature of learning, the child will learn better and faster, he will grow wholesomely, developing confidence as he acquires competence and gains in self-respect as he accomplishes difficult but possible objectives. Providing the best possible opportunity for the self-fulfillment of the individual should be the common objective of public education in the State of Arizona.

The objectives of any educational program should apply to all students, the bright, the average, and the slow. Significant among the many aspects of human development, is the capacity to behave with reason and intelligence. It follows that the most important job of the school is to teach for intelligent behavior in the American way of life. This becomes doubly important to students from subcultural groups.

To do this the curriculum although flexible enough in levels of difficulty to meet individual differences, should be demanding at every stage of pupil development. (Too many times linguistically handicapped students are not pushed to capacity.) The curriculum should be organized by *basic subject* field and be selective; as only the most essential skills and knowledges can adequately be taught during the school day. Teachers, pupil and citizens of the community should be informed as to what is to be taught by making the contents of the curriculum specific.

Our language and number system unlock for the school child the knowledge and experience man has acquired and preserved and will make it possible for him to refine and expand that experience. These are the tools which when acquired surely and systematically, make intelligent behavior possible. Without these tools, reasonable and predictive behavior is impossible.

In order to deal with the problems of living in addition to the tools of rational behavior, man must know, understand, feel, and be able to reflect upon these acquisitions of experience. In science, history, geography, music and art, he can achieve understanding for the kind of reasoned response which is the goal of education.

READING

Learning to read one's own native language and learning to read English as a foreign language are very different matters. In the language situation, where an oral approach is used, this difference is especially great and quite apparent.

In teaching pupils to read their own native language one assumes that the student already can speak and understand their language. They have already learned to produce and to respond to the signals of their language as these signals come to them through the ear. For them to learn to read, it is simply necessary for them to learn to respond to the graphic representations of the signals that have formerly come to them through sound. The language signals themselves are the same for both talking and reading. It is the medium through which the signals come that is different. *Talk* is accomplished by patterns of sound symbols through the ear; *reading* is accomplished by patterns of written symbols through the eye. *To learn to read one's native language, it is the process of reading itself that must be learned, not the language.* Such a transfer from sound signals to graphic signals for reading one's native language is usually accomplished by English speaking students between the ages of five and eight.

The letters of the alphabet are signs which direct us to produce sounds of our language. Students learning English as a second language must be taught phonics. Unlike the child learning to read his own language—the bilingual child is being taught to speak another language. Phonetics, and clear utterances must be stressed. Alphabetic writing merely directs the reader to produce certain speech sounds. A person who cannot produce these sounds cannot get the message of a piece of alphabetic writing. If the bilingual child has not learned to utter the speech sounds of English, the only sensible course is to postpone reading until he has learned to speak the language.

Most frequently, "pronunciation" is considered only as a matter of producing the sounds. And much attention is ordinarily given to the "position" of the tongue and the lips in order to achieve an accurate acoustic effect. But pronunciation is more than a matter of *making* the sounds. The distinctive sounds must be *heard* and recognized not only as they may be pronounced in isolation, or in separate words, but as they are pronounced in the stream of speech—pronounced with the speed of a native speaker of English, giving attention only to the meaning to be communicated. Pronunciation from the receptive point of view is just as important as pronunciation productivity. New habits of discriminating hearing must be built up by daily practice with the important contrasts in various types of contrast.

Always remember that the signals that constitute a language are, first of all, patterns of vocal sounds. To the present-day literate person it seems almost incredible that people could get along without reading and writing, and that even today many savage tribes are in this position, and many civilized nations contain a great proportion of illiterates. What happens to a language if the people who speak it have no books—no dictionaries, grammars, spelling books, and so on? The answer to this question was one of the first and most surprising results of linguistic study: unwritten languages function and develop in the same way as languages that have been reduced to writing. In fact, taking the great mass of human history, the non-use of writing is the normal state of affairs, and the

use of writing is a special case, until very recent times, a most unusual case. The effect of writing on language, where there is no popular literacy, is practically nothing, and where there is popular literacy, as among us, the effect of writing is merely to introduce a few irregularities into the process of linguistic development. This, of course, is the opposite of the popular view, but it is the result of every investigation that has been undertaken and is today firmly accepted by every student of language.

Teachers must remember that the signals that constitute a language are, first of all, patterns of vocal sounds. These patterns of vocal sounds are primary. For reading man has invented various types of graphic representations of these patterns of vocal sounds. The patterns of graphic representations used in reading are secondary. *These secondary representations used for reading contain less of the language signals than do the primary representations–the vocal sounds.* In the graphic representations there are left out such language signals as intonation and stress and pause. These are important features of the signals of meanings; especially of social-cultural meanings. If a bilingual student is to read with comprehension the graphic representations of the language *signals, he must learn to supply these portions of the signals which are not in the graphic representations themselves.* He must supply the significant stresses, pauses, and intonation sequences. A large part of learning to read English as a foreign language is the process of learning to supply rapidly and automatically the portions of the sound signals that are not represented in the graphic signs. It is not simply a matter of speed and fluency. It shows itself in oral reading in what has been called reading "with expression." This "reading with expression" is giving not only the sound patterns that make up the separate words but also supplying the tone sequences, the stresses, and the pauses that mark the word groupings that signal the total range of meaning. This is the productive reading that is *real reading* as distinct from just saying words.

Have teachers, in the past, been so absorbed in getting the child, learning English as a second language, into books and teaching them so called "reading in books" that we have forgotten to teach the child to speak in English and understand what he reads? Many times in our efforts to develop ability to read English we have not given enough practice, at the beginning, in reading materials that have been practiced orally and in which all the signals have been thoroughly grasped. This first step, oral use of English should be given attention throughout most of the first and second years of school. Only as a final step in primary reading should there be the silent reading of new materials "at sight." This step of reading can be achieved only by those who have mastered the final basic signals of the language very thoroughly and who have had much practice in the earlier steps indicated in his oral approach to reading.

See: Greet, Cabell "Reading Aloud" in the **Guidebook for the Second and Third Pre-Primers; The New Basic Readers for the Sixties,** Scott, Foresman and Company.

READING SKILLS

Students need to study words, their characteristics and the way they work together to produce meaning. A word is not only a word but a means of knowing about something.

Formal reading should begin with the study of the alphabet, phonics, and syllabication. This is to be nonmechanical with meanings as a paramount element in such instruction. *Whenever a child is asked to sound a word, you must be sure he already has the word in his hearing and meaning vocabularly.* This rule has great importance as it means the bilingual must have a good speaking vocabulary before he is introduced to reading.

Instruction in reading should have the aim of giving students the skills to learn to read new words independently as well as to know what the word means. This method will combine seeing and sounding. By much writing the kinesthetic sense may be involved in gaining mastery over words.

Where little English is spoken in the home it will be necessary for the teacher to teach the meaning of new words. By demonstration the teacher can portray connections between words as symbols and the objects or events to which they refer. This can be done by working from the known to the unknown.

The background abilities known to be important to beginning reading are visual and auditory-discrimination of word elements. The minimum requirements in the first background ability, that of visual discrimination of word elements, appears to be the ability to match letters. If the child cannot tell letters apart, it is futile for the teacher to attempt to teach him words. We cannot attach meaning and name to a word that he cannot recognize when he sees it a few seconds later.

Unless the bilingual child notices the separate sounds in spoken words, there is no sense for him in the way words are written. While he may acquire a small sight vocabulary without this ability, he quickly runs into confusion with words which look very much alike. He has no system that will relieve this confusion.

Instruction in the techniques of reading, with children learning English as a second language, will include directed teaching in:

a. interpretation
b. discovery of purpose
c. tone
d. convincingness
e. identification of key words
f. topic sentences
g. suppositive detail
h. summarizing sentences
i. use of paragraph headings
j. table of contents
k. summaries
l. reading practice in maps
m. charts
n. tables

Getting meaning from the printed page must be *systematically* studied at each grade level. It *must* be taught in

every subject field. Too many special subject teachers take it for granted that children understand what they are reading.

WRITING

Much written expression must be required from the earliest grades. The main purpose is to train the child in the logic of thought with accuracy and facility of expression. Students learn by much practice.

Expect your students to write for a variety of reasons. Creative writing serves purposes far beyond mere facility in putting words together in sentences. While accuracy and correctness is highly desirable, the main purpose is to train the student in self-expression thus contributing to self-realization.

SPELLING

Spelling as a subject of instruction in need of re-examination. Children continue to display difficulty in learning to spell in spite of concentrated effort to build "spelling power." Spelling needs to be taught as a separate subject in definite work sessions. Teachers must not allow spelling to "go by the board" in the sense of being casual or incidental, for spelling is basic to success in all subjects where ideas must be expressed through writing.

In attacking the spelling problems of bilingual students first we must recognize the child's spoken English vocabulary and make sure through constant checking that he is saying each word as correctly as possible. Also that he hears correctly the sounds that he speaks.

To get effective power in spelling a child, especially one learning English as a second language, needs to know the vowel sounds. As a matter of fact he also needs them in reading in order to develop his word recognition skills to a point of real usefulness. We must remember, too, that when we refer to vowel sounds we mean the short vowel sounds, the long vowel sounds, the *a* followed by *r* or *ll*, the *au-aw*, *oo-oo*, and other combinations.

The need for accurate and precise association between visual forms and sounds is, of course, more pressing in spelling than in reading. In recognizing words in reading we can use configuration and context clues and use them in combination with more rudimentary sound blending skills. In spelling these devices or combinations do not apply. In reading we can approximate the pronunciation of a word and guess the word if we come close enough. In spelling an approximation is not enough. If we err but once we are wrong. Therefore if children are taught in spelling to listen for the sound elements in words and if they are taught the common visual representations which stand for those sounds, they develop a useful power beyond visual memory to guide their spelling. If they learn these auditory-visual realonships in spelling, where the need for precision is greater, their application in reading is a relatively simple reversal of the process.

You have heard numerous times "English is not a phonetic language." It is true that compared with languages of most primitive peoples and with the languages of many advanced countries, English seems almost monstrous in its complicated phonics. However, in spite of its many imperfections, the English system of writing is in origin and in its main features, phonetic or alphabetic. The fundamental division of English spelling into three main types, the regular, the semi-regular and the downright irregular, has a highly important bearing on the way we present English orthography to students in teaching them to read and spell.

It is important to guard against placing too much stress on the non-phonetic aspects of the English language. Teachers should utilize the most effective way of stressing the phonetic elements of our language in the building of spelling power. In any grade the teaching of the relation of sounds and letters grows out of the word list for that grade.

Only those principles which we know the child can immediately put into practice in his written work in other school subjects, should be taught and only as many principles in any particular grade as he can reasonably be expected to assimilate without confusion. Principles rather than individual words, should be emphasized. In the desire for the child to become proficient in spelling, teachers encourage students to try to master so many words, syllables, and combinations of syllables that he becomes confused and soon acquires a negative attitude toward spelling and writing.

If taught properly, the student will soon be able to arrive inductively at the spelling of most words that he can pronounce. This ability to transfer from one word to another, the knowledge of phonetic patterns which are similar, is what we call "spelling power." The relatively few English words or parts of words which follow a rarely occurring phonic pattern, or are downright irregular, must be individually memorized.

PENMANSHIP

Handwriting is a motor skill. There must be systematic practice in scheduled periods to develop and fix the skills needed. Make it possible for children in the first four grades to have daily practice periods.

With the beginning non-English speaking child, he will have to understand the words that you will need to teach him basic handwriting—such as *up, down, round, circle, straight, left, right, top, bottom, above, below.* With these younger children, use the chalkboard for the practice of each activity. Ease, control, and accuracy of letter forms are more quickly acquired, and errors can be visualized and corrected more easily at the chalkboard than at the desk.

Help the child to see the value of handwriting to himself and others. Encourage neat and legible writing in all written work.

SPEAKING

Speech is the most important social tool a child or adult possesses. To be able to communicate successfully is one of the important assets in life. With the child learning to speak English as a second language first and

foremost is the requirement to create the need for speaking English—then capitalize on this need.

The need for instructional help in oral English for the bilingual student does not end with the first grade. They continue to need positive and constructive help all through the elementary grades.

GRAMMAR

In speaking of grammar most people think in terms of what is now usually described as "formal grammar." This is the grammar which they themselves studied at school. Usually these people speak English natively. The grammar which they have studied is therefore concerned strictly with analysis of the language. Obviously, this is a different kind of grammar from which the student needs to study in the initial stages of his second language learning. In learning English he must assemble its many elements into forms or patterns which he can use. His approach is therefore one of synthesis rather than of analysis.

Formal grammar may have little utility for the student learning another language up until the time where he becomes truly bilingual. But functional grammar, laying stress on the elementary structure of the language is as essential as the study of vocabulary, pronunciation, reading, or any other phases of language. Grammar provides a basis upon which the student can build. Without the guidance which grammar gives him, the student is adrift on a vast sea of complex language forms which makes little sense to him. Grammar serves to reduce these forms to set patterns. The student studies these patterns and learns to master them. In this way, he in time comes to understand and use the language. The teaching of a language should be considered more as the imparting of a skill than as the provision of information about the forms of the language.

When the needs of the bilingual child overlap with those of English speaking students in the classroom, is the time where grammar will be formally scheduled. (This will vary with the child and his facility in the use of English). It will include the parts of speech and the various grammatical forms most needed for clarity of thought and accuracy of expression and interpretation.

Improvement in usage should constantly be sought in speech and writing in all grades and subjects by means of direct instruction for this purpose. Drills will be used when the center of attention is on grammar and usage. When the objective is to stimulate thoughtful speech or writing, emphasis should then be placed on content rather than form.

MATHEMATICS

The reputation of mathematics today resembles that of the automobile 50 years ago. Then cars were thought to be expensive and dangerous. It was not believed that anyone but a rich man would ever be able to own one, or anyone but a specially trained chauffeur able to drive one. In the same way mathematics is still believed to be for the exceptional person, for the aristocracy of intellect—for the few.

It is time that someone did for mathematics what Ford did for cars when he produced the Model T.

Not only do industry and science need more high-powered mathematicians than the few thousand available at this time, but it is becoming *necessary* for the *entire* population to have a basic understanding of mathematics and science, in order to cope with the growing complexity of life and the ever accelerating pace of change.

Teachers must be aware of the importance of making the bilingual-bicultural child conscious of the usefulness of the world of numbers. Think how difficult it will be for the child whose native tongue has no word to denote numbers larger than five. Each of the unifying ideas of mathematics should be introduced in the first grade .Each idea will be frequently re-examined in each succeeding grade. Although the child's mind is far from ready to master these ideas in all their generality, seeds of each must be planted early. These will grow year by year in the right climate, into mature understanding.

Through the uses of imaginatively designed materials and searching teaching methods, teachers can bring the element of discovery into the classroom, thus stimulating the child to seek out the secrets of mathematics and helping him to substitute *why* for *how*.

SCIENCE

As a regularly scheduled subject, science will be taught for knowledge about physical environment and as a way of thinking.

Perhaps the greatest appeal of science to the child learning a second language, is activity. He must have first-hand experiences that will help him see relationships and make applications. This in turn will help him develop skills and resourcefulness.

Although many specific aims might be suggested, the following are representatives of the general objectives found in a good elementary school science program:

1. Build science experiences around the solving of problems which are significant to boys and girls.
2. Provide activities which aid children to gain skill in the use of many methods of finding out things for themselves.
3. Enlarge upon children's ever-present curiosity and interest in the world around them helping them gain an appreciation of the potential of science and technology for improving man's welfare, and alerting them to the dangers of misuse of scientific knowledge.
4. Select experiences which aid children to understand some generalizations and principles of science applicable to the solving of problems in their environment.
5. Show that advances in science require freedom of thought and inquiry.
6. Illustrate the relation of science to other areas of knowledge.

SOCIAL STUDIES

In the area of the social studies, untold opportunities arise to convey to the child coming from a subculture, the ideal image of what the behavior and thoughts of the members of the dominant culture should be. Out of a good social studies program can come a greater depth of cross-cultural understanding between teachers and students.

Children must understand the importance of our development as a nation, why the American way of life is so important. How America became the "Melting Pot" of the world, is a very important concept to be taught.

Quoting from the 17th Yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies: "But it is not enough to produce informed, understanding individuals. Although knowledge is essential, intelligent action is the end we seek. It follows that the primary responsibility of the American History course—is not only to foster that knowledge which leads to understanding, but to cultivate the ability to think and act intelligently."

The study of place geography should be scheduled systematically from the fourth grade, with the location of the school as the starting point. World geography may grow from this beginning as spelled out in the state course of study. Incidental instruction will occur throughout the grades with maps and globes to be available at all times. This study will occur in literature, history, art, music, science, and seasonal activities.

VI. *THE ROLE OF THE LINGUIST IN THE CLASSROOM*

An impression has been created, by the general public, that all one needs to teach English to non-English speaking students is a knowledge of the language. Obviously, this is far from true; teachers who have taught this type of student have discovered that this would be wasting not only their time but the students'. Teachers must have a knowledge of the structure of the language and how it functions in order to teach economically and efficiently. The teaching of a second language is hard work. This work will bring success if teachers organize the material to be taught and discipline themselves to make their students do the work.

It has been, and will be said, of course, that many teachers of children learning a second language are able to achieve good results without the explicit aid of specific linguistic knowledge. This may very well be true, but we believe that a careful consideration of the basis of successful teaching will reveal that it can often be traced to a kind of "native wisdom" or intutive grasp of the very facts and attitudes taught by linguistic science, *combined with the use of teaching materials which have been influenced by the findings of linguistic science.*

The student learning a second language has a tendency, which teachers are always fighting, to use the sounds and patterns of his own language in speaking English, because he does not hear the difference. He must not only learn the sounds of the new language but learn not to use the sounds of his own language. Language learning consists in breaking old habits and acquiring new ones. Teachers recognize that specific drill is needed to make the recognition and systematizing of sounds in English automatic for their bilingual students.

There has been far too much loose talk from people who know too little about the application of linguistics to language teaching. There are those who talk of the "linguistic method" of language teaching, as if to oppose it to some hypothetical "non-linguistic method" used in the past. *Linguistcs is not a teaching method,* but a growing body of knowledge and theory; and though it may offer helpful answers to some of the problems of language teaching, it surely does not know all the answers.

The channels of comunication have been poor not only between teachers and linguists; they have been equally poor between the various groups of teachers, of second languages, and even between various groups of linguists. Too often teachers suddenly given the task of teaching a second language have no way of finding out how others have approached the problems involved in this task.

Second language teachers as well as teachers of English, as a first language, and linguists should be willing to talk to each other and neither group consider itself beyond enlightenment by the other. It has been pointed out that many times linguists antagonize teachers. Even with the best of good will on both sides, these antagonisms stem from such fundamental differences in viewpoint that they will not soon disappear. This is not based on such relatively trivial antagonisms as those caused by the terminological excesses of the linguists, or by their enthusiastic exaggeration of the importance of a linguistic approach to language teaching. It stems more from the idea that linguists seem to deny certain cultural values that teachers have long cherished.

First of all when we speak of applied linguistics in the classroom, we are dealing with only one aspect of the language teaching problem. Language teaching is composed of three different elements. First there is the language itself, its sounds and its structure. Just because we speak a language does not by any means imply that we know the best way of analyzing and presenting it, this is an area where we may, indeed, look to linguist for enlightenment and guidance. Next there is the pedagogical problem of teaching the language in such a way that the students will learn it. It would be sad indeed if we taught them now to speak English only to find that they could say nothing worth listening to. And here we run into the greatest antagonism from classroom teachers. Our cultural traditions place the highest value of all on the third aspect of teaching, of course we want our students to read and know what they read. However, linguists have no contribution to make in this area and, as teachers, we tend to look down on it as a non-intellectual technology which deals only with the mechanics of language. We scorn it as being only fit to teach a Berlitz-type language, and fit for nothing else. Teachers are very sure they can make very little contributions to language teaching. But of course they can. For the great ideas cannot be gotten merely for the asking but only by learning the language first. If only to get the great ideas faster we should exploit the technology of linguistics to the utmost.

Following will be found a brief, but very concise review, of second language teaching by the well known linguist and author, Dr. Virginia French Allen. This brief summary should encourage teachers of a second language to learn more about the linguistic approach and its place in the school's curriculum.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language: An Overview

VIRGINIA FRENCH ALLEN
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An overview might reach backwards in time, noting high points (and low ones) in the history of the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. Or an overview might stretch outward in space, taking in the various kinds of teaching programs now functioning

in this country and abroad. Either sort of overview could be interesting, and could help to put into perspective the work of a teacher in the English as a Foreign Language classroom. But since this talk is intended to set the stage for workshop discussions of specific teaching problems and possible solutions, we might more usefully choose a different focus for our present overview. We might – and, in fact we will – focus on certain questions which suggest what is essentially involved in teaching English as a Foreign Language – anywhere, at any time, to students of any cultural or linguistic background.

Just how does *learning* English as a foreign language differ from learning English as one's first language? What do these differences mean to the teacher of English as a Foreign Language? How do these differences affect the teacher's role, his classroom techniques and procedures, the kinds of materials to be used? While we are working toward answers to such questions, let us look in on someone who is learning English in the way native speakers learn it – learning English as the *native* language.

Not long ago an American child, four years old, was pried loose from his favorite television program and was forcibly conducted to the dining room, for dinner with his parents. At the table, the child gulped down some of his food, played messily with the rest of it, and was appropriately scolded by his parents. In reply, the four-year-old said, "Do you know what I would do if I had a child who didn't eat right? I'd say, 'We don't want you around here any more. Go away and look at TV!' "

On hearing this little speech, the parents exchanged the kind of glance that is usually exchanged on such occasions. (How early a child learns devious ways of making a point!) But these parents happened to be teachers of English as a Foreign Language in their non-domestic hours, so they were impressed by something else: by how easily the native speaker masters the patterns of speech that the non-native speaker must work hard and long to learn.

Just what has the child in this story learned to do? He has learned to make the kind of question that starts with the auxiliary *do*: "Do you know . . ." He has learned to make a negative statement, using the auxiliary *do* plus *not* or *n't*: "We don't want you around here." He has learned to use the command or request pattern: "Go away . . ."

But, in addition to these patterns, which are usually taught during the elementary phase of English as a Foreign Language instruction, this four-year old native speaker has also learned to use a noun clause as the object of a verb: "Do you know *what I would do* . . ." (Students at the English as a Foreign Language intermediate level and beyond still need to be taught this pattern; they still need to learn not to say, "Do you know what *would I do* . . .").

Even more impressively, this four-year old native speaker has mastered the *contrary-to-fact* or *hypothetical* construction represented by" . . . what I *would* do if I *had* a child . . ." He has also learned to use relative clauses: ". . . a child *who didn't eat right*"; and he has mastered the intricacies of "sequence of tenses."

This child is not exceptionally bright: he has not yet learned how to tell time, for example; and his linguistic accomplishments could be matched by almost any of his age-mates who are native speakers of English. Yet, like most of his age-mates, he has already mastered constructions that remain difficult for students of English as a Foreign Language, straight up through the most advanced classes.

Few if any of these matters will need to be taught this child when he goes to school and "takes" English. They won't need to be taught because – like other normal English-speaking children – he has already learned these things before reaching school age. Yet the constructions we have mentioned are among the ones most needing to be taught to students of English as a Foreign Language. Every experienced teacher here recognizes them as the stuff of which English as a Foreign Language grammar lessons are made.

We have said that our four-year old native speaker of English will never need to be taught the grammatical constructions ilustrated in that dinner-table speech. He will not need to be taught many other matters essential to English communication, either. Like other English-speaking children, he can already pronounce each of the vowel sounds and consonant sounds of English. He knows which word or words to stress in each sentence. He has mastered the system of intonation that characterizes English statements, requests, and questions: he knows (though of course he does not *know* that he knows) when to make his voice fall to a low tone, and when to make his voice rise.

In short, before ever entering an English class, the native speaker already knows – and *habitually uses* – most of the signals which English-speaking people enjoy for conveying meaning.

True, the native-speaking child in our example still needs to learn many irregular forms. He still says, "I *throwed* that ball," and "I *teared* that paper," and "Who are those *childrens*?" He still has a great deal of vocabulary to learn: even adult native speakers keep on learning vocabulary as long as they live.

But in a very true sense the pre-school child can be said to have *learned* English. That is, he has mastered the English sound system and intonation curves. He has mastered the English ways of arranging words and putting them in conventional order. He has mastered the *fundamental* operations employed by English in changing the forms of words to express plural number or past time: (even his mistakes "throwed," "teared," and "childrens") show that he has grasped the *essentials* of form-change in English. He has learned to use auxiliaries, prepositions, pronouns, and the other "building blocks" of sentences. All these things the native speaker has learned before he begins to "study" English in school.

Now what does this suggest to those of us who teach English as a Foreign Language? It reminds us that — if English is our native language — the most fundamental matters to be taught to our students are things which we ourselves learned *long, long ago* — so long ago that we cannot remember learning them. We take them for granted, like breathing. It may not occur to us that these matters need to be taught to anyone, unless our attention is called to the need, through experience in the English as a Foreign Language classroom, or in some other way. Yet these things that we learned without ever being conscious of learning them are among the very things that most need to be taught to students who learned some other system of communication before studying English.

Let us now consider in specific terms some of these fundamental matters that need to be taught. First, let us consider matters of pronunciation. What must we teach the English as a Foreign Language student in order to equip him with the set of signals that we native speakers never had to be taught in school?

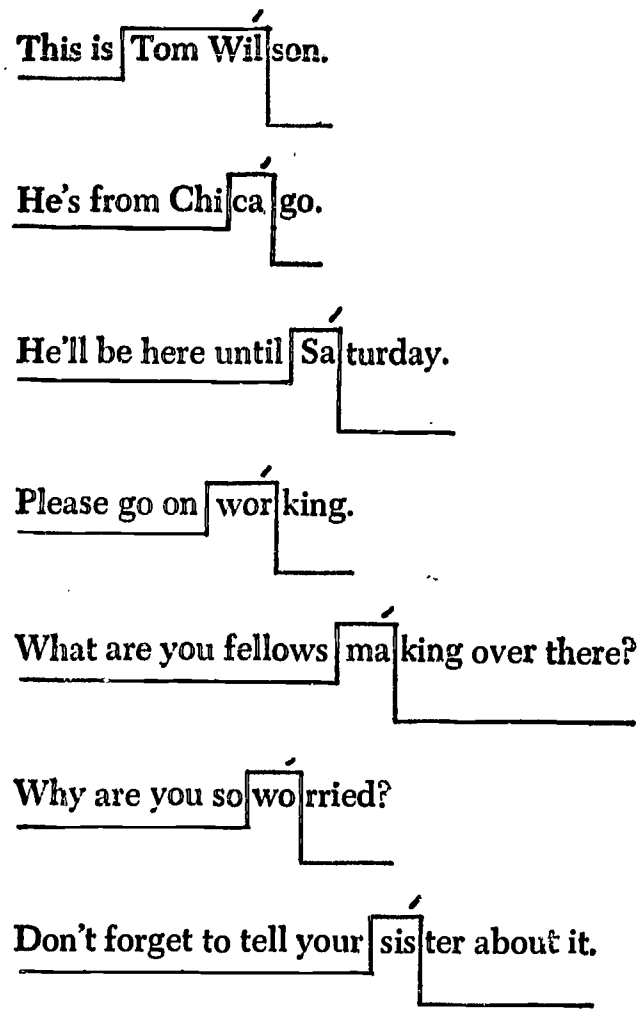
Obviously, the English as a Foreign Language student needs to learn English *sounds*. He needs to learn to hear accurately and produce clearly the vowel sounds that distinguish *eat* from *it, late* from *let, bed* from *bad, hat* from *hot, fool* from *full, coat* from *caught, caught* from *cut,* and so on.

He needs also to learn to hear accurately and pronounce clearly the *consonant* sounds that distinguish *pig* from *big, pig* from *pick, thank* from *sank, then* from *den, thin* from *thing, place* from *plays* — these consonant sound distinctions, and many more.

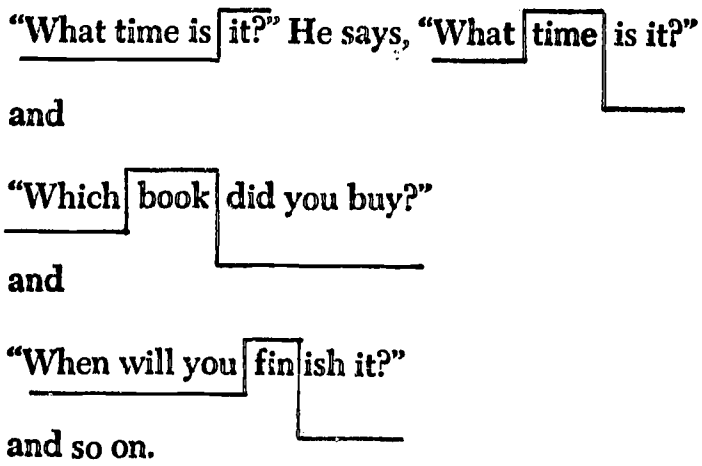
He needs to learn the dipthongs, as in *die* or *my, boy* or *voice, now* or *sound*. He needs to learn the consonant clusters, like the *ts* cluster in *hats,* or the *sp* cluster in *speak,* or the *lpt* cluster in *helped* — to cite just a few from a formidable list of possibilities.

The student needs to learn to make all these sounds, through imitation if possible, but aided by the teacher's explanations of articulatory processes if mimicry is not enough. Most of all, the student needs to be helped to form *habits* of *using* these sounds. He needs to make their use *automatic,* so that he will never have to stop and think how they should be pronounced.

Of course, the English as a Foreign Language student must learn more than just the sounds of English; he must learn English intonation, too. He must learn the "speech melody" that is as much a part of English as the sounds themselves. It is in the teaching of intonation that many native speakers find it hardest to be objective about their own language, to bring into awareness the facts they unconsciously observed about English before they were five years old. To begin with, most people who learned English "at their mother's knee" have never consciously noticed that *most* English sentences start on the speaker's *middle* tone, rise on the last stressed syllable of the sentence, and then fall to the speaker's lowest tone, at the end of the sentence. Let us listen to a few examples:



From the foregoing examples, we can observe that "falling" intonation is characteristic of English *statements, requests,* and *commands.* We can also observe that "falling intonation" is characteristic of a certain important type of English *question* — namely, questions beginning with words like *What, Which, Who, When, Where,* and *Why.* Questions of this sort are sometimes called "Wh-" questions. They are sometimes called "information" questions because they elicit information beyond a mere *yes* or *no.* What they are called is not important; the important thing is that the English as a Foreign Language student should learn to drop his voice immediately after the last stressed syllable of such a question. He should learn to say, for example, "What time is it?" An English-speaking person who wants to know the time does not normally say:



Of course, the student needs to learn much more about intonation than *this.* But "falling intonation" for statements, commands, requests, *and "Wh-" questions* is certainly one of the fundamentals to be grasped and applied by students of English as a Foreign Language.

We native speakers learned it before we were four years old.

We have said that learning to pronounce English means learning *intonation* as well as *sounds*. Let us now add *stress* and *rhythm* to the list of essentials. Obviously a student cannot "drop" his voice "after the last stressed syllable in the sentence" if he does not know which words or syllables should be stressed. And his English will sound most un-English (if not unintelligible) to most listeners if he stresses parts of the sentence that no native speaker would stress. If we fail to teach the student how the English stress system works, he will naturally carry the stress patterns of his own language over into English. For speakers of many languages, the result might be something like this: "Don't FORget TO tell HIM." The result is a sentence that sounds odd and confusing; it calls attention to words that have no "logical" reason for being emphasized; and the jerky, staccato rhythm of the sentence is not the rhythm of English. (Unlike many other languages, English has relatively few high, stressed syllables, preceded and followed by varying numbers of unstressed syllables which are spoken quickly, without emphasis.)

Sounds, intonation, stress, and rhythm — these are pronunciation features to be learned by students of English as a Foreign Language. In later sessions of this conference you may wish to discuss these features in detail. But now a word about the role of the teacher in the pronunciation class. To save time, let me list a few points in quite a dogmatic fashion:

In the pronunciation class (or in the pronunciation portion of the class period) —

1. The teacher should provide models (example words and sentences) that illustrate the operation of the English system of sounds, intonation, stress, and rhythm.
2. The students should imitate these models, both chorally and individually.
3. When imitation alone fails to produce results, the teacher should explain what to do with the speech apparatus in order to make the desired sound.
4. As little time as possible should be spent on the *theory* of pronunciation, stress, etc. *Most* of the class time should be reserved for students' practice and drill.
5. At first the drill may be (perhaps should be) quite mechanical so that students may concentrate full attention upon the new muscular habits. Gradually the practice should be made more meaningful, until at last the student is able to maintain the new muscular habits even while paying attention chiefly or wholly to the meaning of what he is saying.

At this point, someone might wish to ask, "What about phonetics? Must the teacher use phonetic symbols in the pronunciation class?" In reply, I would say that phonetic symbols have no power in and of themselves. But most students need *some* sort of visual clue to the difference between sounds — some way of remembering, for instance, how the *oo* is pronounced in *school* and in *book*. Conventional orthography is no real clue at all, in cases like *school, book, moon, good* — and the often cited *ough* words *(though, through, thought,* and so on) — among the great many examples that anyone could readily mention. Some reliable set of clues to pronunciation is needed for most students. Whatever system of symbols the teacher uses (IPA, dictionary diacritical marks, number symbols, or any other set) each symbol should stand for just *one* — and always the same — sound.

To sum up what has been said about the role of the English as a Foreign Language teacher, so far as pronunciation is concerned: the teacher is in the classroom to pronounce words and sentences for the students to imitate and repeat. He is there to tell students *how* to pronounce when mimicry fails to work. He is there to set up drills and practices and to keep these going. He is there to supervise the transition from controlled, mechanical drill to freer and more meaningful speech. He is there more to *listen* than to talk: the *students* are the ones who need practice in *speaking*.

In our comments on the pronunciation aspects of English as a Foreign Language teaching, we have noted that the teacher needs to deal mainly with matters which he himself — if a native speaker of English — never had to learn in school at all. The same might also be said almost as accurately about the teaching of *grammar* (or *structure*, as it is now commonly called).

In schools across the nation, native speakers of English spend much time in grammar classes working on the standard uses of irregular verb forms. Their teachers exhort them to say "I lay down yesterday," instead of "I laid down yesterday." They study the uses of *between* and *among*, and so on. But no native speaker in a grammar class needs to be taught to put the subject before the verb, or to put the adjective before the noun, or to say "I came *here yesterday*" instead of "I came *yesterday here*."

Students of English as a *Foreign* Language *do* need to learn such things — unless, of course, their native language arranges words just as English does; and this is most unlikely. English as a Foreign Language students need to be taught to say "fruit juice" instead of "juice fruit"; to say "I never drink coffee" instead of "I drink never coffee" or "Never I drink coffee." They need to learn to reverse the order of verb and subject for a direct question ("When will he arrive?") but to put the subject before the verb for an indirect question ("Can you tell me when *he will* arrive?"). These are a few of the structural matters to be learned by a student of English as a Foreign Language. They are, of course, matters of *word order*. No native speaker of English needs to learn them in school: he already knows them.

In addition to learning the English speaking person's habitual ways of arranging words in various kinds of

sentences, the English as a Foreign Language student must learn how the native speaker uses "function words" – pronouns, auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions – the words English uses for showing relationships between the "content" words in a sentence. For students from most language groups, one of the hardest function-word problems is the problem of the English *article*. The student must learn when to use the indefinite article *(a/an)*, when to use the definition article *(the)*, and when to put no article at all before the noun. Native speakers do not need to be taught the difference between "I ate chicken" and "I ate a chicken" – for example – but the distinction is not at all obvious to many a student of English as a Foreign Language.

Words order and *function words*, then, are essentials to be dealt with in the grammar (or structure) curriculum of any English as a Foreign Language program if we are to give the English as a Foreign Language student control over the English way of signalling meaning. In addition, the student needs to learn *inflections*. The term *inflections*, as used here, does not refer to modulations in the tone of voice: inflections are changes in word-forms, like the change from *talk* to *talks*, or from *talk* to *talked*, from *man* to *men*, and so on. Native speakers of English can usually understand why irregular forms of verbs and nouns need much drill in the English as a Foreign Language class. But many teachers are less prepared for the difficulties that non-native speakers meet in attempting to master the "third-person-singulars." To the English as a Foreign Language student, it seems illogical and unfair that English should put *-s* on the *plural* form of a noun – but on the singular form of a verb.

Having said that the English as a Foreign student must learn to use word order, function words, and inflections, we ought next to consider how the teacher is to help the student learn to use them. Again let me list some specific suggested procedures, with apologies for the overly arbitrary terms.

In the structure class (or in the portion of the class period in which a structure point is to be taught) –

1. The teacher should first *say* three or four example sentences that illustrate the structural pattern to be taught. The students should repeat each sentence after the teacher.
2. The examples should be on the blackboard (or on the textbook page) – arranged in such a way as to call attention to the crucial feature of the pattern. For instance, if the point to be learned is "Put the expression of *place* before the expression of *time*," the examples might look like this:

		PLACE	TIME
The teacher	is	at the blackboard	now.
We	are	in the classroom	right now.
Everyone	is	here	today.

3. *After* the examples have been said and seen, the teacher should call attention to the point to be learned, stating the point simply and briefly in the form of a generalization, for instance: "Notice that the expression of place comes before the expression of time in these sentences." (The class should have been told, early in the structure course, that they are learning the *usual* way of arranging words in sentences; and that when native speakers use some different arrangement, they do so for special effect.)
4. After the generalization has been briefly stated, the students (with help from the teacher) should make up *many* other sentences of the same type as the example sentences, e.g.:
   Teacher: "Let's make up more sentences like the first example. Change *at the blackboard* to something else. Change it to *at school* or *in this room*, for instance."
   Student: 1. "The teacher is in this room now."
   Student: 2. "The teacher is at school now."
   (Choral repetition should alternate with individual recitations; and the teacher should suggest place-expressions and time-expressions when the students need help.)
5. Next, the students should use this same pattern or sentence-framework in examples of their own devising, *not* directly derived from the example sentences. Often these examples have to be prompted by the teacher's questions. For instance:
   Teacher: "Where is your mother now? Where are your brothers and sisters today?"
   Student X: "My mother is at home today."
   Student Y: "My brother is in Denver right now."
   etc., etc.
6. Finally, after the students have had ample opportunity to form the *habit* of using the pattern (by using it many times correctly) – *then* the teacher should test the students' ability to use it. Exercises of the sort found in most English as a Foreign Language textbooks are usually testing exercises: they test the student's ability to choose the right form from among various possibilities. And free *conversation* is a *testing* activity; it tests the student's ability to choose the right form when he is not concentrating on structural matters at all.

Let me emphasize four points concerning the foregoing set of steps.

First: The generalization or "rule" is given *after* the examples have been seen, heard, and said by the students.

Second: The generalization is as brief and as simple as possible.

Third: The teacher aims to help each student form the *habit* of using the pattern correctly. The teacher does not try to trick the student into using the wrong form. He is not satisfied with a mere intellectual grasp of the pattern: he works for habitual *control* over the pattern.

Fourth: The students are not *tested* on their ability to choose between right and wrong ways of doing the task until they have been *taught* to do the task right.

I hope that, in some of our workshop sessions, we may have time to discuss further the importance of *habit-forming* classroom activities, and the importance of *teaching before testing.*

I hope, too, that there will be time to discuss the many other aspects of English as a Foreign Language teaching which I have not attempted to deal with here. The workshop materials call attention to some profoundly important questions concerning the teaching of vocabulary, the problems created by differences in cultural outlook, and other matters of deep concern to you and to all of us who teach English as a foreign language.

In our limited time this morning, I have tried to focus our "overview" on the essence of the problem of teaching English as a Foreign Language as a *system of signals* for communication. We have been considering what is involved in giving the English as a Foreign Language student *control* over the signalling system — the system that native speakers have already learned to operate before they start to study English in school.

VII. LANGUAGE LEARNING FROM A TEACHER'S VIEWPOINT

There is considerable agreement among authorities that the child in his early school years is at a favorable stage physiologically as well as emotionally for learning a second language. During these years the child's language activities apply to his everyday life and are more direct and simplified than they will be later when activities such as reading, writing, and social studies, have the effect of imputing to language many subtle and associate meanings.

Being aware of this fact a teacher can do more in her efforts to promote second language learning with beginners. The child who is learning a second language is not only a "learner" in language but in a whole new cultural milieu. This gives the teacher untold freedom in an all-encompassing approach to her students. From this basis she can purposely and wisely make use of the many language teaching methods, aids and devices available to her and use them as soon and as continuously as the children's development permit.

How do young children learn a second language? They hear new sounds in words, phrases, and sentences. By experimenting with these sounds tentatively or boldly they become familiar. The social and material environment of the school and community, steadily promotes and supports their new language learning.

Teachers must provide for these happenings with daily step-by-step planning for children's hearing and listening. She must know just when is the best stage of language development to introduce certain words and structure patterns. There must be various activities planned which will give the children many opportunities to use the new language forms. Above everything else the teacher must arouse and keep alive an interest in language expression, finding ways to give the personal encouragement that children need to adapt, with a minimum of frustration, to new ways of communication.

As in many subject areas the learning of a second language is more difficult to achieve in practice than appears in theory. Language learning does not always progress in an orderly fashion. It would be much easier if a certain number of new structures and a certain amount of vocabulary could be mastered with regularity from week to week by all of the children on a grade level.

Mastery of the "word", the vocabulary, the lexicon, of even our native language is always limited, never complete. The growth of vocabulary is not simply a process of adding new words but of increasing the meaning of those already acquired and accompanies expanding experience. There are no short cuts to control of the complete vocabulary of a foreign language. However, it is possible to attack the problem of learning vocabulary systematically and efficiently rather than haphazard fashion, with no method, and leaving the choice of items to chance. There may be, so it seems, plateau periods when the child, instead of learning new words, appears only to be practicing and using words already acquired. If given the opportunity, the amount of talking, using of words already in his vocabulary, may, at any time, outdistance new word-learning. In teaching a second language teachers must not become impatient to expand their students' vocabulary too rapidly. Accuracy of sound, of rhythm, or intonation, of structural forms and of arrangement, within a limited range of expression, must come first and become an automatic habit before the student is ready to devote his chief attention to expanding his vocabulary.

The acquisition of vocabulary, in learning a new language, should be planned in a systematic way, and not left entirely to chance encounter in the speech and writings of others. It is necessary for the teacher to be able to classify vocabulary items according to the role they play in the stream of speech.

The study of words naturally follows their division in the four classes: things, actions, qualities and functions. The pattern practice exercises for the learning of English will inevitably employ most of the little words in the functions class, such as auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions, interrogatives, words of time, place and ownership, and markers of particularity (articles) and degree. Function words are learned early in second language study.

After this there remains the vast area of "content" words, the sort that dictionaries are made of. The choice of content words for the student to study is guided first of all by the situations and circumstances of his immediate environment.

Be careful to avoid the trap of thinking you can teach a second language just as the child learns his native tongue. Your students are not infants and they, as six year olds, already have a satisfactory means of communication in their native tongue. Of course the nearer you come to teaching young children a second language in the way in which they learned a first language the faster and more lasting the learning will be. His first language learning occurred naturally in his social environment. Probably no other aspect of second language instruction will test the ingenuity and skill of the teacher more than providing practice with purpose, meaning and pleasure.

The teacher will find, at first, she cannot go far beyond the present time, and the child's immediate surroundings in the daily program. To be meaningful to the child language must deal with what can be seen, touched, smelled and tasted. Second language thinking of children has been found to deal with concrete objects and actions. Children who speak English the most, invariably speak the best English.

Individuals learn to speak in their native tongue at different ages and their capacities for language learning differ. This is known to apply also to the learning of a second language. Teachers should know just where each child is in his first language development and start from this stage. The differential rates of second language learning with individual children are not only the results of methods used, age differential and intelligent levels, but also cues to the general level of the individual's emotional adjustment and the resolution of cultural identification and conflict.

With children who come to school with a non-English background, some may have a large experiental background with well-developed meaning to which the English words can be attached. Others will have a small stock of meanings and a narrow experiental background, or their background will be one upon which the school does not (perhaps cannot) capitalize. Put in simple form, children will fall into the following types:

1. The child has the normal store of the required concepts and has labels for those concepts, but those labels are non-English ones.
2. The child has the concepts, but he is deficient in labels (English or non-English). This may be as true of an English-speaking child as of a Spanish-speaking child.
3. The child does not have well-developed concepts, and whatever labels he uses (non-English or English) are more or less meaningless; that is, he does not know what he is talking about.

Much second language learning will take place before newly learned words can be used. It seems important to recognize the fact that one's mastery of any language — even of one's own native language — is always on two major levels, *production* and *recognition*. These two levels are practically never equal. The range of "words" we can recognize and understand exceeds that of the "words" in speech or even in writing. In the use of a second language the difference between the ability to recognize or understand and the ability to produce or speak stands out even more noticeably. It is true that the two interact and condition one another and in the actual practice of the language can hardly be separated. As one advances in the ability to produce or use the language he increases the range and the depth of his understanding; and increase in understanding shows itself in a greater ability to produce. But in spite of the fact that these two abilities are so closely interwoven, from the point of view of teaching and of learning in the early stages, they constitute two distinct even if complimentary aspects of language control. The period between hearing and speaking appears to be an important learning stage and not always appreciated as such. Periods set aside for language learning might be used in a variety of ways that may seem unrelated to language. These activities should be communicative and expressive. They also should become increasingly verbal.

Teachers should not wait for a child to be ready to speak English. They should be prepared to help at the first signal of a child's readiness to try to speak the new language. Helping him with the best procedures and aid at her command is imperative.

It is significant that the child forms the most accurate speech sounds in the beginning and discard incorrect sounds as soon as possible. The most important consideration, however, is that the child *speaks* and that he has something interesting to talk about. Do not make him self-conscious, by over-zealous attacks upon his pronunciation. Children will gradually make corrections of their own if they hear and have many opportunities to practice the new language.

A teacher's voice has great effect upon students in each classroom. In the classroom her voice is the principal model. Children will pick up inflection and intonation before they have facility in a language. (Take note of the year old baby — who will have the exact intonation and inflection of his mother's tongue in his babyish babbling.) Pitch and tone of the teacher's voice is very important. There may be certain voice traits of the teacher that discourages the child's effort to speak. The emotional tone of his voice is meaningful long before the child understands English. Lacking a knowledge of English they are left only with the cues they can obtain from voice tone and the expressive gesture of his teacher. Here, too, however, a facial expression or a gesture may mean something else to him, since gestures are also a language and are richly colored by each culture with specific meanings. These factors have implications for creating a welcome classroom atmosphere that is conducive to friendly, free verbal interchanges.

As the child acquires a second language a concentrated effort to provide for other aspects of his development will pay large dividends. Much of the progress will depend upon the relationship between the child and teacher. It can be warm and friendly without a common language for communication. Are the child's contacts with other children easy and congenial regardless of language and cultural differences? Will there be provisions for many expressive activities on the child's developmental level? Make your oral directions as direct and as individual as possible. Utilization of such techniques will motivate the most timid child to have an interest in classroom activities and should stimulate verbal expression in English.

You hear from many teachers how shy, unagressive and unassertive the linguistically handicapped student seems to be. These characteristics are not conducive to learning, and much less to expression in a new language. To learn a second language one must have the capacity to take chances, be unafraid of making mistakes, and find satisfaction in an expressive activity. The teacher must incorporate ways of meeting such considerations in her basic planning.

Marie M. Hughes in *Learning a New Language* has this to say:

"Language facility, acquisition and use are directly related to the total life situation of an indi-

vidual; therefore, attitudes toward the language of the larger group will be colored, in part, by the conflict which the child feels in relation to that group. His desire and willingness to learn the new language, his feeling that it is necessary and worthwhile to learn it; his feelings about school and teachers are all related to a complex of experiences that differ in some aspects from one child to another. This burden he carries and thus he is differentiated from children of the dominant group in ways that transcend the fact that he does not speak English. He has learned his home language in the same manner that other children have learned theirs. He has a large stock of meanings, a not-to-large stock, or a very meager stock. He finds it easy to talk and has learned to expect responsiveness from others or the opposite. He is like other children in his differences; he is unlike other children as a member of a minority group because he views the world with the affective elements that he has learned as a member of a particular family and sub-group."*

*Hughes, Marie M., Sanchez, George I., **Learning A New Language**, Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 Fifteenth Street, N. W., Washington 5, D. C., 1958.

VIII. COMPARISONS BETWEEN NATIVE LANGUAGES AND ENGLISH

The fairly new field of applied linguistics has much to offer to classroom teachers in the instruction of bilingual children. Comparisons of languages have proved of fundamental value for the preparation of teaching materials, tests and language learning experiments. Teachers who have an understanding of this field acquire insights and tools for evaluating the language and culture content of textbooks and tests, supplementing the materials in use, preparing new materials and tests, and diagnosing student difficulties in learning English more accurately.

Of special interest to the teachers of Arizona will be the brief descriptions of the Navajo and Spanish languages presented in this bulletin. The comparisons rest on the assumption that we can predict and describe the structural and phonemic patterns that will cause difficulty, and those that will not, by comparing systematically the language to be learned with the native language of the student.

The Use of the Negative Question*

*Fries, Charles, Foundation for English Teaching

Experienced teachers have found that the negative question is one of the structural items especially difficult for many bilingual children. The difficulty, of course, arises from the fact that their native languages differ fundamentally from English in dealing with questions. These differences become especially clear in the use of, and in the responses to, negative particles in questions. To teach the "negative question" then is strategically important, for only when the pupil can handle responses to negative questions automatically can we be sure that he has attained real mastery of the English way of dealing with questions generally. The importance of the negative question arises, also, out of another fact. The negative question occurs much more frequently in the speech of native speakers of English than the speakers themselves realize.

The negative question however, like other items of structure cannot be effectively taught as an isolated structural item. It must be built into other structural patterns, especially into the use of so called "yes and no" questions from the very beginning. Unless that is done, with the establishing of some simple correlations at the start, the problems of the negative question and of the "tag question" become tremendously difficult. (Example: It's a beautiful day. Isn't it?) The essential contrasts that must precede in order to lead into the teaching of negative yes/no questions are indicated as numbered in the following:

1. (For the contrast, my/your.)
   My name's Mary. What's your name?
   My name's John.
2. (For the contrast your/his/her.)
   What's your friend's name?
   His/Her name is (Dick, Jane).
3. (For the contrast, his name is..... Is his name .....? Contrast of position in statement versus that of question.)
   His name is John. Is his name John?
   Yes, His name is John.
4. (For the contrast, yes with is/no with isn't There must be correlation with the fact.)
   Is his name John?
   No. His name isn't John. His name is Dick.
5. (For the contrast, short answers, Yes. It is./No. It isn't. There must be correlation of Yes. It is. or No. It isn't. with the fact.)
   Is his name John?
   Yes. It is.
   Is his name Dick?
   No. It isn't.

Practice to develop automatic habits in the short answers of it is with yes (as in Yes. It is.) and it isn't with no (as in No. It isn't.)

This correlation of yes with It is always, and no with It isn't always must be 100 per cent automatic and rapid. No exception; and never yes without It is or no without It isn't.

The selection of (Yes. It is. or No. It isn't.) is always to be made on the basis of the fact. The pupil must be made conscious of this basis in actual fact for the selection of (Yes. It is. or No. It isn't). There must never be a "pretend" situation in which these answers are used in opposition to the obvious fact.

Then, after the correlation of yes with It is has been established with no with It isn't, each always chosen with regard to the fact, the answers to questions containing a negative particle can be tied to this base.

6. (For contrast of form of a question, Is your name Mary?/Isn't your name Mary? Both have exactly the same answer in accordance with the fact, Yes. It is.)
   Is your name Mary?
   Yes. It is. My name's Mary.
   Isn't your name Mary?
   Yes. It is. My name is Mary.
7. (For contrast of form of question. Is his name John? / Isn't his name John? Both have exactly the same answer in accordance with the fact, No. It isn't.)
   Is his name John?
   No. It isn't. His name is not John.
   Isn't his name John?
   No it isn't. His name is not John.
   His name is Dick.

Only when the basic habits of response to the necessary preliminary contrast have been established in this fashion can the "negative question" be taught with success. After the negative question has been taught and practiced in this way the pupil will have no difficulty with the so-called "tag questions". Success in teaching the "negative question" does not depend upon the "method" used by the teacher in his teaching. Success with this especially difficult item of structure depends almost

entirely on having such an *integrated sequence* in the structural materials so that all the essential contrasts upon which to establish the necessary habits of response have been built into the materials before the negative question is introduced.

The Navajo Language

The following material was prepared by Mr. Robert W. Young of the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs for the Appendix of the 1960-1961 Navajo Yearbook. The sketch was provided largely for the purpose of providing basic information to teaching personnel in schools serving Navajo children, and to the interested public. Partly it was included for the purpose of dispelling the popular myths that commonly surround Indian languages.

One noticeable difference in the articulation of the speech sound of English by Navajos, in contrast with native speakers, stems from the relative tenseness of the muscles used in producing the sounds by Navajo children as compared with the relative looseness of articulation of the same English sounds by native speakers. This feature of tense articulation is largely a carry-over from their native speech habits.

As a generalization, another important cause for faultly substitutions by Navajo speaking English arises from the fact that there is wide divergence between the two languages with reference to those consonants which may occur in syllable or word final position. In Navajo any consonant may be found as a syllable initial element, but only eleven of them occur in syllable final position. These are: d,g, V̀, s, sh, z, zh, n, ł, and h. In contrast English has a great variety of consonants and consonantal clusters in final position. The child learning English may make a substitution for the unaccustomed final stop with omission of one or more of the remaining phonemes.

The Navajo child does not hear the difference between English b and p which do not have parallels in Navajo. He hears them both as his b which is very similar to the de-aspirated p of English spot. He will pronounce bull, and pull both as bull; bill and pill as bill.

As in the instance of Navajo b, described above. Navajo d is substituted by Navajo beginners for both the d and the t of English, especially in syllable initial position.

Navajo beginners carry over from Navajo and substitute in English the prevocalic glottal stop of their own language to pronounce there's /'an/'apple/'on/'a tree. It is this carryover that produces the "choppiness" that so frequently characterizes connected English speech by Navajo beginners.

Navajo beginners usually substitute Navajo d for the dh and th of English. Thus mudder — fadder — (bad for bath) — (din for thin.)

The phoneme ng never occurs as a syllable initial in English, and it does not occur at all in Navajo. Navajo beginners may variously identify this sound with Navajo final -n or with vowel nasalization substituting now one and now the other. Thus sing/seen may both be heard as sįį, siin.

The Navajo reproduced the phoneme l in all English words in the same manner irrespective of its position, with the result that the native speaker of English detects an unusual quality in this sound as reproduced in such words as well, well-being, bull, etc.

Navajo beginners frequently substitute w or l for English r or omit it, as for example wed for red, bwought for brought, cabulato for carburetor.

A detailed description of the reproduction of English phonemes by Navajo beginners would require a much more detailed study of the variants of those phonemes as they occur in initial, medial or final position; as they occur in conjunction with the several vowels; as they occur as components of consonantal clusters, etc. I have set forth the basic differences and pointed out some of the more common types of substitutions made by the Navajo children learning English.

Difficulties That Navajo Students Will Have Learning English: (From analysis of language and experience in teaching Navajo children.)

Although Navajo is not spoken without varying pitch for emphasis, or for the connotation of anger, surprise, etc., the inherent highness or lowness of syllable tones must be carefully distinguished since *tone differentiates* meaning. The fact that Navajo employs tone to distinguish meaning in this manner places certain restrictions on the use of sentence and word pitch as a medium through which to express such overtones of meaning as surprise, incredulity, disgust, interrogation, exclamation, etc.

In Navajo, sentence and word stress is also used similar to, but not in a manner totally paralleling English. If a final syllable of the last word in a sentence is high in tone, the sentence must end at a high voice pitch, regardless of whether it is declarative or interrogative. Thus, dii 'askkii Kii gholghé, this boy is called Kee. The sentence ends at a high voice pitch because the stem-ghé is inherently high, and must contrast with the inherent low tone of the preceding syllable ghol—, although the sentence and word pitch may vary with dii uttered at a higher voice level than the rest of the words in the sentence. Sometimes a particle 'akon, often reduced to it V̀ (glottal stop) serves to mark the end of a sentence and the beginning of another especially in narration, and in proceeding from one subject to a new one in rapid speech.

The Navajo language uses a number of particles to express connotations (see analysis) expressed by sentences and word pitch in English.

In contrast with Navajo, a great variety of consonants and consonantal clusters are found in final position in English. Thus, sick, six, sixth, etc., while not even the simple phoneme k is found in final position in Navajo.

The Navajo beginner may make a substitution for the unaccustomed final stop with omission of one or more of the remaining phonemes.

To distinguish the Navajo stopped consonants b, d, g from those of English, the Navajo sound will be written ɓ, ɗ, ɠ, in the given examples.

Among the variants of English p there is one which loses its aspiration because of a preceding spirant s. Compare the aspirated p of pot with the deaspirated p of spot.

This variant sound is mentioned here primarily because it is a distinctive phoneme or sound in Navajo, while the distinctive phonemes b and p of English do not have parallels in Navajo. The Navajo correspondent to both English b and p is ɓ. And ɓ is very similar to the de-aspirated p of English spot. The Navajo bilabial stop is neither voiced nor aspirated; it is an unaspirated, unvoiced bibalial stop.

It is apparent then that, in this instance, a single distinctive phoneme in Navajo corresponds roughly with two distinctive phonemes of English. As a result of this divergence between the two languages with reference to the labial stops, the Navajo is not accustomed to listening for distinguishing between the separate and distinct sound represented by b and p in English, hearing them both as his own familiar ɓ sound, and substituting his own sound for both English stops, especially when the latter occurs in syllable initial position. Thus, the Navajo beginner is likely to pronounce bull/pull both as ɓull; bill/pill both as ɓill, etc.

In English, b and p occur in syllable final position, as well as in initial position; in Navajo, b never occurs as a syllable final. However, the glottal stop frequently occurs in syllable final position in Navajo, with the result that the Navajo beginner often mis-identifies final -b, -p of English as a glottal stop, and substitutes the latter for the labial stop. Thus stop may become sto'; Bob becomes Bop; pop bo'. In view of the fact that articulation of these labial stops is visible, many Navajo beginners, mimicking their teacher, close the lips as though to produce a final bilabial stop in reporducing such English words as Bob, but still retain a glottal closure preceding the labial closure. The net result is that the stoppage of air still occurs first in the glottis and there is not enough breath pressure remaining to make the bilabial stop audible. Thus stop often becomes sto'p, etc.

As in the instance of Navajo ɓ, described above, Navajo ɗ is substituted by Navajo beginners for both the d and the t of English, especially in syllable initial position to/do, toe/doe.

The phoneme d occurs in final position in Navajo as well as syllable initial position: ɬiɗ, smoke, ɗit, blood. Navajo ɗ or a glottal stop may be variously substituted for syllable final d and t in English words.

In English g and k occur both in syllable initial and in final position; in Navajo only g occurs as a syllable final and then rarely. For example, dég, up, 'at'oig, collarbone. Navajo k occurs only as a syllable initial. In both languages kw occurs only in syllable initial position.

Final -k in English usually replaced by a glottal stop, as pick becomes bi', picnic becomes ɓi'ni'.

Although the glottal stop ʔ does not occur as an English phoneme, it is carried over frequently by Navajo beginners, as a substitution for the English stopped consonants, especially in syllable final.

No Navajo word begins with a vowel. Otherwise vowel initial syllables actually begin with a glottal stop, a fact which is audible in word juncture; that is, words which are otherwise vowel initial are separated from preceding words in a Navajo sentence by a momentary closure of the glottis — a sort of hesitation as it were, rather than blended together as they usually are in connected English speech. It is carried over into English speaking and produces the "choppiness" that so frequently characterizes connected English speech by Navajo beginners.

When č and ǰ occur intervocalically in English words, the dzh is often preceded by a glottal closure in the pronunciation of Navajo beginners. Thus bridges/britches both come out as bri'dzhes. (Although j and ch occur in syllable final position in English, neither of them occur as syllable finals in Navajo, but only as syllable initials.)

Further, and as might be expected, the Navajo affricates ɗz, and ɗl replace certain consonantal clusters of English in the pronunciation of Navajo beginners. Thus ɗz is substituted for the cluster dz in English adze/adz; pads become ɓaɗz. The cluster gl, as a word initial, is often misheard by Navajo beginners, who may substitute the ɗl of Navajo. Thus English glow becomes ɗlo.

Navajo m and n are similar to their corresponding English phonemes, except that m can occur only in syllable initial position in Navajo. When m occurs as a word final sound in English, Navajo beginners often mishear it as a nasalized vowel, although they observe the closure of the lips in production of the phoneme by English speaking people. Usually, the Navajo beginner closes the lips in an m position, nasalizes the preceding vowel and fails to release the lips from the final m position during articulation. Thus, English Sam/Sąm (m representing unreleased m); Rome/Roṃ, etc.

The phomene ng never occurs as a syllable initial in English, and it does not occur at all in Navajo. Navajo beginners may variously identify this sound with Navajo final -n or with vowel nasalization, substituting now one and now the other. Thus sing/seen may both be heard as sįį, siin.

The Navajo reproduces the phoneme l in all English words in the same manner irrespective of its position with the result that the native speaker of English detects an unusual quality in this sound as reproduced in such words as well, well-being, bull, etc.

Navajo beginners frequently subsitute w or l for English r, or omit it, as for example wed for red, bwought for brought, cabulato for carburetor.

Generally, the bilabial w and the palatal y are similar in the two languages except that the back portion of the

tongue is raised higher in producing the Navajo sound, resulting in the production of a weak spirant gh preceding formation of the labial and palatal in reference. Compare English yell with Navajo yinishghé, I am named.

Generally speaking, there is greater tenseness of the tongue and other muscles in the articulation of the Navajo vowels than in the case of English, and they are pronounced without the off-glide or dipthongization so common in English.

VOWELS

Navajo o is more rounded than its closest English correspondent ow (o in go) and the Navajo phoneme varies in the usage of individual speakers from a cardinal o to a cardinal u (Very like the o in Spanish son and the u in luna).

Navajo e and a are articulated with the tongue higher toward the roof of the mouth than otherwise when followed by i, a peculiarity which is sometimes carried over into English in the pronunciation of the compound vowel /ey/ in /hey/ and the /ay/ in /hay/.

Syllable final nasal consonants, such as n, -m, -ng are often confused by Navajos learning English, with their own nasal vowel series. This will be considered in relation to the consonants.

It has been found, in general, the vowel system of English does not constitute a serious pronunciational problem for Navajo Beginners, because of the fairly close correspondence between the vowels and dipthongs of English and those of Navajo. The tenseness of articulation and the absence of off-glide or dipthongization in Navajo often results in audible divergence from standard pronunciation especially when the tenseness characteristic of the articulation of Navajo phonemes is carried over into English pronunciation. The teacher must take time and show the Navajo child not only the position of speech organs in making English sounds but the proper looseness of these organs in the articulation of the sounds of English.

THE BASIC VOWEL SYSTEM
NAVAJO-ENGLISH

CLASS	ENGLISH			NAVAJO		
	Front	Central	Back	Front	Central	Back
Primary	i (bit)		u (put)	i (shí)		
	e (bet)		o (love)	e ('abé)		o (hó)
	æ (bat)	a (alms)	ɔ (bought)		a (gah)	
Semivowels	w		y			
	iy (see)		uw (do)			
	ey (they)		ow (go)	ei ('éí)		
Compound	ay (buy)		ɔ w (boy)	ai (xai)		oi ('ayóí)
	aw (now)		yew (few)			

The Spanish Language

The "inaccuracies" of Spanish-speakers in the use of English sounds result from their effort to produce a sound based upon a somewhat similar sound that exists in Spanish. The failure to acquire an approximate pronunciation of these sounds interferes with intelligibility and frequently conveys wrong meaning. For example, the Spanish-speaker may say:

He is sinking for He is thinking
I am living for I am leaving
I watched the baby for I washed the baby
They saw the cot for They saw the cat
I like jello for I like yellow

A first effort of the teacher should be to help the child gain control over sounds like these, which may result in conveying meaning not intended by the speaker.

The major sound problems of Spanish-speaking pupils in the process of learning to speak English are the following:

Consonant-Sound Problems

1. The th, as in thumb, thin, path. The Spanish-speaker, in attempting to approximate this sound, will usually produce an s sound, as sink, sin, pass.
2. The j, as in the word judge. In atempting to pronounce this sound, the Spanish-speaker will say chuch.
3. The th, as in the words the, though, and this. The Spanish-speaker will usually pronounce this sound as a soft d, as de, dough, and dis.
4. The sh, as in the words she and shoe. The sound is often produced by Spanish-speakers as s, as see and sue.
5. The s sound, as in pleasure and treasure. This sound is produced by the Spanish-speaker as a simple s.
6. The voiced s sound, as in zinc, rise and zoo. This sound is produced by the Spanish-speaker as a voiceless s, as sink, rice, and Sue.

7. The b sound, as in bar, rabbit, and cab. In attempting to approximate this sound the Spanish-speaker may say the p sound as in par, rapid, and cap. (Since many consonant sounds do not appear in final position in words in Spanish, this constitutes an additional problem, e.g., cap, clock, etc.)
8. The v sound, as in vote, veil, and vest. In attempting to approximate this sound the Spanish-speaking learner of English will say boat, bail, and best.
9. The d sound, as in din and den. The Spanish-speaker will usually pronounce this sound as a t in tin and ten.
10. The ch sound, as in watch, catch, and chew. In attempting to approximate this sound, the Spanish-speaking learner of English will say the sh sound as in wash, cash, and shoe. (In addition to the problem of "inaccurately" producing English sounds because the sound patterns of Spanish differ, the Spanish-speaking pupil faces the problem of distinguishing related sounds in English; e.g., batch, badge, bash; joke and choke, etc.)
11. The y sound, as in use and yellow. The Spanish-speaker will usually pronounce this as juice and jello.
12. The n sound when it appears in final position in English in words like thin, run, and ton. The Spanish-speaking pupil will usually say thing, rung, and tongue.
13. The m sound when it appears in final position in words like comb, dime, and some. The Spanish-speaking pupil in attempting to approximate this sound will say cone, dine, and son.
14. The g sound in such words as dug, goat, and pig. This sound is usually produced by the Spanish-speakers as duck, coat, and pick.
15. The sound w as in way, wash, and woman. The Spanish-speaking pupil will usually say gway, gwash, and gwoman, because in Spanish the "w" sound is generally preceded by the "g" sound: "agua", "guante", "guapo".

Vowel Sound Problems

1. The a as in hat, cat, and map. This sound is usually pronounced by the Spanish-speaker as the vowel in hot, cot, and mop (or after many attempts to approximate the sound, as het, ket and mep).
2. The vowel sound in the words done, sung, and cut. The Spanish-speaking pupil will tend to produce this sound as in dawn, song, and caught.
3. The ee sound as in leave, feel and sheep. This sound is usually pronounced by the Spanish-speaker as the i sound in live, fill, and ship.
4. The i sound in live, fill, and ship. This sound when attempted by the Spanish-speaker is produced as the ee sound in leave, feel, and sheep.
5. The ey sound in late, mate, and gate. The Spanish-speaking pupil may produce this sound as the e sound in let, met, and get.
6. The e sound in let, met, and get. The Spanish-speaking pupil will tend to produce this sound as the ey sound in late, mate, and gate.
7. The oo sound in pool and fool. The Spanish-speaking pupil, in attempting to approximate this sound, will pronounce it as the u sound in pull and full.
8. The u sound in pull and full. This sound will be produced by the Spanish-speaking pupil as the oo sound in pool and fool.
9. The o sound as in coal, bowl, and hole. The Spanish-speaking pupil in attempting to approximate the English sound will say it like the vowel sound in call, ball, and hall.
10. The sound aw in dawn, song, and caught. The Spanish-speaking pupil may, after practice in other English vowel sounds, produce it as the o of done, sung, and cut.
11. The o sound in hot, cot, and mop may approximate the a of hat, cat, and map.

Consonant Cluster Problems (For a more extended treatment of consonant cluster analysis see Charles C. Fries, "Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language." Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1953, pp. 18-20.)

In addition to the problems of understanding and producing the significant consonant and vowel sounds of English just indicated, the Spanish-speaking learner is also faced with problems of consonant clusters. Many English clusters do not exist in Spanish, or, if they do exist, do not occur in the same positions. For example, the kt cluster appears in Spanish in such words as acto, tacto, octavo, etc., but does not appear in final position in Spanish words. Hence, the Spanish-speaking person has difficulty in producing the kt combination in such words as act, walked, talked, liked, etc. The sp cluster appears in the Spanish in such words as espanol, espeso, esposa, etc. Since it is always preceded by the e sound in Spanish, the Spanish speaker will tend to hear and say the e sound as preceding the initial sp in English. Hence, he will say espeak for speak, estudy for study, etc.

The sound clusters underlined in the following words illustrate the basic consonant clusters that do not appear in initial position in Spanish words: store, speak, small, snow, sky, sleep, few, cure, mule, beautiful, pure, street, screw, spring, square.

The sound clusters underlined in the following words illustrate the basic consonant clusters that do not appear in final position in Spanish words: land, hunt, fast, fence, old, box, world, sink, act, change, melt, desk, help, milk, health, first, ask, bench, left, film, tenth, hands, fifth, eighth, clubs, bags, falls, rooms, lives, builds, saves, burns, warms, caps, cabs, laughs, boots, breathes, lifts, walks, lived, raised, pushed, pulled, touched, watched, danced, cashed, helped.

The teacher must expect her Spanish-speaking pupils to require special help with consonants and consonant combinations like those listed in the two preceding paragraphs.

Major Problems in Rhythm

Rhythm in language is a matter of stress and speed. In English, stress is rather regularly spaced in terms of time interval between accented syllables. For example in the following sentence each of the three sections takes about the same time to say:

The cow | lives on the farm | next to my uncle's house.

That is, "the cow" (2 syllables) takes about as long to say as "lives on the farm" (4 syllables) and "next to my uncle's house" (6 syllables).

In order to maintain this regular rhythm, we accelerate our production of unaccented syllables between stressed syllables.

The Spanish-speaker can not, when first encountering English, reproduce this steady language rhythm or understand it because of the tendency in Spanish to produce all syllables at about the same rate of speed.

In addition, there are some features of stress in Spanish which tend to carry over into English and to contribute to what some may consider a characteristic "Spanish" accent. For example, the Spanish-speaker tends to stress the following language elements which the English-speaker never stresses in everyday matter-of-fact speech:

1. The articles a, an, and the. The Spanish-speaker will say: á peach for a péach; án apple for an ápple; thé grapes for the grápes.
2. The possessive adjectives my, your, his, her, its, our, and their.
3. The prepositions in, on, off, under, to, etc.
4. The Spanish-speaking pupil is likely to stress the pronouns I, me, we, us, he, him, you, they, them, she, her, and it.
5. The Spanish-speaking pupil will frequently stress such conjunctions as: although, and, or, as, that, etc.
6. The Spanish-speaker will usually stress any form of the verb be and the auxiliary verbs. The Spanish-speaker will say: I ám walking for I am wálking; He is a monitor for He is a mónitor; We áre here for We are hére; etc.

Major Problems in Intonation

The rise and fall of the voice make up the intonation or melody patterns of a language. The intonation patterns of English differ from those of Spanish. As in the case of the sounds and the rhythm, the Spanish speaking person will tend to carry over into English the intonation patterns of his original language. For example, in English the polite request pattern uses a falling intonation: Please open the door. In Spanish, however, the polite request uses a rising intonation.

Features of intonation are complicated and do not lend themselves to simple generalizations. For a more complete discussion of intonation, the reader is referred to: Kenneth L. Pike, *The Intonation of American English* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945).

LIST* A – PATTERNS IN WHICH WORD ORDER AND GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE ARE FAIRLY SIMILAR IN ENGLISH AND IN SPANISH

The teacher should familiarize herself with this list. She should take advantage of every opportunity that arises to help the child use any of these patterns correctly to express a thought that he feels the need to express. In addition, the teacher should create situations that provide occasion for using these language patterns.

(Based on a partial analysis of the Spanish of Spanish-speaking children in the schools of New York City.)
*The Puerto Rican Study, City of New York.

The English Pattern	The Corresponding Spanish Pattern
1. Using the noun as the subject of the statement pattern. Examples: The book is here. The pen is there.	1. The noun subject is expressed in Spanish. Examples: El libro está aquí. La pluma está allá.
2. Using the expressed pronoun I as the subject of the statement pattern. Examples: I play. I sing.	2. I as the expressed subject occurs in most instances in Spanish.* Examples: Yo juego. Yo canto.
3. The possessive adjectives my, your, etc., occupy pre-noun position in English. Examples: Our father is tall. Our house is big. Our houses are big.	3. The possessive adjectives in Spanish also occupy pre-noun position (although they agree in number, and in most cases in gender, with the noun modified). Examples: Mi papá es alto. Nuestra casa es grande. Nuestras casas son grandes.
4. The articles occupy pre-noun position in English. Examples: a book a house the boy the boys the girl the girls	4. The articles in Spanish also occupy pre-noun position (although they change in form in Spanish to agree with the noun). Examples: un libro una casa el muchacho los muchachos la muchacha las muchachas
5. The adjective in English occurs very frequently after a form of the verb *be*. Examples: The doll is big. The dolls are big. The house is high. The houses are high.	5. The adjective in Spanish also occurs very frequently after a form of the verb be (however, the adjective agrees in number and gender with the noun it modifies). Examples: La muñeca es grande. Las muñencas son grandes. La casa es alta. Las casas son altas.

6. This, that, these, and those as demonstrative pronouns appear very frequently before a form of the verb *be* in the statement pattern. Examples: This is my mother. These are big. Those are small.	6. In Spanish, the meanings of this, that, these, and those are expressed as in English and appear very frequently before a form of the verb *be* in the statement pattern (however, the forms of the pronouns vary greatly in Spanish). Examples: Esta es mi mamá. Estos son grandes. Estas son grandes. Esos son pequeños. Esas son pequeñas. Aquellos son pequeños. Aquellas son pequeñas.	
7. This, that, these, and those as demonstrative adjectives occur regularly in pre-noun position in English. Examples: this book that book these books those books this house that house these houses those houses	7. In Spanish, the demonstrative adjectives also appear regularly in pre-noun position (however, they agree in number and gender with the noun modified). Examples: este libro ese libro estos libros esos libros esta casa esa casa estas casas esas casas	
8. The direct object occupies a post-verb position in English. Examples: I see the book. I wrote a letter.	8. The direct object in Spanish also occupies a post-verb position. Examples: Yo veo el libro. Yo escribí una carta.	
9. With many situations in English two alternatives are possible for expressing the order of the direct object and the indirect object: e.g., *I gave the teacher the book; I gave the book to the teacher.* Examples: The boy gave the book to the girl. Rosa sent a letter to Mary.	9. The Spanish pattern is similar to the second alternative, *I gave the book to the teacher.* Examples: El muchacho dió el libro a la niña. Rosa mandó una carta a Mary.	

LIST B* – PATTERNS INVOLVING WORD ORDER AND GRAMMATICAL FEATURES THAT EXIST (a) IN ENGLISH BUT NOT IN SPANISH OR (b) IN BOTH LANGUAGES BUT SIGNAL DIFFERENT MEANINGS.

The English Pattern	Reason For Difficulty and the Corresponding Spanish Pattern
1. Using the expressed pronoun as the subject of the statement and question pattern. Examples: It is round. She can sing. Is he a policeman?	1. Pronoun subject (except for most instances with *I)* is not usually expressed in Spanish, since Spanish uses verbal inflection to indicate person and number. Examples: Es redondo. Is round. Puede cantar. Can sing. ¿Es policia? Is policeman?
2. Using *not* to expressing negation with verb forms. Examples: Mary is not here. The horse does not eat meat.	2. Spanish regularly uses *no* in pre-verb position. Examples: María no está aquí. Maria not is here. El caballo no come carne. The horse not eat meat.
3. The use of the uninflected adjective form in front of the noun. Examples: The big dog. The big dogs.	3. In Spanish, the adjective usually follows the noun modified and also agrees with it in number and gender. Examples: El perro grande. The dog big. Los perros grandes. The dogs bigs.
4. The use of the basic form of the adjective plus *-er* and *-est* to form the comparative and the superlative, respectively. Examples: The pumpkin is bigger. My father is the tallest in the family.	4. In Spanish, the word *más* (more) and the words *el más, la más, los más, las más* (the most) are used in front of the adjective. Examples: La calabaza es más grande. The pumpkin is more big. Mi papá es el más alto de la familia. My father is the most tall of the family.
5. The use of the sounded suffix *-s* to indicate customary present tense for third person singular, variously pronounced as *s* (walks), *z* (pays) and *ez* (catches). Examples: The boy eats candy every day. My sister goes to school. My brother watches television.	5. In Spanish, there is the tendency either to aspirate the final *-s* sound or to drop it in pronunciation. Examples: El muchacho come dulces todos los días. The boy eat candy every day. Mi hermana va a la escuela. My sister go to school. Mi hermano ve la televisión. My brother watch the television.

6. The use of the sounded suffix *-s* to form the regular plural. Examples: The books are here. The pencils are here. The houses are red.	6. The same as for verbs above. Examples: Los libros están aqui. The book are here. Los lápices están allá. The pencil are there. Las casas son coloradas. The house are red.	10. The use of the negative command pattern requires the use of the forms *do not, don't* followed by the uninflected form of the verb. Examples: Do not run. Do not push.	10. Spanish uses *no* before different forms of the verb to express the command pattern. Examples. No corras. No corra. No corran. Not run. No empujes. No empuje. No empujen. Not push.
7. The use of the suffix *-ed* to form the past tense of regular verbs, variously pronounced as *t* (walked), *d* (called), and *ed* (needed). Examples: The clown laughed. The children played ball. The baby wanted milk.	7. In Spanish, past tense is expressed by adding inflected endings to regular verbs. The Spanish inflections are unrelated to the English suffix *-ed; e.g.*, -é (hablé), *-ó*, (habló), *-i* (escribi), etc. In addition, the Spanish language does not have many of the consonant clusters that appear when combined with the *-ed* suffix; e.g., *-kt* (walked), *-ld* (called), *-ft* (laughed), etc. Examples: El payaso se rió. The clown laugh. Los niños jugaron bola. The children play ball. El bebé quiso leche. The baby want milk.	11. The use of *am, is* and *are* plus the -ing form of the verb to express the present progressive. Example: I am painting now.	11. Spanish has both the present progressive tense and the customary present tense, but in many instances they are interchangeable, depending on the situation: e.g., *The child plays now* (El niño juega ahora); and *The child is playing now* (El nino está jugando ahora). Examples: Yo pinto ahora. I paint now. Yo estoy pintando ahora. I am painting now.
8. The use of the auxiliary *will* plus the simple, uninflected form of the verb to express future tense. Examples: The girl will dance. The boy will play.	8. In Spanish, there is no auxiliary equivalent to *will.* Rather, inflections are added to the infinitive form of the verb to express the future; e.g., *-é* (habiare), *á* (habalará), *án* (irán), *-emos* (andaremos), etc. Examples: La muchacha bailará. The girl dance. El muchacho jugará. The boy play.	12. The use of the article *a* in front of nouns indicating professions, occupations, or status. Examples: The man is a carpenter. She is a nurse. She is a pupil.	12. The Spanish pattern for identifying a person's position, job, nationality, etc., does not require the indefinite article in pre-noun position. Examples: El hombre es carpintero. The man is carpenter. Ella es enfermera. She is nurse. Ella es estudiante. She is pupil.
9. The use of *am, is,* and *are* plus *going to* plus the uninflected basic form of the verb to express the future tense. Examples: I am going to sing. She is going to dance.	9. Spanish uses the notion of *go* plus the notion of *to* (voy a, vas a, va a, etc.) plus the infinitive form of the verb for future; but the forms of the corresponding expressions are quite different. Examples: Yo voy a cantar. I go to sing. Ella va a bailar. She go to dance.	13. In English, the possessive adjective is used to designate parts of the body and articles of clothing. Examples: My head hurts. His hair is black.	13. The Spanish speaker says, "The hair is brown" for "My hair is brown"; "The suit is brown" for "His suit is brown," etc. Examples: Me duele la cabeza. The head hurts me. El pelo de él es negro. The hair of him is black.
		14. When using titles in English, we do not use the definite article. Examples: Mrs. Holmes is here. I see Dr. Fox.	14. Spanish speakers say, "The Mr. Smith is here" for "Mr. Smith is here." Examples: La señora Holmes está aquí. The Mrs. Holmes is here. Yo veo al doctor Fox. I see the Dr. Fox.

15. The prepositions *in, on,* and *at* are used in English in special situations that cause difficulty for the Spanish speaker. Examples: The ball is in the box. I live on Madison Street. I live at 139 Madison Street.	15. *In* and *on* are often interchanged by the child because Spanish may use the one form *on* in both situations. Examples: La bola está en la caja. The ball is in the box. Yo vivo en la calle Madison. Yo vivo en el 139 de la calle Madison. I live in the 139 of the Street Madison.	19. The use in questions of an introductory word *(when, where, why, what,* etc.) followed by the auxiliary *do (do, does, did)* and the subject and verb in regular order. Examples: Where does your teacher live? When did the game begin?	19. Spanish uses the question word followed by the verb and the subject in inverted order. No auxiliary comparable to *do, does,* or *did* is used. Examples: ¿Dónde vive su maestro? Where lives your teacher? ¿Cuándo empezó el juego? When began the game?
16. English uses a form of the verb *be* in many expressions such as: "I am six years old," "I am hungry," "I am thirsty," etc. Examples: I'm thirsty. He's eight.	16. Spanish uses a form of the verb *have* for expressing the corresponding idea. Examples: Yo tengo sed. I have thirst. El tiene ocho años. He has eight years.		
17. The use of inversion of the subject and forms of the verb *be* and auxiliary verbs (*can, is, are,* etc.) to ask questions in English. Examples: Is the boy here? Can Mary go?	17. Although Spanish also uses the device of inverting the subject and the verb for questions, Spanish-speaking children often use the rising intonation without inversion as the means for indicating a question. Examples: ¿El muchacho está aquí? The boy is here? ¿Mary puede ir? Mary can go?		
18. The use of the structural words *do, does,* and *did* to ask questions in English. Examples: Do the girls study? Does this boy paint? Did the girls leave?	18. Spanish inverts the subject and the verb or simply uses the rising intonation to indicate this type of question. In Spanish, the rising intonation is the clue to the question, whereas in English the rising intonation is optional. That is, intonation can be either up or down. The clue to the question in English is the position of the words *do, does,* and *did.* Examples: ¿Las muchachas estudian? The girls study? ¿Este muchacho pinta? This boy paints? ¿Las muchachas salieron? The girls left?		

Vocabulary Mastery*

*Fries, Charles C., **Foundations for English Teaching,** Published for The English Language Exploratory Committee by Kenkyusha Lyd., Tokyo, Japan, 1961.

Many people think of a language as primarily a collection of words. To them, learning a foreign language means learning the meanings of its words, and they believe that the first and most important tool for that learning is a dictionary, or a list of the words with their meaning. They just cannot realize that even if they could memorize all the "words" in the largest dictionary of a language and *know only that part of the language,* they could not understand a single utterance. In their own experience they have been conscious of learning new words. They have never been conscious of learning of the structural signals of their language. For all of us the learning of the structural signals of our native language occurred so early that we cannot remember that we ever had to learn anything of that kind – just as we cannot remember when we learned to walk.

Mere lists of words as they usually appear in a study guide furnish very little real guidance and help in understanding exactly what meanings are specifically included as recommended and what are excluded as rejected. It is not only that the usual lists of words do not provide the information that is essential for those who try to put the recommendation of a course of study into specific and concrete lessons for students. Such lists also tend to build up and support a view of words and word meanings that is linguistically unsound. The naive assumption that each single "word" in English and some single word in Spanish, or in some other language, are simply two different tags for precisely the same bundles of experience or meaning, is entirely wrong. Except for highly technical words there are *no words* in two separate languages that cover the same areas of meaning. The ordinary two language dictionaries give a very false view of the actual situation respecting the relation of the "words" and meanings of one language to the "words" and meanings of another language. The meanings and uses of English words for which the foreign language does not have an equivalent are usually called "idioms". The lists of these "peculiar meanings", of these expression "that cannot be translated" – the

lists of these so-called "idioms" have become longer and more complicated as naive English teachers have tried to adapt their teaching to a wider range of different languages, and find more and more meanings and uses of words that are difficult to translate by single expressions.

The common words of English each have many more separate meanings than anyone formerly suspected. For the five hundred words most commonly used in English, *The Oxford Dictionary* records, with illustrative examples for English writings, more than fourteen thousand distinctly different meanings. (See Charles C. Fries, *English Word Lists,* pp. 80-86.) These are not "peculiar and puzzling expressions;" they are not "idioms" apart from the usual developments that occur in language. Multiple meanings, as many as ten to fifteen must always be expected for any very frequently used words. Think about the many meanings of the small word *run.*

Dr. Fries, professor emeritus of the University of Michigan and the founder and director emeritus of the English Language Institution of the same university, offers a list of vocabulary items in *Foundations For English Teaching* (1961). This is a list of two hundred and eighty-five vocabulary items for beginning English language students. He reduces the burden of learning separate words and their meaning to a minimum in order that as much as possible of the students' capacity for learning may be devoted to making the structure patterns of English into automatic habits. He gives as one of the reasons that a child of six or seven can learn a foreign language rapidly and well is that, because of his very limited experience, he doesn't need a wide vocabulary. A rather small number of content words covers his limited experience, and his learning energy centers on the structural molds. The severe limitations of his suggested content vocabulary, represents in some respects the kind of situation through which a child learns a first language. Dr. Fries warns, however, that the words of even a strictly limited vocabulary such as those given in his lists are not all of equal value.

In his discussion of classroom procedure he remarks it is often a matter of great surprise to teachers that situations confine to the frame of the classroom can provide opportunities for language use that is quite mature. They sometimes forget that for boys and girls the classroom constitutes a very large part of their living world. Boys and girls are actually in the classroom many of their waking hours and the activities there, together with the activities connected with those of the business of the classroom occupy a tremendous part of their attention.

It should not be surprising then that with the very limited vocabulary of the school and classroom activity one should be able to find the best familiar situation to lead students, who are beginning the study of English, through a considerable range of structure. Nowhere else can teachers find such a simple and familiar situation in which to build up habits of responding accurately and quickly to three layers of modification — a situation in which the responses are immediately verifiable.

Vocabulary List for Beginners

This list covers the following units:

Greeting
To Meet and Become Acquainted
English Names
The Family
Boys Names and Girls Names
How Old Are You?
School Activities
Guessing Games
Desks in the Classroom
To Find Our Seats

Mine and Yours
Where is.....?
School Books
Counting in English

What's in a.....?
Colors
Matching Colors

More Colors
"Blues" and "Greens"
Watches and Clocks
Hours and Days
Breakfast, Lunch, and Dinner
Minutes and Hours
Days, Weeks, and Months

A
a
after
afternoon
again
all
always
A. M.
am
American
an
and
any
anyone
anything
April
are
art
ask
at
August

B
back
bag
begin
between
blue
book
both
box
boy
brother
breakfast
brown
but

C
card
ceiling
chalk
chalkboard
class
classroom
clock
close (verb)
cold
color
count

D
dark
day
December
desk
different
dinner
do
does
door

E
each
either
else
English
end
eraser
evening

F
father
February
fine
floor
Friday
friend

G
girl
give
good
goodbye
grandfather
grandmother
green

H
half
hand
has
have
he
headache
her
here
hers
his
hold
home
hour
how

I
I
in
is it

J
January
July
June

K
know

L
last
left
lesson
light
like
look
lunch

M
make
man
many
March
mark (a red mark)
May
me
middle
minute
Monday
month
more
morning
mother
Mr.
Mrs.
my

N
name
near
new
night
no
noon
not
notebook
November

O
o'clock
October
of
often
old
on
one
only
open
or
other
our
out
over

P
paper
past
pencil
piece (a piece of)
please
P. M.
pocket
put

Q
quarter
question

R
red
repeat
right
room
row (row of seats or desks)

S

same
Saturday
school
seat
see
September
she
show
sister
sit
some
something
sometimes
sorry (I'm sorry)
Sunday

T

take
teacher
tell
thank
that
the
their
theirs
them
there
these
they
thing
this
those
Thursday
time
times
to
today
too
Tuesday

U

understand
up
us

V

very

W

wall
watch
we
Wednesday
week
well
what
when
where
which
who
whose
window
with
woman
word
write

Y

year
yellow
yes
you
young
your
yours

(Numbers)

one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, sixty, seventy, eighty, ninety, hundred.
first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth.

(Contractions)

I'm
what's
aren't
doesn't
it's
isn't
don't

(Other words may be added as the local situation demands. However, words should never be taught in isolation but in conversational units. Only a vocabulary that is very strictly limited in the beginning will enable the student to give the maximum attention to the necessary mastery of the basic language patterns.)

IX. MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

By state law the schools of Arizona use a basal-reading system. It is sometimes believed that the teacher is relieved of the responsibility for individual decision, also, that the task of teaching reading is largely standardized. Actually the basal-reading system can provide only a fraction of the reading program for bilingual children.

In the case of the non-English speaking child common objections to standard materials are:

1. By the time the bilingual child knows enough English to read a given book, the material is socially and intellectually too immature. At the same time these books are linguistically much too hard for the student who knows little English.
2. Another objection is based on the fact that the cultural background reflected in materials prepared for native English-speaking children is often unfamiliar to children that do not speak English, as their native language, and therefore, not meaningful to them.
3. A third objection is the vocabulary difficulties met by pupils whose experience with English is limited.

Many teachers in the past have been unable to find precisely the right text for his particular course requirements or the appropriate linguistic analysis which needed to improve his pedagogical techniques. He was therefore forced to improvise, and this found a large number of very competent teachers undertaking the time-consuming task of preparing their own materials.

Preparing materials for children learning a new language and a new culture is an undertaking of vast proportions and profound significance. It can no longer be left to individual authors and their publishers. It is now recognized that the preparation of material suitable to the needs of second language learners is too complicated and to difficult a task to be undertaken by one or two persons, no matter how excellent their training and experience. This fact becomes clear if we remind ourselves of the complex nature of language and language learning, and if we grant that materials cannot be called suitable unless they reflect the special contributions that must come from the classroom teacher, the descriptive linguist, the psychologist, and the cultural anthropologist, and the the literary scholar.

With the growing national and international interest in the teaching of English as a second language publishers are finding it is not the risk they once felt it to be to print materials for this highly specialized field. They are bowing to cold statistical facts as increasing numbers of schools are introducing or expanding their programs of English as a foreign language.

X. CHECK LISTS OF BOOKS FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

This list is designed to supplement the materials found in most curriculum libraries. No effort has been made to list books for use with bilingual students. For materials for specific areas use bibliographies listed and commercial booklists.

Many of the books listed should be in your school reference library.

A. BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

Allen, Walter P. — *Selecting Reading Materials for Foreign Students.* Washington Publications, Washington, D. C., 1955. A technique for selecting reading materials which provide cultural background for learning English.

Bloomfield, Leonard and Barnhardt, Clarence — *Let's Read, A Linguistic Approach,* Wayne State University Press, Detroit, Michigan, 1961.

Botel, Morton — *How to Teach Reading,* Follett Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1959.

Brooks, Nelson — *Language and Language Learning,* Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, N. Y., 1960. Both the theoretical and the practical aspects of the new mode of language teaching is reviewed in this book, from the point of view of the teacher, and the learner alike.

Davetsky, Joseph, and Others — *A Guide to the Teaching of Puerto Rican Pupils in the Junior High School,* Board of Education of the City of New York, New York, N. Y., 1955.

Dolch, Edward William — *The Teaching of Sounding,* The Garrand Press, Champaign, Illinois, 1951.

Durrell, Donald D. — *Improving Reading Instruction,* World Book Company, New York, New York, 1961.

Gillis, Harry H. — *The Intergrated Classroom,* New Basic Books, Inc., 1959. This is a source book relating to one of the most serious and baffling problems facing the nation today — the problem of racial integration in the classrooms of the public schools.

Haugen, Einar — *Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography and Research Guide.* University of Alabama Press, Drawer 2877 University of Alabama, 1956.

Lado, Robert — *Linguistics Across Culture,* University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, University Press, 1957.

Lumsdaine, A. A., and Glaser, Robert — *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning: A Source Book,* Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, Washington, D. C., 1960.

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Nida, Eugene A. — *Learning a Foreign Language,* Friendship Press, New York, N. Y., Revised Edition, 1957.

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Reading Workshop of the American Book Company — *How to Teach Phonics: And the Role Phonics Play in Your Reading Program,* American Book Company, San Francisco, California, 1958.

Spache, George D. — *Good Reading For Poor Readers,* The Garrard Press, Publishers, Champaign, Illinois, Revised, 1960.

Spalding, Romalda Bishop — *The Writing Road to Writing,* William Morrow and Company, New York, New York, 1962.

Stevick, Earl W. — *Helping People Learn English; a Manual for Teachers of English as a Second Language,* Abingdon Press, New York, 1957.

Walcutt, Charles C. — *Tomorrow's Illiterates: The State of Reading Instruction Today,* Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1961.

Welmers, William E. — *Spoken English as a Foreign Language, Instructor's Manual,* American Council of Learned Societies, Washington, D. C., 1953.

Whipple, Caroline A. — *English is a Foreign Language,* Education Services, Washington, D. C.

Wohl, M., and Metcalf, R. C. — *English is Spoken,* Washington Publications, 3915 Military Road, N. W., Washington, D. C., 1958.

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Frank, Marcella — *Bibliography of Materials for English as a Second Language,* Queens College, English Language Institute, Flushing, New York, 1959. A most comprehensive list of graded materials for teaching English as a second language.

Johnson, Marjorie and Arno, Jewett — *References for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language,* United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C., 1956.

Lado, Robert — *Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language,* United States Department of Health, Education and Walfare, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 1955, Number 3.

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