DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 036 784 AL 002 247

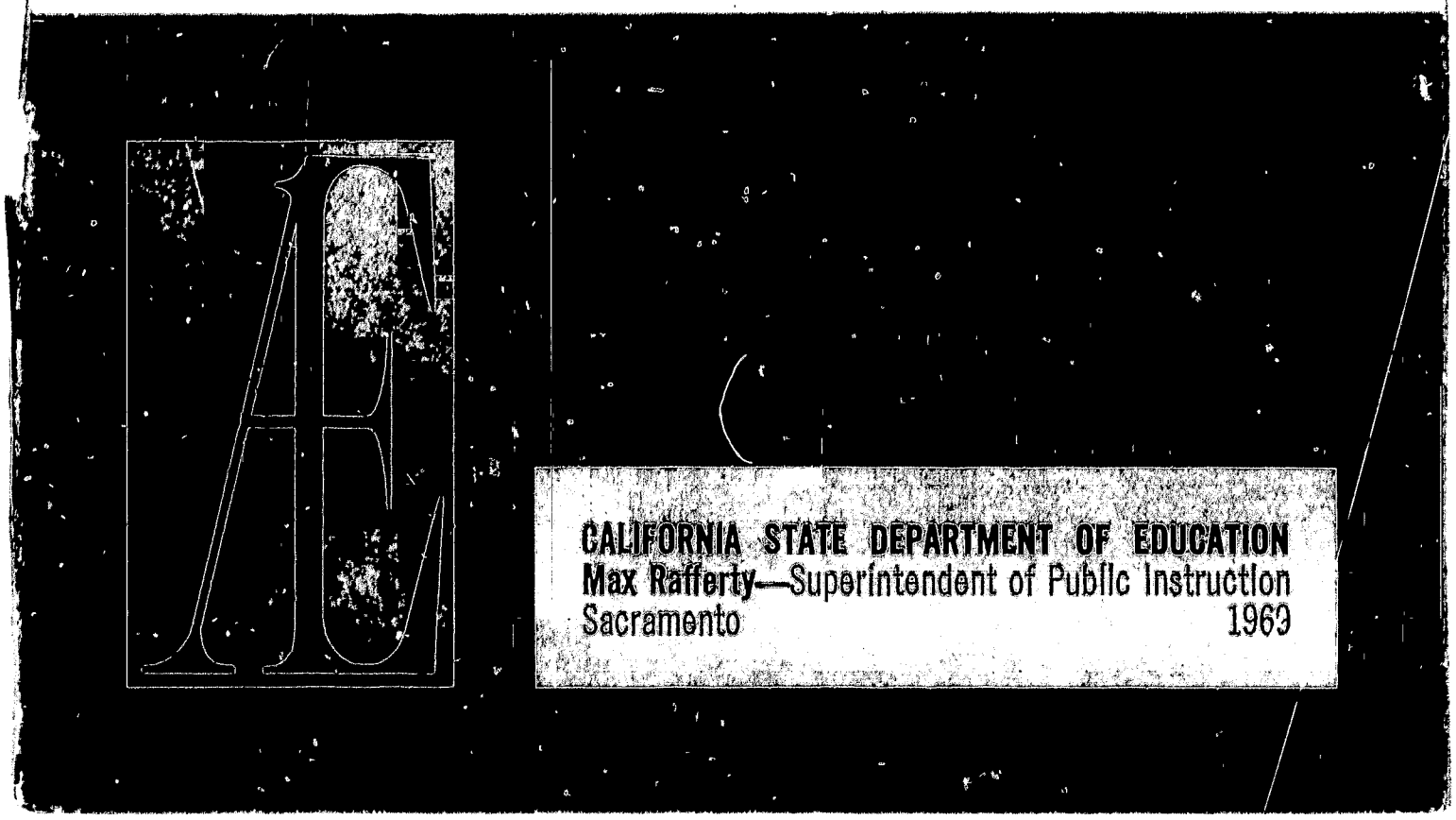
AUTHOR	Steeves, Roy W.; And Others.
TITLE	Handbook for Teachers of English as a Second Language; Americanization-Literacy.
INSTITUTION	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento.
SPONS AGENCY	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Bureau of Adult Education.
PUB DATE	69
NOTE	85p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$4.35
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Education, Audiolingual Methods, *English (Second Language), *Teaching Guides, *Teaching Methods, *Teaching Techniques, Textbook Selection

ABSTRACT

This publication contains guidelines and suggestions to assist teachers of English as a second language in conducting programs that are oriented toward Americanization and literacy. (It is particularly directed toward those newly assigned teachers who do not have a background in teaching English as a second language.) The authors present points to consider concerning the student, the teacher, and the administrator. Also presented is a suggested curriculum outlining what the student may be expected to master in the sound system, structure, vocabulary, and language skills on four sequential levels. A discussion of the audiolingual approach, textbook selection, evaluation, and a list of references in adult education conclude this handbook. (AMM)

Handbook for Teachers of English as a Second Language

Americanization - Literacy



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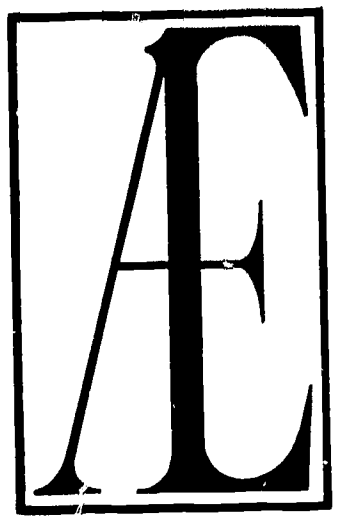

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This publication was funded with Adult Basic Education funds and published by the California State Department of Education.
1969

FOREWORD

The California adult education program has many facets, all of which are exceedingly important, but none of which is more important than communication, for herein lies the means by which we have developed our civilization as well as the means by which we will contribute to the progress of our civilization.

The richness of our lives and of the heritage we provide future generations will be determined to a very great extent by our ability to provide opportunity for all members of our society to communicate fully and intelligently with each other, both through the spoken and written word. This opportunity must therefore be available at all times to all people regardless of their ages or cultural or social backgrounds. And every member of our society must be encouraged to take advantage of this opportunity to the extent his ability permits.

The information regarding English as a second language that is presented in this publication directs attention to one phase of communication that must be given full and intelligent attention throughout the educational program offered by California schools. I hope that those with direct responsibilities for this program will be able to use the information presented to advantage in strengthening instruction in communication, for I am certain that to profit fully from our most valuable of all natural resources, people, all must be able to communicate effectively and efficiently – to contribute to and to profit from our wealth of knowledge and productive skills.

Max Rafferty

Superintendent of Public Instruction

PREFACE

This publication, *Handbook for Teachers of English as a Second Language*, contains guidelines and suggestions to assist teachers of English as a second language in conducting programs that are oriented toward Americanization and literacy. The handbook should be especially helpful to those teachers newly assigned to the teaching of English as a second language.

The roles of the student, the teacher, and the administrator have been discussed as background for the discussion of course content, methods of language teaching, textbook selection, and evaluation.

The handbook is primarily intended to assist the teacher by suggesting methods of instruction that can be employed to advantage in teaching classes of English as a second language and instructional materials that may be used to reinforce instruction.

EUGENE M. GONZALES
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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The Bureau of Adult Education gratefully acknowledges the assistance of the San Francisco Unified School District and the following employees of the district in preparing this document:

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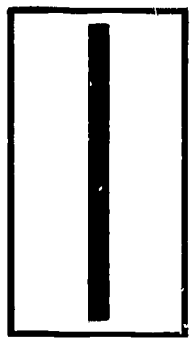


The Student

Generalizations about the characteristics of students in adult schools are difficult to make and easy to challenge. Students learning English as a second language usually have backgrounds and goals quite different from those of native Americans. Although no inclusive statement can be made concerning students from a particular country, certain general characteristics are apparent. Since cultural variations result in different attitudes toward teachers and schools, the teacher should study the cultures of his students in order to relate to his class more effectively. The teacher will discover that to many in his class he represents an authority symbol – a person of substance and dignity somewhat different from the American stereotype of a teacher. To others in his class, such as native Americans unable in the past to obtain an elementary education, the school may represent a thwarting agency and the teacher neither an authority figure nor a counselor.

Typical Problems with Students

The majority of adult students is normally made up of those seeking employment or advancement. Most of them are attentive in class but are inclined to be impatient with what they may feel is extraneous material. For example, pronunciation exercises and pattern practice exercises may not seem as important to them as they do to the teacher, since students frequently confuse the hearing of language with ability to speak it competently. Often the student looking for work learns what he considers to be enough English to get a job; then he drops the class, even though the teacher tells him that with insufficient English he cannot make the most of whatever opportunities may become available to him. A weakness of the audiolingual method is that unless reading instruction is included, students at intermediate and advanced levels will not be challenged intellectually and may accept the verbal competence of the

functional illiterate. Realizing that the adult learner has a family, an occupation, and social interests, the thoughtful teacher builds success into the course through the use of audiolingual methods while making his students aware that command of the language means more than ability to comprehend the spoken word. If this were not the case, society would terminate a child's educational program in the third grade and would tell him to seek all further knowledge wherever provided by chance.

Makeup of a Typical Class

The typical English class in the Americanization-literacy program includes any or all of the following groups of students of different age, race, and sex:

- Foreign-born men and women who are spouses of American citizens
- Foreign-born adults who are temporarily visiting the United States for study or travel
- Foreign-born immigrants (of different levels of education in their native lands) who have entered the United States to seek citizenship
- Displaced persons and political refugees who may or may not be fully reconciled to permanent residence away from their native country
- Native-born Americans who cannot speak English fluently
- Native-born Americans who are illiterate and who may speak a regional or local dialect rather than standard American speech

The teacher of English as a second language can be certain of one thing: his students come to class initially because they recognize the necessity of learning English and all that such knowledge implies. A teacher's success will depend at least in part upon his ability to identify the reasons that each student has for enrolling. Successful teaching requires more than identifying the cultural, environmental,

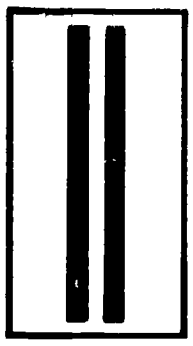
and language differences that may interfere with instruction. The teacher should also attempt to identify variations in learning ability caused by physical and intellectual differences. For example, adults can learn well, although not as rapidly as young children. And decline in learning ability, which is slight between the ages of twenty-five and fifty, does not accelerate after fifty unless physical deterioration of the nervous system occurs. Since hearing and visual defects are found more frequently among adult students than among schoolchildren, the teacher of adults should be especially alert in helping to identify those who suffer from these defects. Poor health, malnutrition, and problems of personal adjustment are other factors that affect students. As noted in Chapter II, auxiliary agencies in the community may be of help in correcting many of these conditions.

Points to Keep in Mind

In teaching English as a second language, the teacher should keep in mind the following points:

- All normal adults can learn.
- All normal adults can learn to speak any language, including English.
- Most adult students are capable, highly motivated people.
- Most students, if taught well, will remain with the teacher since they know that their future depends upon their ability to understand, to speak, to read, and to write English.

To do his job well, the teacher must continue to learn about course content and teaching methods. He must also continue to improve his techniques of evaluating his own teaching and the progress of his students.



The Teacher

At one time almost any instructor was considered qualified to teach English as a second language. For many years such teaching gave after-hours employment to many instructors, but it was not considered the career opportunity that it is today. Now the professional teachers of English as a second language are developing acceptable methods of teaching their specialty and are accumulating extensive professional knowledge about it. The techniques and condescending attitudes of the amateur teacher are no longer acceptable. The non-English-speaking person in our society wants to learn the language quickly and thoroughly; his personal dignity, his desire for social acceptance and status, and his employment requirements demand that he learn English. By means of modern techniques and the use of well-designed programs of instruction, the experienced teacher can now teach English more effectively than at any other time in the past.

New Methods of Teaching

The teacher of English as a second language no longer spends hours analyzing sentences and having students commit long rules of grammar to memory. Instead he uses controlled sentence patterns, controlled introduction of pronunciation variations and vocabulary items, and the audiolingual method. He helps students to incorporate new words, new idioms, new sounds, and new sentence patterns into their everyday speech and writing. Progress is constant, and the student evaluates and is aware of his own progress. In no other teaching situation with adults is the student so eager to learn, and in few other situations is the teacher's role so important.

Relationship Between Teacher and Student

In the United States the public school has always been the agency through which diverse elements have been brought together

and through which the purposes of our social, political, and economic institutions have been restated and passed on. The public school teacher of English as a second language must impart knowledge, create self-confidence, teach skills, and guide and counsel a group of adults who range in age from eighteen to eighty and who probably speak many different languages. To the students the teacher represents the best of America and speaks the ideal American language. Therefore, the teacher should always be aware of the central position that he holds for a time in the lives of these students; he is needed to explain to them the bewildering life that surrounds them. The teacher informs them not only of English but also of the ways of thinking, acting, and doing that we call "American culture." For the teacher to understand his relationship to the class and to the individuals within it, he must picture himself as one of them – as one uprooted, transported to another country, cut off by a language barrier from communicating with others in the community, and faced with the complexities of a highly technological society entirely different in many respects from that to which one has been accustomed. Only then can the teacher determine what kind of instruction he should offer to his students.

Qualities of a Good Teacher

Teaching methods have changed in recent years, but the qualities necessary for creative teaching have not. What kind of person is ideally suited to teach English as a second language? Above all, the teacher should like to teach and should enjoy being with adults of different cultural backgrounds. He should have a thorough understanding of the English language, literature, composition, and history. He should be aware of the changes constantly occurring in English and should be sensitive to word usage. In addition, the teacher of adults should be aware of the values and interests of each age group. A young man or young woman comes to school with interests and backgrounds quite different from those of a person of sixty. And the teacher must know not only about his own country but also about other nations and cultures in order to understand the needs, habits, and customs of his students. It is difficult if not impossible to understand all the cultures involved; yet the teacher of adults must attempt to gain such knowledge if he is to win the confidence and respect of his students. However, the teacher should not act as if he were the only instructor. He should rather direct his

students to other community agencies for assistance after he has determined that the students understand their relationship to those agencies. Since the teacher-student relationship is a professional one, the teacher should always remember that his counseling function is primarily not personal but educational.

Knowledge of Another Language

The teacher of English as a second language need not be fluent in another language, but he should find helpful a knowledge of the characteristics of the languages spoken by his students. Some consider this knowledge essential, for it reveals the difficulties students have in learning English. For example, Spanish-speaking students have difficulty enunciating properly the following italicized consonant sounds: *b*ite, *d*og, *h*at, *j*et, *N*an, *r*an, bo*th*, *th*e, *t*en, si*ng*. Vowel sounds present even greater difficulty since eight English vowel sounds do not occur in Spanish, and two English vowel sounds are so similar to Spanish vowel phonemes that Spanish-speaking people commonly substitute one for the other. Another problem for the Spanish-speaking is that, whereas in English syllables end with consonants, in Spanish they do not. It is this kind of knowledge about a foreign language that the teacher of English as a second language finds useful. Yet, although a speaking knowledge of another language is helpful to the teacher in conversing privately with individuals in the class, the bilingual teacher must be careful in using a foreign language in the classroom. By speaking a foreign language, the teacher may be isolating others in the classroom who do not speak that language. The teacher of English has the responsibility of speaking only English to the class.

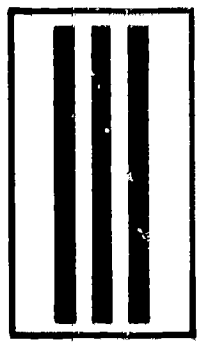
Well-designed textbooks and audio-visual aids and materials are abundant in teaching English as a second language, but the teacher will not be able to rely on prepared lessons and commercially developed materials exclusively. Sometimes, for example, he will find pantomime the only means of communicating an idea or fact. He will always need imagination, creativity, ingenuity, and abundant energy.

Useful Studies for Teachers of English

Teachers of English as a second language have found study in the following areas to be of special value:

- Linguistics – phonemics, syntax, intonation
- Educational psychology – theories of learning
- Methodology of language teaching
- Student teaching
- Preparation of teaching materials; evaluative instruments; study of audio-visual aids and instruction in their use
- Cultural anthropology

Classes in these areas are commonly offered by the state colleges, the University of California, and private colleges and universities in the state. As part of their inservice training programs, school districts and offices of county superintendents of schools sponsor meetings and workshops for teachers in English as a second language. Observation of classes conducted by experienced teachers can also be of great help to the new teacher. The experience and knowledge gained by the teacher of English as a second language influence his professional growth and enhance his personal development.



The Administrator

The administrator of a program involving the teaching of English as a second language knows that this teaching requires special skills and special training. Teaching adults to communicate in English is one of the oldest offerings in adult education. Yet this very fact has made difficult the infusion of new methods, materials, and philosophies into the program.

Encouraging Attendance at Classes

Although most non-English-speaking people eagerly attend English classes, some hesitate to seek out these classes. This hesitancy may be due to cultural backgrounds, timidity in strange surroundings, or lack of the basic skills of communication. In these cases the school has a responsibility to locate these people. Some suggested sources to assist in locating students in a community are the U.S. Immigration Service; alien address reports; state and federal census data; and institutions, agencies, and organizations that deal with large groups of people, such as post offices, libraries, hospitals, welfare agencies, churches, labor unions, and employment agencies.

Importance of Publicity

Publicity for the classes is also important. As in business, the satisfied customer is still the best advertisement. Students and teachers should be spokesmen for their classes. In some communities an advisory committee representing the news media, church councils, labor unions, nationality groups, and service clubs can be of assistance to the school. A small, active advisory committee is better than a large, dormant one. Other means of publicity that usually prove satisfactory are "throw-away" notices or papers, spot announcements on radio and television, newspaper notices, and signs and posters.

Importance of Location

The location of classes has an important bearing on their success. Classes are usually held either in a school as part of a larger program of adult education or in community facilities in a neighborhood that has a concentration of potential students. Transportation facilities and the mobility of students are often the deciding factors in choosing a desirable location for a class. In any case the physical condition of the classrooms warrants attention. They should contain adult-sized desks or tables, chairs, chalkboard space, good lighting and heating, and storage space. Parking areas and outside lights are also important.

The administrator must determine the time and length of each class, the length of the course, and the number of classes to be offered. He must also maintain a reasonable class size; class size should not exceed the norm established for other academic classes in the adult program. After he has determined the need for a class in English as a second language, located the students, publicized the class, and established a desired location for the class, the administrator faces the most important factor in the operation of the class – selecting the right teacher. (See Chapter II.)

Assisting the Teacher

The administrator can assist a teacher by obtaining textbooks, instructional materials, and audio-visual aids, and by coordinating student-counselor contacts. To encourage a teacher to improve his techniques and to increase his knowledge of the subject in particular and of adult education in general, the administrator should supply the teacher with information regarding classes, institutes, other inservice training opportunities, and special scholarships and grants. In many instances a district or school has organized its own inservice classes with demonstrations to show effective teaching techniques. Observing a master teacher in a classroom situation offers many functional ideas that will have direct application for the less-experienced teacher.

Helping the New Student

The administrator should be involved in the orientation of the new student. The reception that an adult student receives on his

initial entry into a school leaves a distinct impression. The orientation may vary from an understanding attitude when the student registers to a more complete testing and counseling program. A comprehensive counseling program includes initial testing (both oral and written) to determine the proper class placement of the student, followed by achievement testing in the class, usually administered by the teacher. In addition to testing, the foreign student may benefit by personal counseling to assist with his adjustment in a new physical and cultural environment. In such cases assistance and information outside the school should be coordinated by the administrator. Referrals may involve many community agencies, such as institutions enrolling foreign students, language clubs, ethnic group associations, church councils, employment agencies, immigration offices, medical facilities, law enforcement organizations, and many others.

To achieve these goals effectively, the administrator should consider involving nonprofessional aides provided by community action agencies or welfare agencies (through Title V or Title II-A, Economic Opportunity Act of 1964). Such persons may serve as teacher aides in the classroom, may take responsibility for school-home contacts in connection with follow-up activities of the school, or may go into the neighborhoods where the potential students live to acquaint them with the educational program of the adult school.

Evaluating the Program

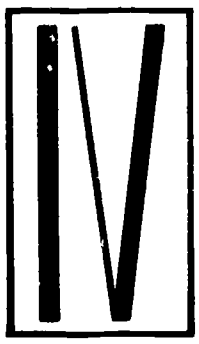
The administrator should establish some guidelines that will help him evaluate the program. He should obtain answers to such basic questions as the following:

- How does attendance compare with enrollment?
- How does attendance compare with the number of aliens in the community?
- How frequently are newly arrived immigrants attending class?
- How well are communication skills being taught?
- How well are the foreign born being assisted to participate in the community?

- How well are students trained in English as a second language continuing in their studies leading to citizenship?
- How well are the foreign born being accepted into community activities?

Some Points to Remember

The school administrator must have an unusual degree of patience and understanding, for he has the responsibility of directing the activities of large groups of people. This point is particularly important to remember when the people he is dealing with have difficulty communicating, come from different countries, have different cultural and ethnic backgrounds, and often have different sets of social and economic values. The non-English-speaking adult is a very rewarding person to have as a student. He invariably places a very high value on the instruction he receives, has great respect for the teacher, and is quick to acknowledge efforts made in his behalf.



What to Teach

A new teacher of English as a second language is often appalled at the diversity of ages, backgrounds, and interests of the members of his class. Each student seems to need individual instruction, materials, and methods. Faced with this situation, the new teacher asks: What should be put into the course? What should be left out? What should be emphasized?

The Wrong Way to Teach

Unless a teacher has had special training, including practice teaching, he may decide to teach English the way he was taught. What he often forgets is that he already knew the language before he began formal study. He may dwell on things he likes in English, such as literature or poetry, and avoid what he dislikes. He may also assume that all he needs is a textbook with rules and exercises. To his way of thinking, he has only to give his students clear explanations of grammar, help them memorize and spell words, and show them how to do the written exercises in the textbook. In this way the students should be able to put words together and to remember them as needed when speaking, reading, and writing.

Importance of Learning Sentence Patterns

To many people, learning a language means learning grammar. But no connection necessarily exists between knowledge of grammar and knowledge of words. Experts in linguistics and language learning have rather stressed the importance of developing correct language habits through learning fundamental sentence patterns in English. Moreover, the mere learning of words may impede a student's progress if he puts English words into the word order of his own

language and utters them within its sound system, using its intonation and stress patterns. Learning a new language is different because the sound system, sentence patterns, and even culture interfere with what the student is trying to learn.

Formal English Versus Colloquial English

What specific form of English should be taught? Should teachers teach formal language, which emphasizes correctness? Or should they teach the vernacular because it is used by so many people? Realizing that language does change slowly by usage and that some forms become archaic, teachers should teach what they believe is spoken by most people.

Goals of Language Learning

Both general and specific goals of language learning should be considered. Students usually have to do more than read and write or communicate in "pidgin English and pantomime." They need to be able to speak clearly and to understand spoken language for which they themselves do not set the pace. However, a student may never lose all of his accent or his own stress patterns. And he may never be interested enough or be able to read and to discuss the deeper meanings of literature and poetry. The curriculum of the English program should enable students who complete the program to continue to study and read by themselves.

In the course of study that follows, a curriculum for four sequential levels has been outlined. The first three levels have been designed to help the student learn the English he will need to communicate in most practical situations. After completing the first three levels, many students terminate their formal study, feeling that their needs have been met. Level IV is designed to help the student extend and refine his knowledge of English as based upon the structures of the language he has already learned. The formal elements of English required for additional study of the language are also included in the fourth level.

Level I

Sound System

Vowel and consonant sounds, intonation patterns, stress patterns, and rhythm patterns are included in a study of the sound system:

A. *Vowel and consonant sounds* – The sounds of the language should be taught first. Very few students are aware of this element and attempt to learn a new language by using the sounds of their native tongue. In English, which has hundreds of contrasted monosyllabic words, exact pronunciation of sounds is extremely important. Many foreign students learning English have had some instruction in English in their own countries. Their training in learning the sounds of English, usually sketchy and frequently incorrect, can be a handicap. A teacher frequently has to spend considerable time correcting their faulty pronunciation.

   Instruction in the sounds of the language may be integrated with conversation and structure so that it is taught in context; e.g., the plural sounds of /s/, /z/, and /iz/, in The book*s* are new; the rug*s* are new; and the glass*es* are new. One of the phonetic alphabets can be used in teaching English. Its use will tend to prevent interference from English orthography; however, the student must be oriented to the value of one phonetic alphabet so that he will accept its usage.

B. *Intonation patterns* – In addition to the sounds per se, intonation must be included in the study of spoken English; otherwise, the stress and rhythm patterns of the native language will cause poor English pronunciation. For example, the English sentence ends with a falling tone when questions are asked for information purposes. Questions necessitating a yes-no answer, however, use a rising pitch.

C. *Stress patterns* – In English not all words receive the same stress. Different content words are stressed, whereas words without lexical content (*a, an, the, in, of,* and so forth)

receive a minimal stress. A sentence has a regular stress pattern, and the variation of the stress of words within the pattern changes its meaning.

D. *Rhythm patterns* – The English sentence has a definite rhythm. The important words are spoken more slowly, and the less important words are spoken more quickly.

Structure

A. *Sentence types* –

1. Simple statements – positive and negative
2. Questions – simple, and use of question word
3. Requests and commands
4. Combining simple sentences with *and, but, because*, and so forth

B. *Verbs and verb phrases* –

1. Verb *be* – present tense
2. Other kinds of verbs
3. Questions with *do, does*
4. Present tense with emphasis on the third person singular
5. Future progressive
6. Past tense
7. Contractions
8. Most common irregular verbs
9. Commands
10. Tag questions; e.g., *He's tall, isn't he?*

Textbooks and teachers use different orders of presentation. Usually the verb *be* is taught first, followed by the present progressive or present. Some teachers find more continuity by teaching the verb *be* first and then the present continuous, the past continuous, and the future progressive. Thus, the verb *be* and the *ing* form of the verb are always used initially. It should be noted that this content is suggested as scope rather than as sequence.

C. *Function words* –

1. Prepositions: *in, on, at, for, from, of, with, by, near*
2. Determiners: *a, an, the,* and other substitute words
3. Conjunctions: *and, but, or*
4. Inflected endings; e.g., plurals of nouns, and so forth
5. Question words: *where, when, how, what, why*

D. *Adjectives* –

1. Position of adjectives relative to word modified after verb to be: It is *green*. Before a noun: It's a *green* book.
2. Possessive adjectives
3. *Some* and *any*

E. *Adverbs* – Limited work on formation and use of common adverbs, including irregulars such as *well* and *just*

F. *Pronouns* –

1. Personal
2. Possessive

Vocabulary

A. *A basic vocabulary of flexible contents including* –

1. Numbers – cardinal numbers to 1,000; ordinal numbers to 100
2. Common foods
3. Time of day
4. Articles of clothing
5. Colors
6. Days of the week
7. Months of the year – seasons
8. Basic opposites – adjectives, prepositions, and so forth; e.g., *good-bad, on-off*
9. Eating utensils
10. Parts of the body
11. Furniture
12. Most important geographical names

13. Common animals
14. Materials – wood, rubber, and so forth
15. Names of occupations
16. Family
17. A few two-word verbs based upon verbs plus particles; e.g., *put on, wait for, sit down, get up*
18. Countable and noncountable nouns; e.g., *butter* as opposed to *glass*, and so forth

Skills

In beginning English, writing is quite limited but not ignored. It should be used in direct relationship to the use and understanding of the spoken word in class. Because of their influence on intonation, the question mark, period, and apostrophe are taught at this point. The students are also taught to begin sentences with capital letters.

Suggested proportions of time to be spent in developing language skills are the following:

- Listening – 40 percent
- Speaking – 40 percent
- Reading – 15 percent
- Writing – 5 percent

Level II

Sound System

The students review all sounds and the two basic intonation patterns. The teacher explains the change in stress occurring when a noun complement is replaced by a pronoun; e.g., He bought the *groceries*; He bought *them*. The students work on increased fluency in longer sentences and on stress and rhythm.

Structure

The students review the structures taught at Level I. In the review they strive for more accuracy, more habitual control, and more immediate and fluent responses.

A. *Sentence types* –

1. Review of simple statements and questions
2. Development of ability to ask questions with question words
3. Use of compound sentences in which *and, but,* and other words are used to join independent clauses; e.g., I am going to the movie, *but* John isn't.
4. Use of complex sentences in which *when, because*, and other words are used to introduce dependent clauses:
   a. Temporal clause; e.g., I was at home *when it was raining.*
   b. Causal clause; e.g., I missed my bus *because I was late.*
5. Use of a verb followed by two complements; e.g., He gave *her* a *book*; He gave *it* to *her.*
6. Use of a pronoun-noun combination; e.g., Give *me* a chicken *sandwich.*

B. *Verbs and verb phrases* –

1. Further study of irregular verbs
2. Use of two-word verbs; e.g., *take off, put on*
3. Use of requests with *let's*
4. Use of the verb *do* as a substitute word; e.g., What did you *do* last night?

C. *Function words* –

1. Use of modal auxiliaries; e.g., *can, may, must, should*
2. Use of conjunctions; e.g., *and, but, however*, and so forth

D. *Adjectives* –

1. Position of adjectives
2. Comparison of adjectives – use of *-er, more than, -est,* and *the most*
3. *Some, any, a lot of*, and so forth before countable and noncountable nouns

E. *Adverbs* –

1. Frequency words; e.g., *usually*, *always*, and *never*
2. Position of adverbs
3. Comparison of adverbs

F. *Pronouns and nouns* –

1. Position of nouns and pronouns
2. Direct and indirect object; e.g., Send *him* the *letter*. Send *it* to *him*.

Vocabulary

A. *Specific types of words* –

1. Intensifiers: *too, very*
2. *Too* and *either*; e.g., I like her *too*; I don't like her *either*.
3. Simple synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms

B. *Words referring to common things* –

1. Government agencies
2. Health and health practices
3. Clothing and clothing materials
4. Family – names of more distant relatives
5. Shopping expressions
6. Holidays
7. Occupations and responsibilities within them

Skills

Writing skill is gained in direct relationship to the use and understanding of the spoken word in class. The teacher may have the students practice writing from simple dictation or by writing answers to questions based on their reading and speaking exercises.

Reading assignments are based on class materials and textbooks. Reading material is also based on the student's understanding of spoken material. Students practice silent reading, choral reading, and individual oral reading, emphasizing rhythm, stress, and intonation.

Suggested proportions of time to be spent in developing skills at Level II are the following:

- Listening and speaking – 45 percent
- Reading – 35 percent
- Writing – 20 percent

Level III

Sound System

The students review the sounds and intonation patterns and spend much time in studying contrasting words and phrases. The teacher explains the intonation pattern in emphatic speech and drills the students in sentences of increasing length, emphasizing rhythm.

Structure

The students review the structures taught at Level I and Level II, practicing for greater fluency and for a more sustained response; that is, for more than one statement or question as a response to the question or statement. Response 2 is an example of sustained response:

"That's a beautiful bracelet."
Response 1: "Thank you."

"That's a beautiful bracelet."
Response 2: "Thank you. It's new. I bought it yesterday."

A. *Sentence types* – Review the following types of sentences: simple, interrogative, imperative, compound, and easier complex.

1. Complex sentences
   a. Use of *that* either stated or unstated to introduce dependent clauses; e.g., I think *that* he is watching television.
   b. Time and place clauses; e.g., I was eating *when they came*.

c. Clauses used to modify; e.g., The book *which I am reading* is new.
d. Clauses used as nouns; e.g., The boy asked *who was going*.

2. Indirect questions and statements; e.g., She asked me *where I was going.* Could you tell me *what time it is*?
3. Included phrases and clauses; e.g., The girl *with the pretty dress* is my cousin. The girl *standing on the corner* is my cousin. I told him *I would wait for ten minutes.* She said *that she had already met him.*

B. *Verbs and verb phrases* –

1. Review present, past, and future tenses.
2. Introduce present, perfect, present perfect continuous, past perfect, past perfect continuous, and the future perfect.
3. Introduce the passive with *be*; teach only the forms commonly used in realistic speech.
4. Conditional sentences – sequence of tenses after *if*; e.g., If the sun *shines*, I'll go. If he *studied*, he *would understand.* If he *had studied*, he *would have understood.*
5. Gerund – the *ing* form of the verb used as a noun
   a. After such verbs as *enjoy, prefer*, and so forth; e.g., I enjoy *studying.*
   b. After the preposition; e.g., Thank you for *helping* me. I am fond of *dancing.*
6. The "marked" infinitive as used in subject, object, or displaced subject postion; e.g., I want *to study*. It is easy *to study* at school.
7. Idiomatic verb phrases: *supposed to, used to,* and so forth
8. Causative pattern – *have, make, get*; e.g., He *had* a new suit made. He *got* Harry to cut the grass.

C. *Adjectives* –

1. Review of position and comparison of adjectives
2. Multiple modifiers before a noun; e.g., I saw *several large green* trees.

3. Adjectival phrases; e.g., the girl *with the pretty hair*, the girl *sitting down*
4. *Too, very, more* before adjectives

D. *Adverbs* –

1. Review of position and comparison of adverbs
2. Adverbial phrases; e.g., He came *by bus*. He succeeded *through hard work.*
3. *Too, very, more* before adverbs

Vocabulary

A. Parts of words

1. Prefixes
2. Suffixes

B. Types of words

1. Synonyms
2. Antonyms
3. Homonyms
4. Pronouns; e.g., *someone, everyone, nobody*, and so forth
5. Idioms

C. Hyphenation of words

D. Derivation of words

E. Words used in specific situations or related to specific areas of interest

1. Educational opportunities
2. Music, literature, and the arts
3. Leisure activities
4. Government
5. Travel
6. Postal procedures
7. Insurance procedures
8. Driving and traffic regulations
9. Purchasing suggestions

Skills

At Level III more time is devoted to reading and writing. Reading skills are sharpened and expanded as necessary tools for obtaining information. Reading comprehension is evaluated through discussions or written questions.

Writing skills are developed to meet the needs of daily living as well as the more formal requirements of education. Students practice writing dictated sentences and short paragraphs and begin writing letters.

Suggested proportions of time to be spent in developing skills at Level III are the following:

- Listening and speaking – 40 percent
- Reading – 40 percent
- Writing – 20 percent

Level IV

When a student reaches the advanced levels in his study of English, he finds that his teachers emphasize review, practice, refinement, and expansion of the material already introduced in previous classes. At levels III and IV more emphasis is placed on reading and writing in materials that will help the student to gain insight into the problems of our society, into the workings of labor and industry, and into the American way of life.

The advanced classes are similar to English classes taught in the regular school system. Since one of the prime objectives of teaching English as a second language is to encourage the student to further his education, the student should be prepared to compete with students who speak English as their native tongue.

Sound System

The students review sounds and intonation patterns. Choral response is no less important than before, but individual responses are now longer and more frequent.

At the advanced levels the student will not yet be mistaken for a native speaker. But he should be able to speak without making significant errors that lead to misunderstanding or difficulty in understanding.

The aural comprehension of the student should be raised so that he can understand English spoken at a normal to rapid rate of speed. Those students going to college have as one specific goal the taking of lecture notes.

Structure

The students review the materials taught at other levels. Special attention is paid to complex sentences and questions, including phrases, indirect and direct speech, sequence of tenses, passive voice, gerunds, and infinitives:

A. Verbal phrases and idioms

B. Modal auxiliaries

C. Perfect and continuous form of infinitives; e.g., I am glad *to have met you.* I seem *to be making progress.*

D. Subjunctive after a wish; e.g., I wish I *owned* an automobile.

Vocabulary

The goal of the advanced student is to develop a vocabulary equivalent to that of an adult American. He learns vocabulary by association in the context of reading material. He uses vocabulary books and learns word roots, prefixes, and suffixes. He also learns the nuances in the meanings of similar but not identical words. If he is going to college, the student must raise his vocabulary level to the point where he can select words of precision and nuance beyond the level of the average adult.

Skills

Until now the student has been concerned primarily with learning to read. Now his task shifts to reading to learn. More

accurately stated, he now reads for information. He is still learning to read but at a more advanced level and with his attention directed to the information he is gathering. To improve his reading ability, the student should follow these suggestions:

- Read aloud to check comprehension, intonation, and vocabulary.
- Read silently to increase speed and comprehension.
- Read at home for practice.
- Solve problems by noting clues, questioning conclusions, and visualizing written material.
- Develop understanding of maps, tables, graphs, illustrations, and the like.

Reading material should be graded according to the student's level of proficiency. Certain literary selections are usable at this stage when the language can be understood by the students and the content is believed worthwhile. However, such literature as Shakespeare's works should not be simplified to make them usable. The study of these works and others of a similar nature should be postponed until the student is ready for them as an esthetic experience. Great works should be taught when the student is advanced enough in his control of the language and his understanding of the culture to appreciate them as the native reader does.

Translating to learn English is strictly forbidden; students must have practice in attaching meaning to the forms of English without having to rely on their mother tongue. They should be taught to use a dictionary in English and to refrain from referring to a bilingual dictionary.

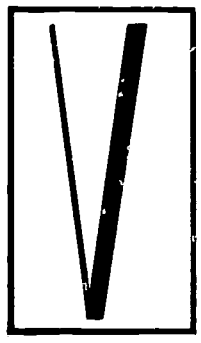
At lower levels the student learned to write; now he writes to inform. He is still learning but at a more advanced stage. He knows the language and how to present it in script. Now he must be taught to present his information in a form suited to the occasion, whether that form is a friendly letter, a report to the teacher, or an article for publication. Students who are going on to college need practice in the writing of more advanced forms of English so that they can write

essay examinations, term papers, and theses in direct competition with native users of English. To improve his writing ability the student should follow these suggestions:

- Practice spelling and writing in sequential, coherent style.
- Write from dictation to check pronunciation, spelling, punctuation, and hearing skills.
- Write complete sentences.
- Write paragraphs.
- Write compositions.
- Write clearly and effectively.

Students should know outlining and style conventions used in friendly letters, formal letters, invitations, reports, newspapers, and so forth.

What the students are taught and how they are taught reflect theories and principles of language learning. To a large extent such matters are controlled by the textbooks and materials used. The teacher should therefore examine as many textbooks as possible in the field of teaching English as a second language. The sequence, organization, and content of the materials in textbooks and a realistic appraisal of students and community help in planning the curriculum for the course.



The Audiolingual Approach

The audiolingual approach to learning a second language is generally accepted as the basis of modern language instruction. A discussion of some of the specific methods and techniques used in the audiolingual approach to teaching English as a second language is presented in this chapter. However, no attempt is made to examine in detail the theory of the audiolingual method or the research supporting it. For such information the teacher should consult the works of such authorities as Nelson Brooks, Mary Finocchiaro, Charles C. Fries, and Robert Lado.

Written Versus Spoken English

Some methods of teaching English as a second language emphasize reading literary works, translating from and into the native tongue, learning explanations of grammar, and using correct vocabulary. By contrast the oral approach emphasizes speaking, learning the second language without depending on native speech, practicing grammar instead of talking about it, and using the language as an American would in everyday situations.

The Priority of Spoken English

Advocates of the audiolingual method of teaching English believe that speaking with others is the goal of language learning. From the beginning, students should be taught to develop their ability to speak English. Although learning the sounds in a word like *caught* or *sure* before he sees them written does not help the student learn how to spell them, it does keep a Spanish-speaking student, for example, from pronouncing them *cowt* and *sewery*. Learning to speak in understandable groups of words helps to prevent the painful word-by-word speech and reading that printed word translations

bring about. From the first this training develops in the student the techniques of understanding an unknown word or phrase in the context of conversation. This facility frees him almost immediately from his dictionary and eventually from his teacher.

Listening

Indications that ability to say something follows an ability to hear and understand it also gives listening a priority in this method. Intensive work in listening and speaking helps students to reach quickly the goals of understanding and communicating at a pace near that of native speakers.

Reading and Writing

Reading and writing are taught along with speaking and listening, but reading for information and writing to communicate are deferred until most English language patterns have been learned orally. Until that level is reached, students write only the carefully controlled patterns they have practiced in speaking and listening.

Importance of English Grammar

Some teachers have the mistaken impression that the audiolingual method is an approach that never mentions or seldom uses generalized grammar. This unstructured type of teaching was once popular but not today. In fact, the more thoroughly a teacher understands the grammar of English and of the languages of his students, the better can he use the audiolingual approach in teaching adults.

Problems of Adult Learning

The problems of an adult in learning a second language are very different from those of a child in learning his native language. For approximately 20 years the mind and the speech muscles of an adult have practiced the automatic habits that make up his language. When he attempts to take on a second set of speech habits, he has the

advantage of having learned one set already. Most of his problems in learning a second language are the long-term problems that come with replacing any automatic habit with another.

Language Differences

Problems occur because different languages are never made of exactly the same sets of sounds. Languages differ in arrangement of words, in prefixes and suffixes, and in the manner of connecting ideas. Only a careful study of both a student's language and English can show how they are alike and how they differ. The student must practice continually until the new language is as automatic as the old. Practicing those parts of English that give a student trouble is one way of handling the interference created by his native language. Several comparative grammars are available to help the teacher prepare for these problems.

Slow Progress

A student should not use his native language in the classroom. So that English will be learned on its own terms and so that the student will think in English rather than in translation from his native language, vocabulary and grammar should be learned from actions, pictures, and easily understood situations. Learning progresses slowly at first, but the advantages to be gained at the advanced level are worth the patience, card flipping, and hand waving needed at the beginning level. Vocabulary items are controlled while the students are in the early stages of comprehending the grammatical structure of the language.

Controlled Pattern Practice

According to the audiolingual method, a basic vocabulary is studied until meanings become unmistakable and speech becomes automatic. Then the words are shifted and recombined into more complicated patterns. Many connecting words, such as *with, will*, and ***but***, are added until meanings once more become unmistakable and speech again becomes automatic. Since only a small number of English words and word patterns can be used at any one time,

grammar and vocabulary are controlled so that the most basic and most commonly used words and phrases come first. For example, in a choice between *return* and *come back*, the teacher chooses the latter; then he reinforces the pattern by having the students continuously repeat *look back, talk back, walk back*, and *drive back*.

Interesting Techniques

At this stage the teacher uses ingenuity to keep this repetition from becoming boring. He attempts to involve the students personally in the situations that give the language meaning. This attempt may take the form of an interesting technique like having the students make a family tree from magazine pictures. The student leaves a blank circle into which he writes his own name as he learns family relationships and practices such patterns as these: My father is my mother*'s* husband (stress *'s*); or My father*'s* home but my sister*s* aren't (singular-plural distinction). Basic to any technique is the emotional involvement of the student. This involvement may be accomplished through grouping the class members for specific purposes. For example, structures and intonations can be easily transferred to a realistic situation by having the students write and read their own conversations. A sample procedure follows:

1. The teacher writes a sample conversation on the blackboard; e.g., a telephone conversation between two students or a description of a visit to the doctor.

2. The teacher and students read the conversation.

3. The teacher divides the students into groups of two, three, or four, and has them write a conversation, following a prepared example.

4. The teacher then duplicates (uncorrected) the dialogue, one copy for each student.

5. The students and teacher together correct the conversations. (Students usually make similar mistakes.)

6. The students take turns reading and acting out the conversation. At this time the teacher examines the corrections of the conversation, their pronunciation, and the rhythms of their speech.

Necessary Reviews

Patterns and vocabulary must be practiced until speaking and listening involve no conscious choice. However, the teacher may think that because students can listen and speak fluently during one lesson, they need no further work on a pattern. Yet repetition soon after learning and additional reinforcement later are necessary for retaining what has been learned. When a teacher tries to teach an English pattern that is continually deflected by the patterns of the native language, even more review is necessary. Most good textbooks present reviews periodically. The teacher can make certain that the material is reviewed by keeping a handful of reminder cards containing vocabulary words and sentence patterns that have been covered. The more recent ones should be reviewed each week; all of them should be reviewed within a month.

Oral Practice

Because class hours are limited, students should practice using English during most of their learning time. Sitting and listening to a teacher lecture may be listening practice, but the teacher should keep in mind that he is essentially enlisted as a native speaker of English to act as an informant for his students. At the beginning levels a teacher should speak so that his students can mimic or respond, not take notes.

Useful Textbooks

Knowing when to change pace or content is another important skill for a teacher. A structure that is causing students to make very many mistakes should be discontinued; it can be referred to over a period of time until it is learned. This problem usually does not happen if only a small amount of new material, easily followed and readily learned, has been included in English already mastered. Textbooks that control the teaching in this way represent a great expenditure of time and classroom testing by the highly skilled linguistic teachers who write these books. These books introduce a new word or pattern only after building up to it and repeat old lessons while a new lesson is being learned.

Class Participation

If supplementary materials are introduced, a teacher should follow closely the familiar patterns in the textbook and should not introduce too much additional vocabulary for its own sake. Even if the material is controlled, the class will have no feeling of progress unless everyone is involved. Having one student respond at length while the rest of the class sits passively is not encouraging. As in any teaching situation, the teacher should reward success and should create learning situations where success is almost certain for all. When mistakes come, they should be met with understanding. A good classroom atmosphere has been created when a student calmly and with interest repeats a corrected sentence. Later on, class interest in the success of each student will probably be shown by good-natured laughter when a student forgets. The teacher's attitude can also protect a student who cannot endure laughter under any circumstances; the class will usually join to protect him.

Instruction in Spoken English

Another major feature of the audiolingual method of teaching is its insistence on teaching the spoken language at early levels of instruction. Common English used in everyday situations is the context from which the audiolingual method takes its grammar and vocabulary. It is also the context in which English should be taught at the beginning level of instruction. The most common form of instruction given in classes and textbooks is the short dialogue built around an ordinary situation with which the student can easily identify. The situation should be realistic and should stress American speech that makes our society and ways understandable and helps interest the student in the language.

Authentic Speech

Vocabulary is taught in the context of spoken language. Realism in sound patterns and grammar patterns means that students are taught from the first to substitute words in answers, to use contractions and weak or fast forms, and to drop the same sounds natives leave out. For example, the answer to *Are you going to school tomorrow?* would probably be not *Yes, I am going to school*

tomorrow but *Yes, I am* or *Yes, I'm going there then*. The effort is always to teach the student the best possible pronunciation and the most readily accepted pronunciation. This insistence on spoken English means that the teacher must learn to examine carefully his own speech and that of his students. What is taught must always pass the test of real language.

Automatic Speech

The audiolingual approach also furnishes the teaching method used to lead the student from mere oral fluency to final mastery of language. Even though he can speak and write English fluently in a set pattern, the student does not know the language until he has learned to use it automatically and meaningfully. The completely controlled speaking and writing situations used at the beginning levels begin to give way at advanced levels to situations with more freedom of choice in language. This change forces the student to sort among the patterns he has learned, combine them to fit the situation, and respond. In this way mimicry gives way to free selection.

The Sounds of English

People seldom hear all the sounds in a second language; experience indicates that they must learn to hear sounds before they can learn to say them. For this reason controlled and intensive listening is vital at the beginning of an English course and continues to be important at all levels. Overcoming these sound problems is not only a matter of knowing that the sounds are different. Such retraining takes daily, repeated exercises in hearing and speaking. Slowing down helps in teaching speech sounds, but there is an artificiality to most slow speech. The voice tends to go up and down more; the sounds in words such as *the, a, to, it, him* change and get longer; many of the blends (*last time – lastime*) drop; and contractions such as *I'm* are distinguished orally.

In the audiolingual approach, contractions, fast or unstressed forms, and blends are taught from the first with the slower forms. If they are not taught from the beginning, the teacher will have to spend many hours later trying to correct slow speech patterns. The teacher also has a tendency to mispronounce in order to help students hear and spell words. One of the most common forms this

takes is to change the final sounds on *couldn't, wouldn't, student, didn't* to sound like *dent* instead of *dn't.*

If students are to hear the difference between a positive and negative sentence, if they are to sound like excited teenagers or like self-conscious radio announcers, and if they are to hear all the English they know at any point, the teacher must not limit their listening and speaking to slow, careful patterns only.

Making Sounds Visible

Sounds can be made visible. By working face to face with a few students, a teacher can show how the sounds are made by demonstrating with the lips, tongue, teeth, and chin. When a teacher is in front of his class, less of this motion is visible to the students. But by exaggerating motions, drawing cross-sections of the mouth and tongue, pinching the corners of the mouth for *r*, kissing the back of the hand for *w*, or using a chart of mouth and tongue positions, the teacher can help his students to "see the sounds."

The teacher uses his hands to show positions and movements of the tongue and mouth. Hands cupped in each other, palm up with the fingers curved, show the tongue in *l* position. Swiveling the hands out shows how the sides of the tongue tense to make *ld* or *lt*. The left hand can be shaped so that the palm is the roof of the mouth; the inner knuckles are the bony ridge back of the teeth. With the right hand, the teacher can then show the differences in the position of the tongue for the English sounds for *t, d*, and *th* compared with the Spanish sounds for these letters. The right hand is rocked from heel to finger tips to show the *gl* or *kl* sounds in *glad* and *clean*. One author recommends a cut-out cross-section of the mouth cavity with a red mitten over the hand for a tongue. Being able to blow out a match flame on each side of the mouth but not in the center shows the relaxed sides of the tongue for *th* sounds. A pencil or finger pressed down back from the tip of the tongue as *ray, row, rue, rah* are said may help problems in pronouncing *r*.

These positions and the drawings that help teachers to teach can be found in any good book on American English phonetics. A chart of English vowel positions will also be found in most books on phonetics. This chart can be used in the teaching of short English vowels by showing where they come between the long vowels.

Practicing Sounds

Students should not have to worry about grammar and vocabulary when they are listening and speaking. For example, an already familiar sentence or groups of words given for sound only, not meaning, can be used as a beginning exercise in studying English sounds. One form this exercise may take is working with minimal pairs -- words that sound the same except for one sound; for example, *bit/bet, date/late, dim/dill, stop/slop.* The teacher should write two or more words on the board and number them; drill the class on the pronunciation of the words; and then repeat one or more of them and let the class guess the numbers of the ones said. The teacher should get the students to say the words by pointing out the numbers.

The teacher should pass out sheets with groups of words on them and should ask the students to check the word that is said. This is a good learning experience, one that helps to check student progress.

A quick method of isolating consonant sounds at the beginning, middle, or end of a word is to repeat them or prolong them; e.g., *th-th-th-this-sssss*. This exercise is especially effective in pronouncing final consonants without a hum or hiss instead of saying, for example, *last-uh* or *bed-uh*. Another way of working out phrases or words that are difficult for students to say or hear is to work backwards, being careful to keep all blends intact; e.g., *rrrrnnnnn, k-k-k-kiron, l-l-l-lectric iron, nnnnelectric iron, an electric iron.*

The teacher should concentrate on important sound problems like the difference between *thin* and *thing*. Whether *running* ends with /ng/ or /n/ is relatively unimportant. Both sounds are nasal.

Using Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation

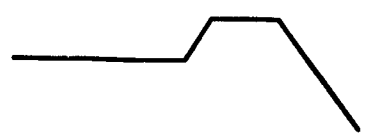
In addition to facing vowel and consonant problems, the newcomer to English also has trouble knowing when to raise or lower the volume of his speech, when to speak faster or more slowly, and when to raise or lower the tone of his speech. A little extra volume along with a thump on the desk helps a teacher to show stress. Speaking in meaningful groups of words shows how spoken English emphasizes most nouns, verbs, and negatives. One teacher developed this way of writing to show emphasis: th. GIRL .n th. CAR's m.

SISter. The periods represent the shortened vowels in the unaccented grammar words.

Intonation can be shown by raising and lowering the hand when talking, by writing the words in ascending or descending order, or by using illustrative lines. Some of the most basic intonation patterns with lines to illustrate them are the following:

SCHOOL?
TO
ARE YOU GOING

DO
WHAT ARE YOU I
N
G?



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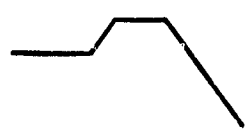

I'M SHE
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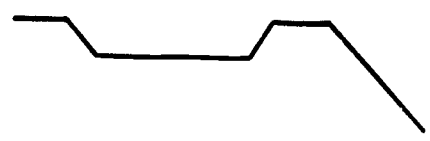

Certain authors have also developed musical notation with large and small notes and tails to show in which direction the voice moves.

Using Phonetic Symbols

Another way to make sound visible is to use one of the sets of phonetic symbols developed for this purpose. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and its adaptation to English by Trager and Smith in *An Outline of English Structure* are both widely used. They can be found in the *English for Today* series of the National Council of Teachers of English, in Fries' works, and in many other sources. The convention is to use [ ] or slash marks / / to enclose phonetic symbols to prevent confusion with actual spelling.

Overuse of phonetic symbols at early stages may cause spelling problems if less sophisticated students mistake the sound symbols for spelling. Often just one or two symbols over the problem part of a word are enough, or isolated symbols can be put in brackets on the board for use in speaking and listening drills. It is worthwhile to learn one of the alphabets, but it is questionable whether the students obtain anything of value from such learning at an early level of instruction. It is better to teach the alphabet, observe the rules of English pronunciation, and note the consistencies of English spelling and pronunciation.

Listening to and Speaking English

Students at the beginning level should spend 80 percent or more of the class time listening to and speaking English. Reading and writing are limited to the words and patterns already practiced extensively in oral drill. To keep them talking instead of reading, the teacher can act out verbs, use signals, and display flash cards, charts, and pictures. Carefully worked out sets of cards and charts can be bought from various sources or can be made by the teacher.

Use of Signals

Signals enable a teacher to correct a student without interrupting his speech. The following are examples of these signals and their meanings:

Signal	*Meaning*
Nod	Positive
Shake of the head	Negative
One finger	Singular
Two fingers	Plural
Hand with fingers spread as if to count	Many
Hand cupped as if to hold grain	Much
Finger pointed over shoulder	Past tense
Pendulum-swing in front	Present tense
Pointing to floor at feet	Now
Waving to the front	Future tense
Movement from over shoulder to front (past to present)	Perfect tense

Signal	*Meaning*
Pointing to floor at feet	Here
Pointing to wall	There
One card or hand higher than the other	More than
Hands or cards on the same level	As many as

Use of Substitution Practice

Using visual cues, the teacher can put the students through the oral pattern drills that form the basis of beginning English according to the audiolingual method. After introducing the pattern sentence orally and working with the students on individual sound problems, the teacher has the class do choral substitution in the following way:

Pattern: *I don't have any money, but I have some ink.*

Teacher now shows *milk* and *sugar* cards or says the words.

Students: *I don't have any milk, but I have some sugar.*

Teacher says the sentence and students mimic his pronunciation.

Teacher then shows *sugar* and *water* cards.

Students: *I don't have any sugar, but I have some water.*

The teacher should listen carefully as students speak and should look at their mouths. Mistakes of individuals can be identified even in a large group.

When the class has mastered the rhythm and ideas of the pattern, the teacher turns to the first student and shows him two cards. Then he moves on to the next student with different cards. He does not stop unless a rather obvious mistake is made and then only for one repetition. He makes the students keep up the pace and makes his voice and manner interesting and lively. When this type of drill is rapid and brief it is very effective. The teacher should remember to work only for muscular control. Students accept more of this drill at beginning levels than at intermediate or advanced levels. Before the drill gets tiresome, it should be dropped for something else; it may be resumed later. Substitution should be made in more than one position at a time, as seen in the following examples:

Pattern: *She put on her hat.*

Cues: *He . . . coat.*

Students: *He put on his coat.*

Pattern: *The boy hit the ball.*

Cue: *Girl*

Students: *The girl hit the ball.*

Cue: *Saw*

Students: *The girl saw the ball.*

Words can be added until the sentence gets too long to handle.

When a drill gets harder, slower students should be called early. Varying the procedure for calling on students to respond rather than always employing the same procedure helps keep the students attentive.

Use of Question-and-Answer Practice

By using oral or visual cues, the teacher can have the class continue with a question-and-answer exercise according to a pattern introduced.

Some of the hardest English grammar to learn involves the present tense of the verb, third person singular (*he wants*); the simple past (*I wanted*); the irregular past tense (*I ran*); and the inversion of the auxiliaries involved in asking and answering questions (*Does he want the car? Yes, he wants the car. No, he doesn't want the car. Did he want the car? Yes, he wanted the car. No, he did not want the car.*)

These forms should be practiced as part of every lesson, even at the most advanced levels. Often, when a student starts to concentrate on some other part of the sentence, he forgets an *s* or misplaces the subject. The teacher should write the question and answer repeatedly

on the board with arrows to show the error. A wrist-crossing gesture can remind them about position. A magnetic board with easily shifted word plaques may help.

The question-and-answer approach can also be used to work with new vocabulary items. A set of flash cards with question words and phrases can be used to teach both short answers without the verb and long answers with the verb, as in the following examples:

Teacher: *Do you go to school every day?*

Student: *Yes, I do. I go there every day.*

Teacher: *Do you go to school every day?*

Student: *No, I don't. I don't go there every day.*

Next, the student questions another student, drawing the verb from a cue.

Early in the class students can give short answers to all helping verbs even before they have studied them:

Can you go? Yes, I can. No, I can't.

Should I go? Yes, you should. No, you shouldn't.

However, since some verbs will not fit, the teacher must make sure that correct English is being used.

Reversal of Question-and-Answer Practice

To review the question-and-answer problems, the teacher may give the answer and have the students develop the question. This procedure demands thorough background in the question words and phrases. For example:

Pattern: *John is writing a letter with my pen.*

Teacher: *Mine* is the answer. What is the question phrase?

Student: *Whose pen?*

Teacher: *What is the question?*

Student: *Whose pen is he writing with?*

This practice is especially effective in teaching the English pattern in which the preposition appears last in a sentence.

Question words can also be used to show the arrangement of elements in an ordinary English sentence:

(Who?) (Did what?) (To whom?) (Where?) (When?) (Why?)
John sent a letter to Helen in Reno yesterday to ask her to marry him.

To get students to use longer sentences, the teacher should get them started, ask progressive questions, and then have them say the whole sentence:

Student: *I saw Mary.*

Teacher: *Where?*

Student: *In the park.*

Teacher: *At what time?*

Student: *At six.*

Teacher: *When?*

Student: *Yesterday.*

Teacher: *Say the whole sentence.*

Student: *I saw Mary in the park at six yesterday.*

Other uses of question-and-answer drill are mentioned in various textbooks or can be developed by the teacher.

Creation of Complex Patterns

Another common audiolingual drill that can be carried into the more advanced levels of instruction is the combining or reshaping of

simpler patterns into more complex ones. Familiar sentences can be combined into the pattern or idiom being studied. This practice is also very helpful in teaching the more complex moods and tenses. The following sentences illustrate development of complex patterns:

I have a hat. It is red. I have a red hat.
I go to school every day. I study hard there. When I go to school, I study hard.
He wrote this wook well. It is a well-written book.

Here the teacher uses thumbs up for *well*; thumbs down for *poorly* or *badly*; a slashing movement waist-high for *half-finished*; and a shake of the head for *unfinished*. The following is another example of shaping for a complex sentence:

I want to go to Japan but I don't have any money. I would go to Japan if I had some money.

Use of the Dialogue

Both the working of individual sounds and the techniques for getting students to talk are used to make the student familiar with the everyday dialogue used to teach grammar and vocabulary in context. Whether introduced by the teacher or on a tape recorder, the dialogue is usually spoken first. When the students have mastered the speech patterns, they may open their books. Then sheets are passed out or the dialogue is written on the board. One teacher's technique is to have pairs of students practice the dialogue as he gradually erases it; thus, they must rely more and more on their memory. This can be done to emphasize parts of speech, structural relations, and so forth. Once the dialogue is learned, it can be used with other words. Review is made by having students fill in missing lines in a dialogue.

Use of Other Methods

Many other creative methods may be used for involving students in oral participation:

1. Questions and answers can be developed about an object in the classroom, a picture in a filmstrip or a magazine, a movie, or a study trip.

2. Word games can be carefully controlled and adapted for the classroom: "Twenty Questions," with queries about the past, present, or future; "What Am I?" played with objects in the room; progressive phrase memory games in which the last student has to repeat all the short phrases of the other students; and a game in which parts are taken out of a story and the story is recreated.

3. A timeline can be drawn on the board from past through present into the future. The teacher places cards along the timeline, and the students tell a story to practice verb tenses.

4. *Where?* and *How many?* Question-and-answer structures can teach the names of the parts of the body or of the schoolroom.

5. After practicing a pattern, especially a more complex one, students can be asked to tell short situational stories that end with the sentence pattern. This procedure helps them practice using past verbs and lets the teacher know whether the students really understand the pattern.

6. Situations can be developed and tightly structured to help students practice almost any aspect of the grammar of the language, as shown in the following examples:

   a. Having a fortune teller for *past, present*, and *future*
   b. Gossiping over the back fence for *I think*
   c. Asking for a date for *would you*
   d. Having a marriage counselor for *should have been, could have made*
   e. Telling a little boy what to do when he visits his grandmother for *should, shouldn't*

7. A student can tell another one how to draw a shape for *straight, curved, round, it is,* and *it has*.

8. A student can tell another what to do for commands and prepositional phrases.

The possibilities are unlimited. These activities are usually a good way to work for understanding after rapid drills have developed oral fluency. After the class spirit has formed, funny props like wigs, hats,

mustaches, and so forth may be used. Entertainment for its own sake, however, is not teaching. Carefully chosen folk, popular, and theater songs and a few short poems give the students something to sing or say to themselves at home to practice English. Songs and poems without inversion or stilted language and ones that embody the grammar being taught should be used.

Reading English

During the first part of a student's English training, he learns to identify and write the letters of the alphabet in English; thus, he has taken the initial steps in learning to read the English language. Following this introduction he is made aware of the problems of irregularity in English spelling: the multivalent vowels; the duplicate consonants, such as C, S, K and KS, and X; and others.

As students learn the sounds of the language, the teacher can write the symbols for the basic sounds on the board and can hand out sound tests that make students aware of many of the English spelling rules, such as the *-e* to make the vowel long.

As students learn vocabulary and sentence structure, they are required to do more reading in the language patterns being studied. When the students have studied the language for a few months, they should be encouraged to practice what they have learned by making attempts at sounding out new words. Graded materials can be prepared or purchased from textbook companies for that purpose. Folders of graded materials can be kept for free reading by the more advanced students in a class. From the first the material chosen to be read can also serve to orient the students to the local area, the American economy and government, and American customs. The art of writing and the literary approach to reading should be delayed until the students approximate native fluency.

Reading for Review and New Learning

In the advanced levels of English instruction, reading is used as a method for reviewing the patterns and vocabulary already learned and for acquiring new, more specific vocabulary. As with any other aspect of language learning, the student must be drilled in the

vocabulary to be learned. Here is an example of how this drill might be conducted:

1. A student reads the first sentence, sounding out new words.
2. Through questions and answers, the teacher tries to get students to figure out new words without a dictionary.
3. When the new word has been understood or explained, it is used in chorus in various patterns.
4. Words of a similar nature are given by the teacher and are used in sentences; e.g., *labor, laboratory, laborer.*
5. The structure of the sentence is examined by the question-and-answer method and by substitution.
6. The next sentence is read, and the procedure is repeated.
7. The next day the students review to see if they remember the new words.
8. Later a matching or completion test can be used to help the students review again.

Reading Suitable Materials

Graded materials written specifically for classes in English as a second language are not easy to find. Most materials must be prepared by the teacher or are taken from textbooks designed for use in adult literacy classes. Some of the materials that could be used for class reading or for home reading follow:

- Maps of the city, county, state, nation, world, and galaxy (good for proper names and preposition work)
- Picture magazines and the comics
- Selections cut from beginners' textbooks not used in class
- Carefully chosen poems, songs, and materials for more advanced classes
- A mail order catalog

Writing English

Just as students are limited to controlled reading until they have achieved native fluency, they should also be limited to controlled writing. Undirected writing at these levels produces too many errors. And the same errors are repeated often enough for the students to learn from their mistakes. Until they learn general English vocabulary and grammar, students should be directed to write only what they have said and what the teacher dictates – in the patterns that they have been practicing.

Writing from Dictation

Dictation techniques can vary greatly. Some students can work at the chalkboard while the others remain seated and learn from the examples on the chalkboard. Flash cards can be set along a time line. For example, *go* in past, *eat* in *now* position, and *swim* in future position would lead to these sentences: *I went to the show yesterday. I am eating a hamburger now. I'm going to swim to Hawaii tomorrow.*

Another method for teaching writing is to have students work with a dialogue until it has been memorized. First, the teacher dictates the dialogue and discusses the spelling. Then he begins orally to substitute words in the basic framework of the dialogue. When the substitution pattern is clear, he gives the students a common subject or set of words and asks them to write the new version of the dialogue. He walks among the students as they write to gauge their learning and identify mistakes early. If a common error recurs, the teacher develops a review drill before he lets his students go back to writing.

Next the teacher gives each student a subject to write about and corrects as many papers as he can while the students are writing. The teacher has some papers read aloud, which he corrects orally. He then has those whose papers have not been corrected or read hand them in. This procedure gives each student personal attention and cuts down on homework for the teacher. The teacher can also scramble the words of a sentence and let the students sort out the meaning, as in the following example:

Scrambled: *big, went, yesterday, to, sister, baseball, the, game, my*
Meaningful: *My big sister went to the baseball game yesterday.*

The teacher often asks a series of related questions and tells the students to answer the questions in a paragraph, as in the following example:

Questions: Where and when were you born? How many brothers and sisters do you have? When did you start to school? When did you come to the United States? What have you been doing since you came here? What are you going to do after you learn English?

Answers: I was born in Guatemala in 1940. I have three brothers and two sisters. I started school in 1947. I came to the United States last year. I have been working at the cannery since I came here. After I learn English, I am going to work in a factory.

By describing an object in the room, writing stories to accompany pictures, finishing incomplete stories or dialogues, and so forth, students learn to write ideas that can follow naturally any of the oral activities of the class.

In controlled writing a student cannot make a serious error if he follows directions. By using controlled writing, the teacher assumes that a foreign student needs as much help in learning to write English as he does in learning to speak English. He also assumes that the student needs to make habitual the structures he uses most frequently in writing, just as he has already made habitual the structures he uses most frequently in speaking. In other words, the student needs pattern practice in writing the following:

- Controlled fill-ins
- Structured questioned paragraphs
- Completing sentences
- Controlled sentence (next one free)

Controlled writing gives the student an intermediate step between writing lists of sentences and writing compositions. The

number of different types of errors the student can make in any exercise is so reduced that all errors made can be corrected.

Shifting Control in Writing

As most of the basic patterns of the language are learned, control of speaking and writing can begin to shift, but only minutely at first. Dialogues can be controlled up to the last line, where a *Why not?* question lets the student think up an uncued last line. The answer should of course be in the right tense and should make sense. This method provides an excellent way of telling whether students have understood the dialogue. This method works in pattern practice too and is about the only way to see whether students have understood *can, could, would, should,* and other patterns.

After sound problems have been mostly overcome and fluent speaking of the pattern has been achieved, the teacher should have his students answer questions by giving the reason why in dependent constructions. These constructions will begin with such words or phrases as *because, so I can, to get some*, and so forth, as shown in the following example:

Cue: *Write* card

Student: *I thought I could write a letter, but I couldn't.*

Teacher: *Why not?*

Student: *Because I didn't have a pencil.*

Another technique is to give students different types of words and to ask them to write a question and answer, using the correct tense of the verb. This technique is illustrated in the following example:

Oral	*Written*
When:	Lately
Sandwiches:	Have you eaten any sandwiches in the cafe lately?
Your:	Has your sister been sick lately? No, she hasn't, but my brother has.

After students have begun to use *could* and *would* patterns with some degree of fluency and understanding, the teacher can shift the writing control even further. Up to now the students have used writing to learn the language; now they can begin a slow transition to writing for a known reader, such as a friend, a businessman, or the teacher. This step means that the writing of personal notes or short friendly letters and business letters may be introduced. The teacher should set up a clearly understood situation and should make a list of the ideas a note must contain, as in the following example:

Situation: You are going to the mountains for the weekend, and you want your sister to do certain things for you.

Content: Ask her to get your cleaning before the shop closes on Saturday. Tell her not to let the dog into the room. Refuse to let her use your tennis racket again because she broke a string the last time she used it.

After reading a short selection about a city, the members of the class can write a typical traveler's letter, telling what they did and saw and how they reacted to their visit to the city. The teacher should have several models of a type of writing and should encourage the students to take their patterns and vocabulary from the models. These and other different but still heavily controlled writing projects will grow out of each lesson.

In the advanced English classes, the student needs to learn how to communicate more involved concepts. Even though the student has mastered the basic sentence patterns, his control of English structures seems to vanish when he first tries to communicate important ideas and impressions. It is at this level that translation, natural language patterns, and bilingual dictionaries come into play. To counteract this problem, the teacher should be especially observant, should have drills, should give examples, and should have the students use their own ideas in structured sentences. He must use the same methods as at earlier levels but must also make certain that the content is more involved. He should have the students use simple structures. The students can practice while answering and asking questions based on reading material.

Writing Freely

Free writing to an unknown audience, as in the familiar essay, should be avoided. This does not mean, however, that a controlled-writing project may not take the form of a newspaper article, a short skit, or even a short short story. However, such writing should be limited. Controls must keep the students within learned patterns and vocabulary.

Even a native speaker of English struggles when a teacher says, "Write me a short story, an essay on virtue, or an article on capital punishment." The teacher should not create a situation in which a student's success in writing depends on his ability to develop an artistic style or an original plot. He should not discourage students from developing style and originality and should praise them when they are successful in making such achievements in their writing. But he should not make the mastery of literary devices necessary for practicing a second language.

Learning the Basic Alphabet

All newcomers to the Roman alphabet must learn to recognize the different letters and to name them if they want to learn how to spell. They must then learn to shape the letters. Of help in their study are flash cards, the usual sound teaching techniques, special literacy workbooks with arrows showing which way the pencil moves to shape the letters, the flannel board, and magnetic board letters. Until the 26 letters are learned, capitals are used. To learn to recognize the letters, the students trace them in the air to begin the shaping process. A blotter embossed with a student's name for tracing can be made. As words are presented in minimal pairs, letters are taught in related shapes that offer problems in differentiation; e.g., *p, b, r; a, h, k; v, w; m, n; g, c, o*, and so on.

From the first, work on basic patterns of oral language continues along with the learning of the alphabet. Linguists state that the teacher does not have to wait until the students have mastered writing to begin a very small amount of very easy reading limited to the words and patterns used in oral drills. The small printed letters are introduced next. Triple-ruled paper is available for students to use in learning to print the letters. Finally, a transition is made to a script that is as close as possible to printing.

Teaching Aids

Use of the chalkboard, flashcards, hand signals, and collections of objects have a basic use in audiolingual teaching. The full range of printed, molded, and mechanical aids is also available for use in teaching English as a second language.

Printed and Molded Aids

Flannel and magnetic boards, teaching clocks, yellow chalk for plural words, an easily seen calendar, wall maps (both labeled and outline), and number and word games can all be used. The following materials are especially useful for teaching at the lower levels of English: ready-made, cut-out capitals; small letters; numbers and math symbols; outline maps; weather symbols; indoor and outdoor scenes with movable props; countable and uncountable nouns; and magnets and magnetic strips to make the teacher's own materials usable. Full-color charts showing the positions of the speech organs to produce different sounds are available separately and in many textbooks. Funny hats, wigs, mustaches, and other theater props help give students something to hide behind when they act out dialogues.

Mechanical Aids

Of the machines used in audiolingual classes, the tape recorder is the most flexible. Some textbooks now come with prerecorded tapes of the dialogues, and some tapes are available from educational electronic suppliers. The recorders that are used in language laboratories have a mechanism that lets the student record his voice and listen to the contrast without erasing the original track.

In those school districts already equipped with language laboratories, it is easy to learn how to use the control panel for personal or prerecorded tapes. A period of adjustment is always necessary for the students when they first go into a language laboratory. Textbooks on how to use the laboratory emphasize that new materials are best introduced by the teacher first, with the laboratory work as a follow-up exercise to help the students gain vocal fluency.

The tape recorder may also be used to let students hear their own classroom speech or to record their conversations. However, this technique may be time-consuming in a large class and may demand a separate room. Earphones with multiple-outlet listening jacks are an inexpensive addition that makes a separate audio room unnecessary. Some of the students can listen while the others do a different type of work. The tape recorder may also be used to bring into the classroom native voices besides the teacher's. This technique is a good check on the teacher's tendency to use unnatural, stilted English.

Movies are another aid that the teacher can use to broaden the experiences of socially and economically handicapped students. With movies the teacher can bring into the classroom the places, actions, and objects he needs to provide important and meaningful experiences. At the lower levels the students can study a movie by first previewing it with the teacher. Then, after the sound has been turned off, the teacher and the students together write a script. Finally, the students take turns narrating the film.

Filmstrips are very adaptable to teaching English as a second language. The frames in a filmstrip can be turned back easily and do not set the rapid pace a movie does. Hundreds of well-made, simply captioned filmstrips on many subjects are now available at the elementary and high school levels. The class will quickly leave any problem captions behind in the question-answer language drills the teacher might use with each frame. If the teacher can use a camera, he can make his own filmstrips or slides for projection. One educational supply company has a camera kit for this purpose, but the items can be purchased separately at a savings.

VI Textbook Selection

Although many excellent textbooks on teaching English as a second language are available, a teacher should review some of the principles of language learning before selecting a textbook to see whether the book or material employs those principles. The teacher should also know at what level he is to teach and how much the student may already know of the language.

Research and experimentation in English language learning (English as a second language) are not new, but the application of principles developed by the researchers has been in wider use since World War II than before the war. A teacher or a school system should take time to select textbook materials that are lively and interesting; that cover what is generally taught at a particular level; and that follow principles found to be the most effective and efficient for language learning.

Requirements for Textbooks and Materials

Basic textbooks and materials selected for teaching English as a second language should satisfy the following requirements:

1. Recognize that language learning is forming new habits in life situations and emphasize content centered on the behavior called for by situations in our culture. Authors should avoid using unreal sentences for repetition.

2. Emphasize general aspects of language use and use correct controlled structures of basic sentences rather than isolated words to be later manufactured into sentences (often incorrectly) by the student. Unless some urgent, individual reason exists to change the order, priority in the textbook should be given to (a) all the sounds and the entire phonemic

system; (b) the basic word order structures; (c) the function words; and (d) the inflections that are most frequent.

3. Present an abundance of oral and written practice drills that help a student replace his own language pattern practices. Habits are learned by active practice, not by listening to explanations and nodding in agreement.

4. Begin with the easiest sentence forms and then proceed to the most difficult.

5. Present materials in sequence. Only a small amount of new material should be presented in each lesson.

   a. The material from one level should lead naturally and sequentially into the next level.
   b. The material should be graded, and it should present the regular forms of the language before it presents the exceptions.
   c. Provision should be made for the constant reintroduction of all the material previously taught.
   d. Not all the vocabulary pertaining to a topic or all the forms, meanings, or uses of an item of structure should be taught at one time.

6. Use vocabulary centered on the interests of a student and on areas with which he is most familiar. The most useful words should be used first – words that will help the student practice the structures; however, vocabulary should be kept to a minimum to stress the sound system and the grammatical patterns.

7. Present the sound system before requiring the student to read or write the particular form. The visual ideas should be presented with the sound, and the student should not see the written forms until he has mastered the patterns orally. Students often see a written form first, decide how the sentences and groups of words should be pronounced, and become so sure of their own renditions that they never hear the correct ones. Some people never learn to listen to speech and have great difficulty being understood unless they speak very slowly with evenly spaced, precise tones.

8. Keep grammar rules to a minimum and use them only to point out generalities or help organize and teach related items. Much grammar can be taught by example; it is not something apart from reading, speaking, and writing.

9. Provide listening materials or practice at a realistic rate. The student must learn to notice meaningful sounds, intonations, stressed words, rhythm, and slurred words. Speech should be recorded at a normal rate, not slowly and precisely, and in meaningful segments that fit the memory span of the student.

Differences in Textbooks

The selection of a textbook based on sound language-learning principles saves the teacher preparation time and helps him utilize his time well in class. The teacher must be careful in choosing a textbook. Some of the best books in the field of English as a second language are directed towards the bright, fast-learning college student. Much of the vocabulary is technical, and the pace is faster than many students can handle. Students may go through the book quickly, but they will learn very little. At the other extreme, caution is necessary because material for adults has often been adapted from children's stories and reflects the interests of children. A third type of material – that designed for adult literacy education – may be used at intermediate and advanced levels of instruction.

The teacher may find something in a book that is generally not taught at a certain level. Some teachers pass quickly over it or skip it entirely if the continuity of the course will not be disturbed. Generally, however, most textbooks present material in a sequence with slight variations. Usually a teacher has to select material that fits the majority of the students' needs and then adapt it, eliminate parts of it, or expand it.

A list of instructional materials has not been included here since this chapter is intended to give the teacher criteria and concepts which can be applied in the proper selection of textbooks and materials. Publishers, recognizing the need for appropriate adult basic education materials, are producing new books very rapidly. Teachers sometimes have the responsibility and frequently the authority to

decide what textbooks will be used. An examination of all available materials is the correct way to make the decision; however, as a practical approach, the teacher should examine those materials available in the district and school and should keep abreast of current publications.

VII Evaluation

In teaching English as a second language, the teacher should look upon evaluation as more than giving tests and assigning grades. A good evaluation program provides not only for assessing student progress but also for revealing how well the program and the methods employed in the program are helping the teacher and his students achieve their goals. Whenever a majority of students does not do as well as expected, it is time to review goals, materials, methods, and philosophy.

Testing as a Means of Evaluation

Programs and student progress are often measured by some kind of testing. Most teachers are familiar with the following standardized tests used in evaluation:

Standardized Tests

1. *Aptitude or prognostic tests* – Aptitude or prognostic tests are used to determine a student's capacity to learn a language. However, these tests have been neither adequate nor reliable for students learning English as a second language.

2. *Diagnostic tests* – Diagnostic tests are used to determine a student's readiness and his weaknesses and strengths before beginning a program. These tests are often used for placement.

3. *Achievement or progress tests* – Achievement or progress tests are used to discover what a student has learned within a given curriculum.

Standardized tests like those previously described provide directions for testing and scoring; indicate reliability (the extent to which a test yields the same result on repeated trials); indicate validity (the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure); and provide norms for comparison (scores that are average for each level). David P. Harris has written a brief, nontechnical pamphlet on standardized tests, *English Testing Guidebook*. Teachers should read this pamphlet if they have not studied the techniques or terminology used in testing.

Most of the standardized tests for English as a second language have been developed for foreign students in college. Teachers and administrators also use tests that have been standardized on American school children. Since these tests have not adequately met the needs of adult school programs, some school districts are developing their own tests to set realistic standards of achievement for their programs as well as for general placement. Published tests that have been used for English as a second language may be found in the bibliography.

Fill-in Tests

The teacher should not give essay tests in a beginning language program. More effective are fill-in tests involving completion, substitution, transformation, the writing of a pattern already practiced orally, question-and-answer items, and complete or partial dictation. *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching*, by F. R. Dacanay and J. Donald Bowen, provides a variety of questions at different levels; *Language Testing*, by Robert Lado, gives many model tests for evaluating listening and speaking; and *Language and Language Learning*, by Nelson Brooks, has a good chapter on test selections.

Picture clues – pictures drawn on the board or reproduced on paper, charts, or individual cards – are good to use in completion tests. The teacher can prepare a list of numbered questions with blanks to be filled in with the correct item. The pictures are numbered and the students are told to use picture number 1 for blank 1, and so forth. If there is a picture of a mother washing her daughter's face, for example, the picture can be used as one of many pictures employed to test a student's understanding of *wash* as a

verb. In the directions, the student is told to use the subject given in the sentence if it is different from the picture. The questions might be as follows:

1. She (washes) every morning.
2. They (washed) last night.
3. He is going (to wash) next week.
4. I'm (washing) now.
5. She has (washed) her face.
6. You don't like to (wash) .
7. Do you like (to wash) ?

A teacher can use the same test a number of times simply by changing the picture.

A series of pictures or props can be used to test understanding of specific types of words; e.g., contractions, nouns, pronouns, and so forth. Vocabulary and spelling are also being tested. For example, the picture of the woman washing the child could be used on a number of different tests. The following sentences are examples of this type of testing:

1. ____(She)____ is Mrs. Brown
   (subject pronoun)

2. ____(Her)____ name is Mrs. Brown.
   (possessive pronoun)

3. Give ____(me)____ this book.
   (objective pronoun)

4. ____(It's)____ in the living room.
   (contraction)

Understanding of time can be tested by using clock charts, a clock with movable hands, or cards with clocks drawn on them. Students should look at the clocks and put numbers in each blank. Then they should cross out either "to" or "after" to make the sentence read correctly, as in the following examples:

1. It's (ten) minutes to/after (nine) .

2. It's (10) : (30) .

Multiple-Choice Tests

Multiple-choice tests for testing vocabulary, nouns, problem adjectives, verb structures, reading, idiomatic usage, and prepositions are well known. Word order, listening comprehension, recognition of sounds, and situation responses can also be tested with multiple-choice tests. The teacher may ask a student to pick the correct answer or the incorrect answer, whichever is called for. The following are some examples of this kind of test:

1. *Word order*. Which of the following sentences has correct word order?

   a. Has been David there?
   b. Been David there?
   c. Has David been there?

2. *Sound systems*. (The teacher pronounces a word.) Choose the following word that ends like the word the teacher has pronounced:

   a. Kiss
   b. Keys
   c. His

   or Which word am I saying? (The teacher pronounces a word.)

   a. Bit
   b. Beat
   c. Bat

3. *Listening comprehension*. The student listens to a phrase or clause and chooses the correct paraphrase of the material he heard; or he hears a question and chooses the correct answer. The teacher gives him a mimeographed series of pictures and tells him to choose the one that best describes a statement.

4. *Situation response*. Mark the best answer for How do you do?

   a. Fine, thank you.
   b. Hello.
   c. Better now.

The teacher should find the following suggestions helpful in making multiple-choice tests:

1. Test students on what they have learned and on what they were told to expect.

2. Test on one thing at a time in each question but give varied questions that represent many common problems.

3. Choose distractors (wrong answers) from errors actually made by the students. If students have a common native language, analyze the typical mistakes these students make. Keep a card file of common mistakes. Obtain distractors from completion, dictation, substitution, and transformation tests or from class recitations.

4. Don't try to trick students. Try to ensure success rather than to obstruct progress.

5. Arrange questions in order of difficulty. A student shows less anxiety for a test when the easy questions are given first.

6. Group the same kinds of questions. Don't test for spelling and items about culture at the same time that you are testing for structure and grammar. Use short, simple questions for oral comprehension, or the test will be a memory test only.

7. Type questions carefully and arrange them clearly. Adult students have fewer problems when the question or statement is repeated and the problem area is underlined; for example, the first group following is arranged better than the second group:

   Group 1

   a. He *is* here.
   b. He *am* here. (distractor)
   c. He *are* here. (distractor)

   Group 2

   a. b. c. (a. is)
   He (is, am, are) here. or He (b. am) here.
   (c. are)

8. Avoid using contractions when testing for knowledge of the structure of the language.

9. Make tablets (stencil keys) for quick grading. If questions are typed as suggested above, line up all the answers in a common vertical line. Using one of the printed tests, punch out the letter in front of the correct answer with a hole punch. Place the master answer sheet over each student's test, and if the student has placed an X on the a, b, or c, the X will appear in the hole. If no X appears, circle the letter through the hole with a red pencil. Students then know that they missed that question, and they know which answer was correct. By using a tablet, the teacher can reduce correction time by one third.

10. Write simple directions, using only a few words. Give an example or two and a trial sentence or two. Be sure students know whether they are to mark correct answers or wrong answers.

11. Allow students sufficient time at first to answer the questions; later, time limits may be set. However, the teacher may frighten his students if he starts time limits too soon. If there is a time limit, tell students at the beginning of the test.

12. Teach students how to use answer sheets (if they are to be used). Adult students can use them even at the beginning.

13. Grade papers, and discuss the results with students as quickly as possible. Some teachers give students two tests with a carbon between them so that the student can keep one. Thus, at the end of the exam, the teacher can read the correct answers after the original copies have been collected. Students can follow along on their carbon copy.

14. Revise tests frequently to discard bad questions. Keep a file of good questions. A question is not good if as many (or more) poor students answer it correctly as good students. The test is not good if the best students do not get the best scores.

15. Do not give the same questions or tests too often.

16. Test frequently. Testing acts as a review and shows the student his progress. The student sees that he is moving ahead. Students get used to taking tests, and they remember correct answers. Tests also show the teacher where he needs to review.

In any evaluation, the teacher should combine trained observations and intuitive judgment with any test results. A student may be ill, worried, or tired when taking a test. The real test of a student's ability is not that he can answer controlled questions or follow patterned drills but that he can communicate spontaneously.

Mechanical Tests

If a teacher has a tape recorder, he can test a student's ability to hear, understand, and speak; he can also use the taped material to evaluate student achievement. The teacher can usefully adhere to the following procedure: Set the tape recorder in "record" position. Start the machine, then push the instant stop. While students are writing an assignment, call one student to the desk. Ask him a few questions, releasing the instant stop when he answers. Push it in again when talking resumes. Only the student's responses to questions are recorded. (Be sure to record the name of the student at the beginning of each student's interview.)

If an Edex classroom communicator or similar equipment is available, the teacher presents the lesson and asks a question with four possible answers. The students press an A, B, C, or D button on individual responder machines. From a computer, the teacher can tell immediately which students answer correctly and which ones answer incorrectly. The machine can also provide a score for individual ranks in the class.

Other Means of Evaluation

In addition to testing, programs and student progress are also measured by interviews and observations.

Interviews

Interviews are frequently used to place students at appropriate levels. At the beginning of a program, the teacher can also learn what

the class knows by asking questions on the structure and vocabulary of the language. Such individual or group interviews can tell in part what the teacher needs to stress or review in his program.

Observations

During the program the teacher should constantly evaluate student progress (even if informally). This procedure does not mean that the teacher needs to give formal marks each day, but he should try to evaluate the work of a few students each day. He should establish what items are to be evaluated and should rate the students only on those items. (This evaluation is done informally during class recitation.) During a written assignment he should ask questions of a few students each day. If a tape-recorded lesson is being used, he should walk among the students and should listen to their responses. By recording these observations, the teacher has a collection of individual grades and remarks to help him evaluate student performance objectively. Such informal observations are especially valuable since students are generally at ease and their responses are natural. The teacher should grade or record observations as inconspicuously as possible.

Some teachers become sensitive to student responses without much training. Others need special training. The following is a list of suggestions to help teachers evaluate student work objectively and accurately:

1. Try to keep attuned to language errors, patterns, and stresses. If students often make the same mistakes, do not get used to the errors. The student must make himself understood by the native speakers of the language.

2. Permit students to complete their own answers. Encourage them and avoid embarrassment, but give them a chance to answer completely.

3. Try to elicit a complete response rather than a simple yes or no or a nod.

4. Consider each skill separately. Decide what is to be evaluated each day, and stick to it. Sometimes a favorable impression is

made if a student follows directions quickly or writes well and, consciously or unconsciously, other evaluations are affected. Sometimes the teacher is so pleased by a student's glibness that he ignores the student's poor pronunciation, inverted word order, and incorrect structure or word usage. As a result, the average native listener might not understand him or might even misinterpret what he says.

Evaluation Outside of the Classroom

The student's performance can be evaluated much easier while he is in the classroom than after he has finished studying English. The teacher will find it very difficult to predict reliably a student's performance in life; but when the student leaves the school, he should have a knowledge of the facilities which the community offers him vocationally, avocationally, and socially. Therefore, the teacher should do research in the community. Many facilities which the native takes for granted are unknown to these students. The teacher should consider the following facilities and activities:

1. *Public libraries* – Visit these libraries and have students obtain library cards.

2. *Medical facilities* – Find out whether free dental and medical clinics are available.

3. *Counseling facilities* – Find out whether the community has a special center for the foreign born or a language community.

4. *Social activities* – Find out whether there are clubs and groups that the students would enjoy belonging to. Often students will confine their activities after school to their own language group unless they are made aware of their welcome in other activities.

5. *Recreational facilities* – Find out what facilities the city has, where they are, and whether they are free.

6. *Educational opportunities* – Find out about personal enrichment courses, high school courses, college courses, and vocational courses.

7. *Vocational opportunities and facilities* – Find out whether the community has a state employment center or private employment agencies. Find out how a job application is filled out and how an interview is conducted.

Correspondence with Former Students

To obtain better knowledge of the school's success in its program of English as a second language, teachers should encourage students to stay in touch with the school. The school should have a bulletin board where the activities and achievements of former students are posted. The school can try to get in touch with all former students, but they are often difficult to trace. Vocational and social agencies in the community may help in evaluating the success of former students. If an evaluation form is kept, many agencies will cooperate, and this evaluation data from the form will aid in preparing the students. If the agency indicates that failure results from insufficient knowledge of English, the teacher is then in a better position to counsel students, motivate them, and improve the teaching program.

Students who do not complete their course of study concern their former teachers. If a teacher follows a policy of having former students maintain correspondence with the school, the teacher will understand better why students drop out. The following are the four major reasons why students enrolled in courses in English as a second language leave school· departure from the United States, illness, financial necessity, and belief that classes are ineffective. If the school keeps track of students who have left, the counselor and the teacher may be able to help the students in the last two categories. A student may be directed to an agency for help in obtaining a job if he has a financial problem, or he may be shown that increased job opportunities are available to him if he obtains a greater command of English.

Need for Orientation Program

If a student leaves school because he feels the class does not satisfy his needs, he may have valid reasons for making his decision – reasons that may suggest that the student has been incorrectly assigned and should have been put in another class. Or

perhaps he needs an orientation program that explains the teaching program and informs him about the community. If a short orientation program is conducted, many people in the community speaking the students' languages are usually willing to donate their services. And explanatory material written in the languages of the students could be mimeographed for all new students. Many students are unfamiliar with the teaching methods of the audiolingual approach and do not understand the purposes of the program unless they are explained in detail.

Correspondence with Advisers

It is often difficult to predict success in high school or college, where a student's English skills have to be good enough for him to compete with his fellow students. Colleges and high schools indicate that many foreign students fail because of inadequate English background. Teachers should keep in touch with advisers of foreign students in those schools that his students are most likely to attend.

Self-Evaluation for the Teacher

In addition to evaluating the progress of the student and the effectiveness of the program, the teacher should evaluate his own performance. The following questions may be used as a guide in making such an evaluation:

1. Do you use a record player or tape recorder for language models or to record student performance?

2. Do your students practice English in class, or do they spend a large portion of their time listening to your explanations?

3. Do you involve all of the students in classroom activities?

4. Do the students in your beginning classes spend most of their time listening and speaking rather than reading and writing?

5. Do your students learn dialogues, stories, and drill material so that they can respond automatically?

6. Do you vary materials to maintain the interest of your students?

7. Do you introduce materials at a controlled rate so that your students are able to achieve mastery of new material? Do you review frequently?

8. Do you use a normal rate of speech and normal pronunciation in speaking to your class?

9. Do you use choral responses?

10. Do you use structural pattern drills?

11. Do you arrange your lessons so that the English model is followed by choral response, individual response, and communication among students?

12. Do you concern yourself with the accuracy of your students' pronunciation?

13. Do your students learn vocabulary in a meaningful context rather than as separate words?

14. Do you use songs and games as supporting activities to provide practice in the use of correct English?

15. Do you use visual aids?

16. Do you incorporate the culture of the United States into your classroom?

17. In your community do you know of agencies and facilities beneficial to your students?

18. Do you counsel your students concerning further education?

19. Do you demonstrate fully how a new assignment, activity, or test is to be done?

20. Do you spend part of each period in reviewing and part in demonstrating new material?

21. Do you assign "busy work" or useful learning exercises?

22. Do you correct your students' oral and written mistakes as soon as possible?

23. Do you evaluate your students according to what you have taught and what is most important at their level?

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