DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 195 165 FL 011 989

AUTHOR Knop, Constance K.
TITLE Teaching a Second Language: A Guide for the Student Teacher. Language in Education: Theory and Practice. No. 28.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO ISBN-87281-092-5
PUB DATE 80
CONTRACT 400-77-0049
NOTE 58p.
AVAILABLE FROM Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20007 ($4.95).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Cooperating Teachers: Instructional Materials: *Interaction: *Language Teachers: Lesson Plans: Microteaching: Observation: Postsecondary Education: Practicums: *Second Language Instruction: Skill Development: Student Teacher Relationship: *Student Teaching: Teacher Education: *Teaching Skills

ABSTRACT

This handbook discusses the activities and interactions that student teachers may engage in to meet the problems and goals of student teaching. Section I deals with the observation phase: Section II focuses on the teaching practicum. Within each section, a wide variety of techniques and activities are suggested to provide as many ideas as possible to help student teachers deal with the demands of a given placement. The following topics are covered: (1) developing a working relationship with the cooperating teacher in the observation phase: (2) meeting and interacting with other members of the school community: (3) interacting with the students during the practicum: and (4) utilizing the textbook, making lesson plans, and using supplementary aids and materials. Three appendices include sample letters of expectation, some typical questions asked of the foreign language teacher in the interview at the end of the methods course, and competencies to develop within the school community. A bibliography completes the handbook. (AMH)

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

28

TEACHING A SECOND LANGUAGE: A GUIDE FOR THE STUDENT TEACHER

Constance K. Knop

Published by
Center for Applied Linguistics

Prepared by
ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education under contract no. 400-77-0049. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of NIE or ED.

Language in Education: Theory and Practice
Series ISBN: 87281-092-5

ISBN: 87281-127-1

September 1980

By the Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street NW
Washington DC 20007

Printed in the U.S.A.

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

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PREFACE

Prospective second language teachers (or any other novice teachers, for that matter) express a variety of concerns regarding their student teaching experience. At first, their apprehensions focus on such administrative details as textbooks to be used, material to be covered, or procedures to be followed in grading. They are also concerned about their relationship with their cooperating teacher. They wonder what is expected of them and what, in turn, they can look for in terms of guidance and support. Research indicates that student teachers' attitudes and achievements in the practicum are very much affected by their interactions with their cooperating teacher.

Other members of the school community are also important in the professional development of student teachers during both the observation phase and the actual teaching practicum. The principal, counselors, other teachers, and parents may be asked to offer their guidance regarding the school system, the teaching profession, and, of course, the students.

Interacting with students is probably the most crucial experience during the practicum for determining the growth and achievement of student teachers. They must learn how to conduct activities, how to train and encourage students to communicate in the second language, and how to motivate and discipline students. In addition, novice teachers need to develop skills in lesson planning and to present materials from the textbook in a clear and interesting manner. Many may also want to supplement the textbook with audiovisual aids, communicative activities, and lessons on culture.

Throughout these experiences, student teachers, guided by their cooperating teacher, will need to analyze and evaluate their teaching to discover which instructional strategies should be continued and which ones should be changed. Novice teachers can learn from their own teaching and develop teaching skills as the practicum proceeds.

This handbook will discuss the various activities and interactions that student teachers may engage in to meet the problems and goals of student teaching. Section I will deal with the observation phase; Section II will focus on the teaching practicum. This handbook is in no way meant to be dogmatic or prescriptive. Rather, within each section, a wide variety of techniques and activities will be suggested to provide as many ideas as possible to help student teachers deal with the demands of a given placement. It is hoped that this work will also serve as a source book for cooperating teachers, principals, and teacher trainers who must guide novice teachers to meet the new roles and responsibilities encountered in student teaching.

Constance K. Knop

I. THE OBSERVATION PERIOD: A VITAL STEP IN PREPARING TO TEACH

Developing a Working Relationship with the Cooperating Teacher

Novice teachers indicate that the relationship with their cooperating teacher is the most important factor affecting their success in student teaching (Fuller et al.; Milner). In fact, studies have shown that student teachers' verbal behavior and teaching strategies are shaped and modified by the model provided by the cooperating teacher (Macaulay). In addition, interactions with the cooperating teacher and his or her support or criticisms affect student teachers' attitudes toward their own teaching (Aspy; Sorenson and Halpert; Wolfe 1973).

Unfortunately, many student teachers begin their practicum with apprehension about working with their supervising teacher. Since their letters of recommendation, grades in student teaching, and even certification depend on the cooperating teacher's evaluations, student teachers are often hesitant to voice their expectations or needs during the practicum. Moreover, student teachers are sometimes unsure of their roles and responsibilities during this period.

On their part, cooperating teachers often refrain from specifying such details for fear of inhibiting student teachers or of overwhelming them with the many tasks to be accomplished during their practicum. Some cooperating teachers also are not certain what the student teachers want to know about their assignment or exactly how they should interact with a novice.

Since this relationship is so important, both participants need to strive for open communication and mutual understanding. One way to encourage communication and develop a good working relationship is to draft a letter of expectation.

Drafting a Letter of Expectation

At the start of the practicum, the student teacher and cooperating teacher can each draft a statement of his or her respective responsibilities, roles, and mutual expectations. They can work out the specifics of this letter together. (Sample letters are included in Appendix I.) Cooperating teachers and student teachers indicate that guidance from the university supervisor is helpful in planning such a letter (Grant).

It should be emphasized that this agreement is not a binding contract for the entire practicum. Rather, it is to be re-examined and discussed periodically. For example, the student teacher may decide that he or she would like the cooperating teacher to resume visiting a given class on a daily basis to provide suggestions for problems encountered with that group. Or the cooperating teacher may feel that an upcoming unit is better taught through team teaching than in the one-teacher approach originally agreed upon. In this way, the letter of expectation may serve as a stimulus for continued communication between the two participants.

Reducing Student Teachers' Anxieties

Another way of opening communication is to discuss common sources of student teacher anxiety. These anxieties focus on administrative details about placement, uncertainty about skills in lesson planning, possible discipline problems, and standards of teacher conduct (Fuller et al.; Knop 1979; Thompson). (See also the summary in Dussault, Ch. 3.) This can be done in a non-threatening, impersonal way by referring to actual studies of these problems. In this way, student teachers are not put on the spot and asked to reveal deeply personal feelings. Instead, the focus is on a generalized view of student teacher needs and concerns. Often it is reassuring to the student teacher to know that most student teachers have experienced the same feelings.

Discussing specific causes of concern (as listed in Table 1) may very well answer questions that student teachers are hesitant to raise. Thompson formulated a specific list of items based on a frequency count of interns' recollections of anxieties they had experienced in their practicum. Some of the questions (e.g., 6, 7, 17, 24, 25, 26) could be answered factually in informal discussion with the cooperating teacher, in the letter of expectation, or in a study of the school's policy handbook. Other items (for example, 10, 11, 15, 16, 22) could be discussed after

the student teacher had observed classes or had met with students informally. Still other items (such as 1, 3, 12, 18, 20) would probably continue to be a matter of concern to the student teacher and might need to be brought up at regular intervals during the practicum, either in conferences with the cooperating teacher or in meetings with other student teachers and the university supervisor.

TABLE I

A List of Professional Fears and Apprehensions That May Be Experienced by Teachers

1. Will I be allowed to use my own initiative?
2. What should I do if my material has been covered and there is extra time?
3. What should I do if I make a mistake in a statement or a suggestion?
4. Can I deviate from the plan of work as outlined?
5. How should I dress?
6. Will the grades I give be accepted?
7. Will I be required to turn in my lesson plans, and who will evaluate them?
8. Do I really know my subject matter?
9. Will the pupils like me and respond to my guidance?
10. Will I be able to maintain desired standards of behavior?
11. What will these pupils be like?
12. What will the students be likely to do 'to try me out?'
13. What will the students do if I make a mistake?
14. How should I behave if I am unable to answer a student's question?
15. Will I be allowed to discipline students as I see fit?
16. How informal or formal should I be with students?
17. What is the community like, and will I enjoy living there?
18. Will I be able to do what is expected of me?
19. Will anything drastic happen if I make a mistake in following school policy?
20. Will my teaching assignment be too much for me to handle?
21. Am I capable of handling the extracurricular activities assigned?
22. What are the policies concerning classroom practices, the school, the faculty, and the curriculum?
23. How will the faculty and staff accept me?
24. Can I avail myself of the school's special services?
25. Who is responsible for evaluating my teaching and giving me a grade?
26. How will I be evaluated?

Source: Based on Michael L. Thompson, "Identifying anxieties experienced by student teachers," quoted in Constance K. Knop, "Developing a model for student teacher supervision," Foreign Language Annals 10 (December 1977), 626.

Observing the Cooperating Teacher and the Students

Prior to beginning their own teaching, student teachers usually spend a period of time observing their cooperating teacher. This can be a valuable learning experience if the student teacher sets definite goals to achieve during these observations, as opposed to nonguided or passive observation. One can learn a great deal about classroom management, about teaching strategies, and about the students in a class--their interactions with each other and the teacher, their learning patterns, and/or their learning problems and needs. Most important, the student teacher can obtain a concrete, realistic view of what teaching entails.

Learning Students' Names

Learning students' names is one of the first possible activities to carry out during the observation period. By using a seating chart and noting a student's garb that day or physical characteristics, such as color of hair or wearing of glasses, the student teacher can establish a mnemonic device for linking the name and person. After the class session, the student teacher can repeat the names from the chart while trying to visualize the person. Being able to call students by name on the very first day of teaching can create a positive impression and a personalized, warm climate in class. It can also help keep a lively tempo if the teacher does not have to grope for names.

Studying Students' Interactions

The student teacher can also use the seating chart to apply the sociogram technique of charting interactions between students during a class hour. In this type of analysis, one draws arrows

between students, from the student who initiates an interaction to the other person (—>), and one notes whether it was a positive (+), negative (-), or seemingly neutral (?) interaction. The final diagram shows frequency and types of interactions, the results of which can be summarized and compared over several days. These insights can help guide the planning of question-answer practice, chain drills, or small-group activities. For example, the student teacher can anticipate that question-answer interchanges would be most effectively conducted between people who interact frequently and positively during the class hour. Or, the teacher can plan small-group activities to pair a student who appears outgoing with one who does not usually get involved with other students.

The diagrams can also suggest needed changes in seating arrangements. If frequent interactions, either friendly or negative, continually occur between certain students, it might be wise to change their seats and separate them at the start of the practicum to avoid classroom disruptions or potential discipline problems.

Noting the Cooperating Teacher's Recurring Techniques

In addition to noting student interaction, the student teacher can spend some observation time studying the cooperating teacher, noting any hand gestures (e.g., for "repeat," "everybody together," or "speak louder"), ways of giving directions for activities (e.g., acting out the activity, setting examples, or giving general directions), and regularly recurring activities (e.g., oral warmup at the start of the hour or short written quiz to begin class, daily culture capsules, or use of the language laboratory). To ease the transition from cooperating teacher to student teacher, the novice would be wise to try to emulate as many of these patterns as possible. Students will feel more at ease if a certain continuity in routine is maintained. They will also be able to understand what the student teacher is trying to accomplish and will cooperate more readily if vocabulary, kinesics, and activities parallel to those of the cooperating teacher are used consistently.

Determining Students' Range and Level of Vocabulary

Another possible activity during the observation phase is to keep track of recurring vocabulary items and structures that students understand and use. A typical problem for beginning teachers is that they talk above or below the vocabulary level of their students. As a result, students either cannot understand the student teacher or feel insulted by the simplified language. Student teachers can also study the previous lessons in the textbook to become familiar with the most recently studied sentences, vocabulary, and grammar.

The student teacher should also note the length of the sentences used in class by the cooperating teacher. Stevick (Ch. 2) has pointed out that the "memory load" of beginning students is much shorter in a second language than in their own. They usually cannot retain more than seven or eight syllables as a model for their own repetition. Moreover, in listening to directions or explanations, they have trouble absorbing meaning and recalling information beyond two or three sentences. It is usually effective to plan a pause after every two or three sentences to check if students have, in fact, understood directions: (Now we're going to work on the pronoun y. At the end of the exercise, you'll tell me what kind of phrases y can replace. What word are we working on? Class [or teacher]: y.) Even more effective is the use of concrete examples for drills in contrast to lengthy monologues from the teacher: (I say, "I'm going to the bank." You say, "I'm going there." Me, "I'm going to the pool." You, "I'm going there").

Analyzing Students' Errors

Another useful activity for learning more about the students' linguistic level and linguistic needs is to note and analyze their errors. The process of error analysis can provide the student teacher with several insights into the following:

1. The areas of phonology the students have problems in, including mispronunciation, lack of intonation, or incorrect stress patterns. Remedial drills focusing on these difficulties can be planned by the student teacher for the first few weeks of teaching.
2. The assumptions or hypotheses the students have made about how the second language operates. For example, the students may be using only the preterite tense for past actions, as they

often learn that tense before the imperfect and may consider it more commonly used. The student teacher can work with students on reading passages in which both tenses occur, so as to analyze patterns of usage. Follow-up oral work, in question-answer form, could lead students to use both tenses appropriately, while written paragraphs would further internalize usage of both tenses to describe past events.

3. The overgeneralizations (false analogies) the students make. In French, for example, students often say je suis marché, incorrectly using "to be" as the helping verb because they have learned that verbs of movement use être. One might first review the general rule to reassure students that their generalization is correct: (Yes, usually verbs of coming and going are conjugated with être, but this is an exception--all said in French). Next, the teacher could present a pattern practice to set the exceptional pattern. Finally, one could ask personalized questions to make the structure realistic.

4. The progress the students have made in learning the grammar of the language and what work is needed next. For example, students may be producing correct pronunciation and forms for all persons in the Spanish verbs ser and estar. However, in homework or classwork, they may be confusing them in question-answer practice or in open-ended communication. Clearly, student teachers need to plan contrastive pattern practices on common usages of both verbs along with an analysis of when each one is normally used.

5. The points of interference from English that distort the students' use of the second language. When students randomly and incorrectly use para and por in Spanish, or produce Il est un livre instead of C'est un livre in French, or say Heute ich gehe ins Kino in German--these are all indicators that students are carrying over English usage, forms, and word order into the second language. The student teacher can inform the students that during observations, frequent errors have been noted on these items. This would justify remedial exercises on these specific points and would motivate students to concentrate on eradicating these mistakes.

In an article that summarizes recent research and techniques in error correction, Hendrickson advocates analysis and tallying of errors to construct a chart of typical errors in lexicon, syntax, morphology, and orthography. He points out that "error charts are useful not only for diagnostic purposes but also for developing individualized instructional materials, for building a hierarchy of error correction priorities, and for learning more about the process of second language acquisition" (p. 394).

Students' errors are not due solely to linguistic processes or problems. Errors may also be caused by psychological or physiological needs. Rivers (1964, Ch. 8) has pointed out that students' "fatigue" may cause errors. She analyzes fatigue as being (1) emotional (e.g., fear of making mistakes, embarrassment), (2) physical (e.g., sitting in one place or position too long; relying on only one skill, such as speaking, for all the learning), or (3) intellectual (e.g., boredom from too much easy or familiar material, or overload from too much new or difficult material). Areas that might be analyzed as possible causes of fatigue (and therefore of errors) could include time span of activities, number of skills used, variety of techniques employed, pace of activities, students' physical movements during class, and frequency or types of rewards.

Studying Alternate Ways of Correcting Students' Errors

Useful practice exercises have been developed for training French teachers in error correction (Joiner). Teachers of other languages can construct exercises parallel to the French samples. The student teacher can spend some observation time noting and analyzing how the cooperating teacher corrects errors in order to gain a variety of practical ideas for dealing with them. Possible approaches may include providing a cue (Attention! ¡Momentito!) that an error has occurred and then a pause during which the student may self-correct; re-cueing with the original question or directions; giving a grammatical cue (It's plural); asking other students for the answer or correction; or simply giving the correct response. Teachers tend to use a variety of these techniques, depending on the seriousness of the error, the personality of the student, the learning goal of the activity, and how well the item has recently been drilled.

Student teachers can also analyze when the teacher corrects an error. During a pattern practice or structured questions and answers to "set" a linguistic item, the teacher is likely to correct most errors that occur. The goal, after all, in these activities is correct production. In personalized question-answer work, where the content of the answer and vocabulary choice are the main focus, the teacher is more likely to correct only those items that interfere with meaning and understanding. For example, if a student says, J'ai mangé du poison instead of poisson or Tengo hombre instead of hambre, correction of some sort is in order, since the message is distorted. In conversation work, when students are presenting original dialogues or are discussing a topic or

exchanging ideas, the teacher usually does not correct errors right away. In such exchanges, one does not want to intimidate students through frequent corrections or interruptions. Instead, one can take note of recurring errors and do a drill later in the period or the next day to correct those mistakes.

Obviously, there is no one "right" answer as to how or when to correct errors. One needs to have a wide variety of techniques and options to draw on. Noting and analyzing various approaches used in error correction and then discussing them with the cooperating teacher will enable student teachers to react with insight and flexibility when errors do occur in their own classes.

Analyzing Classroom Interactions

During their observation period, student teachers can also analyze classroom interactions in order to become sensitive to the types of interchanges that may occur in their own teaching. The following checklist can be used as a guide for gathering data:

Classroom Interaction Checklist

A. Record the time spent for the following:

1. Teacher talk vs. student talk
2. Use of English vs. use of target language
3. Choral practice; group practice; individual practice
4. Length of each activity
5. Length of "rote-level" activities vs. "communicative activities"

B. Keep track of the number of rewards made and how they are expressed. Divide them into verbal, nonverbal, and communicative categories.

C. Put an X after a student's name each time he or she speaks.

Timing and keeping track of activities and events in the above categories can provide data for a profile and analysis of various types of interactions. Student teachers can also become aware of the need to vary rewards, call on all students, provide different kinds of drilling techniques, minimize teacher talk, and encourage consistent use of the target language during classroom interchanges.

Planning Microteaching Sessions

As a transition to full-time teaching, microteaching is a useful activity (Clifford et al.; DeLorenzo; Knop 1979; Wolfe 1972). In this approach, student teachers present just one kind of lesson several times in a row. They are first given performance criteria for a particular type of lesson (see Table 2 for sample criteria for teaching a grammar lesson). Then they observe the cooperating teacher presenting that type of lesson and find specific examples for each of the criteria listed. Ideally, they watch the cooperating teacher teach the same basic lesson in several different classes. After the observations, the student teacher and cooperating teacher meet to discuss the activity, analyzing and evaluating examples noted under each of the performance criteria.

Next, the student teacher plans the same type of lesson and teaches it to a class, with the cooperating teacher now recording examples of how the performance criteria were or were not met. Immediately after the presentation, the two meet to judge the activity and to decide on ways in which it might be improved. Following the critique, the student teacher presents the same lesson to another class, trying to implement the suggestions for improvement. The cooperating teacher again observes the lesson and gathers data about the presentation, focusing on the agreed-upon areas for change. After a few days of working on this one kind of lesson, the student teacher then moves on to another type (e.g., a reading lesson with suggested criteria listed in Table 3) and follows the same format of observing the cooperating teacher, teaching and evaluating a session of his or her own, and reteaching that lesson. In this way, student teacher anxiety is reduced by prior knowledge of the performance criteria to be met, and skills are gradually and systematically developed by mastering different types of lessons.

TABLE 2

Suggested Performance Criteria for a Grammar Lesson

A. Pattern Practice

1. Establish grammatical meaning (e.g., usage or tense significance) as well as semantic meaning.

2. Keep one part of sentence constant; use minimal steps in the changes.

3. Use a variety of drilling techniques (e.g., choral-group-individual repetition; multiple repetition; speak-up or speed-up).

4. Fade the cue (e.g., start with repetition but then move to question-answer work or even a one-word cue from teacher and finally only a visual-cue).

5. Use a final general question to elicit the variations taught.

B. Rule Eliciting

1. Provide written examples to analyze.
2. Ask guiding question to elicit important points of the rule.
3. Have students restate the rule and examples.

C. Reinforcement

1. Include new examples but begin with familiar sentences.
2. Move from oral work to written work then back to oral work.
3. Plan two self-check examples at the start of the exercise.
4. Provide 10-12 variations for sufficient practice.

TABLE 3

Suggested Performance Criteria for a Reading Lesson

1. The student teacher will demonstrate an ability to choose eight to ten important words from a passage. The choice will include words crucial to understanding the meaning of the passage and words useful for building guessing ability (e.g., words with which one can do word-family work, prefix/suffix work, or context clue guessing).

2. For each word, the student teacher will employ at least two explicating devices (e.g., synonym, antonym, circumlocution) appropriate to his or her goal for that word and a checking device (true/false question, either/or question, visual aids, acting out).

3. The student teacher will have the students practice aloud the new words after the explanation. This may be done by asking for straight repetition of the new word or by cueing with the explicating device (e.g., ask for a synonym or antonym).

4. After having made the meaning of a word clear, the teacher will put it back into the context of the text's sentence, leading the students back to the text. (Yes, she was walking. But where was Mary walking? Right, in the garden. And with whom? Yes, with John.) After explaining all the new words, the teacher will have the students read aloud or answer questions based on the entire sentence to pull it all together.

5. At the end of the entire passage, oral work will be done on the passage, with students repeating after the teacher or answering questions.

Developing a Plan of Supervision to Be Used during the Teaching Practicum

When the student teacher begins full-time teaching, it is still crucial that the cooperating teacher help provide a realistic description of classroom events, reinforce effective strategies and activities, and suggest alternate approaches to problems encountered. During the observation period, the student teacher and cooperating teacher will undoubtedly find it mutually beneficial to develop a plan for supervision during the teaching practicum. This plan will clarify the cooperating teacher's role in supervision and will reduce uncertainty and apprehension for both parties.

Clinical supervision seems to offer the most systematic approach to studying the teaching and learning in a given class period (Cogan; Goldhammer). Its main focus is on discovering recurring patterns in teaching and on evaluating their relative success or limitations. Proponents of this approach suggest a four-phase observation approach. The cooperating teacher and student teacher may choose to c[illegible]r develop any phase, depending on their own views of supervision, on the goals of a particular [illegible]vation, on the teacher being observed (his or her needs, personality, experience and progress [illegible] teaching), and on practical restraints of time.

The following four phases are suggested for clinical supervision:

1. Pre-observation conference. In this phase, the two teachers spend five to ten minutes discussing the lesson plan, goals for the class to be observed, and information about the group (e.g., typical kinds of interactions or special problems). In addition, the student teacher suggests one or two areas of special concern for improvement (e.g., clarity of directions, type of rewards, ratio of teacher talk to student talk) and for discussion after the observation.

2. Data-gathering phase. While observing the class, the cooperating teacher takes extensive notes (verbatim, if possible) on what goes on during the class hour. This includes teacher talk, types of student responses, physical behavior of students and teacher (e.g., teacher's movement around the class, nonverbal interaction, students' doing other work, etc.). Judgmental comments are not usually included, except to note items to praise. Rather, objective data are accumulated for later analysis and discussion.

The student teacher should not be intimidated or discouraged by the supervisor's extensive writing; he or she is trying to assemble as much information as possible for the follow-up conference.

3. Analysis of the data. The data are given to the student teacher for analysis and suggestions. The main goals of clinical supervision are to discover recurring patterns of teacher behavior and evaluate them--discarding those found ineffective and continuing those that seem successful. The student teacher and supervisor should be looking for such patterns. In addition, data that respond to the expressed concerns of the student teacher are studied. For example, if clarity of directions has been noted as an area of concern, then directions would be carefully analyzed and alternative examples suggested.

It is helpful to make a carbon copy of the data while observing. Then both the cooperating teacher and student teacher have a chance to examine their own copy of the data and make independent analyses.

The cooperating teacher usually generates five or six overall questions based on the data. (Note the amount of English used during the class period. Are you satisfied with this? What are ways of reducing it?). These questions will be raised in the conference or left with the student teacher to discuss in a written report.

4. Conference. After studying the data, the two teachers discuss and analyze the class, noting activities/techniques to continue and others to change. Usually, two or three specific changes (such as including a writing activity or clarifying directions) are discussed in detail and are then worked into the next day's lesson plan.

In addition, conferences sometimes focus on student teacher concerns or anxieties. Student teachers evaluate the conference as the most helpful aspect of supervision (Dussault, pp. 49-60), not only for improving their teaching but also for analyzing and resolving their insecurities and problems in the teaching role. Dussault points out that student teachers may need guidance and support in resolving the conflict they perceive between the ideal teaching model (represented by the cooperating teacher or methods professor) and their own accomplishment, which they often consider inadequate and inferior. In an approach termed "ego-counseling," Mosher and Purpel suggest that the cooperating teacher devote conference time to helping the student teacher clarify professional role expectations and then plan realistic solutions to any role conflicts identified.

Meeting and Interacting with Other Members of the School Community

While the interactions with the cooperating teacher appear the most crucial ones for successful in-class teaching, other interactions are also important for the student teacher's professional development. In actual teaching, one works with the principal, the counselors, and other teachers to develop a sound instructional program and one that responds to students' needs. The attitude of these various people toward foreign language learning may affect students' attitudes in class and even affect enrollment in foreign language courses. Their reaction to a student teacher may also affect the reception and acceptance given to the novice. Therefore, it is to the student teacher's professional advantage to meet with other members of the school community during the observation period and then to continue to interact with them during the teaching practicum.

The Principal

It is probably a good idea for the student teacher to meet with the principal at the start of the practicum. As Horton points out, "the principal is the educational leader of his building. His concern for the student teaching program sets the tone for the total building" (p. 59). The principal will introduce the novice teacher to the faculty and will be an important force in the acceptance of a student teacher.

The principal usually provides the student teacher with useful information about the school, including a tour of the building, handbooks, curriculum guides, and policy manuals. Discussion with the principal often focuses on such procedural matters as disciplining students, keeping school records or reports, and school-parent communications (Lang et al., pp. 28-29). The student teacher needs to understand the administrative procedures commonly followed in the school if he or she is going to fit into the daily routine. Such information usually helps the student teacher feel more secure in assuming teaching responsibilities.

Once the student teacher has begun the practicum, the principal may be asked to observe classes and make suggestions about teaching strategies. Obviously, the principal has seen many different teachers and classes and, from that point of view, could offer suggestions to vary classroom activities and interactions. Eventually the student teacher may ask for a letter of recommendation based on these visits. A letter from an administrator adds a strong element of support in one's credentials.

Questions typically raised in an interview for a teaching position are listed in Appendix II. These items might be discussed with the principal to clarify and to prepare the novice for future job interviews. Useful competencies in the school community (Appendix III) could also be analyzed and developed with the principal's guidance.

The Counselors

Other important people to meet are the school's counselors. Prior to actual teaching, the student teacher could meet with them to find out their views of the goals, values, and importance of foreign language study. Counselors, after all, advise students on whether or not they should enroll in foreign language programs; enrollments and students' attitudes may be very much affected by the counselors' own attitudes and opinions. The student teacher can raise several questions with the counselors, such as:

1. How does foreign language study fit into the overall goals and curriculum of the school?
2. What values and advantages do you see in foreign language study?
3. What advice do you give to students as to whether or not to enroll in a foreign language course?
4. What course descriptions do you have for the foreign language offerings?

These questions can lead to an exchange of ideas and information. For example, the student teacher can share with the counselors a list of readings that explore and discuss the values of studying a second language. Counselors often do not emphasize this to students because they simply do not have such information readily available. Also, if there are no course descriptions available, the student teacher might offer to write up a summary of the goals and activities of each semester or year of foreign language offerings. As this writer has pointed out, counselors cannot advise stu-

dents about a course if all they know about it is that it is called French I or Spanish III (Knop 1975, pp. 88-100). If we had to advise students on whether to go on to Hydraulics II, probably all we could say is that it is the second level of Hydraulics I. Counselors and students alike would profit from an outline of each level of foreign language study. Preparing course descriptions, if they do not exist, would be a real service on the part of the student teacher. And if they do exist, they would give the student teacher an idea of what the counselors and students expect a course to accomplish.

During the practicum, counselors can provide valuable information to the student teacher on the backgrounds of students who are disruptive or seem to have learning problems. If a certain class is causing difficulties, counselors can observe it and offer suggestions on how to motivate and better control the group.

While teaching, the student teacher can also continue to work on improving communication with the counselors about the language program. Inviting counselors in to visit a typical class period can give them a first-hand experience in the activities and interactions of that semester of study. When students present original dialogues or skits, the counselors and principal can also be invited to see the students' accomplishments. The more administrators and counselors know about the foreign language program, the better they will be able to explain and recommend it to students, parents, and other faculty members.

Other Teachers

Students' attitudes and behavior in any particular class are very much influenced by their contacts with teachers and students in their other classes. As a result, student teachers need to become acquainted with other teachers and, if possible, even observe their classes to better understand the various influences playing upon students in their own classes.

It is helpful to "see" other teachers through a student's eyes. One useful activity is to "shadow" a student for an entire day. In this way, the student teacher actually experiences what it is like to be a student on a typical day in that school. In addition to visiting classes in other disciplines, the student teacher can discuss with those teachers the various topics or units being covered in their courses. It is often possible to provide cross-course reinforcement for students--that is, the foreign language teacher can plan materials and activities that use information currently being studied in another class. For example, if the students are studying the state's history or geography, the student teacher can plan a unit that includes the origin of place names or the influence of the country (e.g., Mexico or France) on the historical development of the state. Teachers in different subject areas will also be made aware of the tangible benefits in their course of the students' knowledge from the foreign language classroom.

The student teacher can also offer to share information or materials with other teachers. When the world history teacher does a unit on Germany, posters, slides, and records can be lent by the student teacher to supplement materials in the history department. Similarly, if the English teacher is presenting a piece of literature from France, the student teacher can offer to present historical background on the work or author.

In return, foreign language teachers can draw on the resources and expertise of other teachers. They can ask the art teacher to do a presentation prior to a unit on impressionism or surrealism. The music teacher can give a biographical sketch of a musician or help analyze a musical work. As much as possible, foreign language student teachers should seek to integrate learning from their classes with the learning going on in other subject areas--for the benefit of students, other teachers, and the foreign language program.

Student teachers can also observe language teachers at levels either preceding or following the level at which they are teaching. A variety of teaching techniques and activities can be obtained from these visits. They can also get a clearer idea of their students' background from observing lower level classes and a better understanding of the training they will need to succeed in the upper level courses. Student teachers will have more insights into the overall goals, sequence, and interrelationships of the various courses by observing the total offerings of the program.

Visiting classes taught in an unfamiliar foreign language is also a useful activity. For one thing, the student teacher may better understand the frustrations, needs, and reactions of the language learner. In addition, the student teacher may note successful techniques for conducting different types of activities (e.g., ways of varying drills, teaching a reading lesson, planning small-group activities). They can also study the display of realia, organization of bulletin boards, and use of audiovisual aids.

Professional contacts are further extended through faculty meetings and school events. Most schools have monthly meetings at which faculty discuss common problems and work together for a

variety of reasons (e.g., re-organizing the grading system, reducing school vandalism, or evaluating school policy guides). Smaller group meetings may focus on textbook selection, scheduling of next year's classes, or other questions related specifically to subject areas. If student teachers are to become real members of the school community, it is important that they participate regularly and actively in these meetings to show interest and to become aware of the school's policies, the faculty's viewpoint on various topics, and the variety of problems faced by teachers. Similarly, attendance at such school events as concerts, athletic contests, and after-school clubs will give evidence of the student teachers' support and enthusiasm. It will also provide further opportunities to get to know teachers and students in circumstances somewhat different from classroom observations or instruction.

Foreign language student teachers should be aware that other teachers may sometimes appear negative toward their program. Traditionally, foreign language instruction has had a tone of "elitism" about it. This may be because it was often only the college-bound students or the best students who were allowed to take a second language. As a result, other teachers sometimes think that foreign language teachers have an easier time of teaching because they take only the "cream of the crop." Some other teachers may themselves have had a negative experience learning a second language or may even have been excluded from studying one. The fact that foreign language teachers in a school sometimes communicate with each other in the second language may also make other teachers feel excluded or snubbed. It is, therefore, very important to reach out to other teachers in the various ways discussed above.

The IMC Director or Librarian

An important resource area in any school is the Instructional Materials Center (IMC) or library. During the observation period, student teachers can examine holdings in the IMC to find out what books, magazines, and newspapers are available for students in the second language. Any cultural projects or outside reading will be determined by offerings in the library. Student teachers may also draw up a bibliography based on these items for future orders. The IMC often contains audiovisual equipment as well, such as records, tapes and tape recorders, slides, or realia that student teachers may need to use or refer students to for individualized study, projects, or tests.

The director of the IMC or the librarian is often able to provide useful information and help to the novice teacher, for example, explaining procedures for ordering materials or preparing a budget to augment the IMC's offerings in a particular subject area. In fact, the student teacher might even request or suggest some additions to the materials on hand. The director usually has addresses to which the student teacher could write to obtain brochures, pamphlets, or supplementary teaching materials. If the student teacher has an outside project in mind, the director can help plan to organize the materials for the most efficient use by students (e.g., pulling items from the shelves and putting them in a special area; planning a class visit to the IMC to work on the project; lending the materials to the student teacher to keep in the classroom). Often the director is willing to allow a display to be prepared by foreign language students; they might section off a part of the area with a banner (Why Study a Foreign Language?) and put out brochures, books, and realia that the general school population could be invited to examine (Knop 1975, p. 96).

The IMC may also contain equipment that the student teacher needs for efficient instruction: a ditto machine, overhead projector, tape recorder, slide projector, or record player. Prior to teaching, the novice should practice using these items to become proficient in operating them and to learn specific ways in which they can provide variety in instructional strategies, perhaps with the help of the director or a student assistant. The cooperating teacher should also be asked for suggestions on using the materials in class or as outside reinforcement.

Parents

Although one does not work with them daily, parents are an integral part of the school community. Interactions with them are a crucial element in the training of a student teacher. Parental attitudes toward education in general, and toward foreign language study in particular, very much affect students' learning and attitudes (Gardner and Lambert, p. 128). Therefore, it is important to have frequent contacts with parents and to establish open communication with them.

One way of accomplishing this is to attend teacher-parent conferences. Even if student teachers have not yet begun teaching, they should be present at such conferences and try to talk

individually with parents. Such interchanges often offer insights into parental goals and expectations for their children's learning in class and may help shape future activities. For example, if several parents express an interest in the increase of their children's communicative skills, more oral activities can be planned for class sessions. These conferences also afford teachers the opportunity to explain their own goals in teaching the language; this can help parents better understand the nature of homework assignments, classroom activities, or grading procedures.

Working with parents through the PTA to solve problems of mutual concern helps build good relationships and furthers mutual understanding. The student teacher can also offer to explain the goals and values of foreign language study and the specific objectives and activities of the school's language program at a PTA meeting. Students could also be brought in to demonstrate typical classroom activities.

During the teaching practicum, student teachers may need to contact parents individually when problems arise. Parents usually want to know if their children are having difficulties; often they can help solve the problems. Student teachers should check the school's procedures in this matter. Some schools prefer that such calls be placed by a counselor, while other schools require that the teacher call parents. In either case, a follow-up conference among teacher, parent, and student is usually an effective approach to working out the problem.

Communication can be extended by sending a note to parents about an in-class activity or the homework assignment for that night and asking them to have their child explain it to them (Mathis 1978). After doing a culture capsule on table manners, for example, the teacher might ask the students to try cutting their food in the European style at dinner and then ask the students for their reactions to that procedure. The parents not only see the child try out learning from class; they are also asked to sign a note indicating that the student carried out the assignment and stating their own personal reaction to the information.

The student teacher can send home a weekly or bi-monthly report on class projects, activities, and progress. Such reports can also be shared with the counselors and principal.

Working with the cooperating teacher and the students to prepare a program for parents, friends, and teachers in the school is an effective way of letting others know more about the foreign language classes (Meyer). Such a program does not have to be extensive or polished. It is enough for parents to hear their child speaking or singing in another language to impress them with the child's progress and to gain their support for the program. In addition, the students become more motivated when they know that they are preparing a presentation that friends and relatives are coming to see. The program could consist of regular classroom activities, such as dialogues, original skits, math problems, songs, commands, or games. One should make sure that <u>all</u> students take part in the program so that no one feels slighted.

As a result of the various interactions of student teachers with the school community and its members, parents, administrators, other teachers, and counselors will be better able to understand the nature of foreign language study and its value in the school program. Valette and Disick point out that the first level of an affective taxonomy in developing positive attitudes is "receptivity," including awareness and attentiveness (p. 44). All the interactions just described can help members of the school community reach that first level and perhaps even move on to the second level of "responsiveness" (tolerance, interest, and enjoyment).

These interactions with the school community also help student teachers gain a clearer understanding of the total school program and its dynamics. Zais (p. 20) has noted the importance of analyzing the organization of the school, its formal and informal structures, and its political influences (those that affect and shape the "authoritative allocation of values") as the first step in integrating foreign language study into the school's curriculum and program. Student teachers should become aware of these aspects of the school community by meeting and communicating with its members as often as possible. In this way, they will more likely be able to work cooperatively and securely <u>within</u> the school community and <u>with</u> its members.

II. THE TEACHING PRACTICUM: A TIME FOR DEVELOPING INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS

Interacting with the Students

In teaching, one does not just plan and present a lesson. Instructing students involves interacting with them and developing a working relationship that facilitates presentation and assimilation of the language and culture. To develop that working relationship, one must anticipate and solve several problems inherent in foreign language learning.

Helping Students Understand Activities Conducted in the Target Language

It is generally accepted that a great deal of practice in listening and speaking is necessary to master a second language. Moreover, studies indicate that language is most effectively learned in communicative interchanges, that is, when it is used to convey ideas and information. Thus, it seems obvious that daily classroom activities should be conducted in the target language. This includes greetings and leave-takings, giving directions for activities, cueing a drill, rewarding students, and making small talk (e.g., comments on school activities, the weather, or upcoming events).

Unfortunately, some teachers have not trained students to expect consistent use of the second language in class. If the student teacher tries to make a sudden change in procedures by using the target language at all times, students may rebel, or at least be antagonistic. At the same time, students do want to use the language for communication, and express satisfaction about classes conducted primarily in the second language (Ozzello; Walker). The task for the student teacher, then, is to train students to understand an increasing amount of the second language used to conduct classroom activities.

One way to accomplish this is to put on the board an outline of the lesson plan written in the second language (with no translation). It might even contain an example or two of how the activity will be carried out. Reading the outline helps many students better understand oral communication, and the examples give them a model to follow. A sample outline might look like this:

I. Révision du dialogue, "Au Café"	(Review of the dialogue, "At the Café")
II. Un nouveau verbe: prendre	(A new verb: prendre
Que prenez-vous au café?	What do you order [take] in a café?)
III. Expressions de quantité: Je prends du pain.	(Expressions of quantity: I take some bread.
Je prends beaucoup de pain.	I take a lot of bread.
beaucoup de beurre.	a lot of butter.
Je prends un peu de pain.	I take a little bread.
Je prends un morceau de pain.	I take a piece of bread.)
IV. Exercice écrit: expressions de quantité	(Written exercise: expressions of quantity)
V. Le négatif:	(The negative:
Je prends du pain.	I take some bread.
Je ne prends pas de pain.	I do not take any bread.
Je prends du beurre.	I take some butter.
Je ne prends pas de beurre.	I do not take any butter.)

Use of a written outline has several advantages. It gives students a clear overview of the activities for the day, and they can see how they are related to one another. The outline is a support for the student teacher, too. At times, especially at the start of the practicum, student teachers have trouble remembering the sequence of their plan. The outline serves as a guide for them. Most important, the outline helps students understand what the teacher is saying when introducing activities and gives them an idea of the purpose and mechanics of the activity. The teacher could even ask the students in the target language, "What are we going to work on now?" and the students could read the next topic from the board.

Another way of helping students comprehend activities conducted in the second language is to give specific examples for an activity rather than a lengthy introduction or set of directions. Remembering that students' memory load is much weaker and shorter in a second language (Stevick, Ch. 2), the student teacher would be wise to introduce the activity with just a phrase, or one or two simple sentences. For example, "Now we're going to study expressions of quantity, like 'many' or 'a little'" (all said in the target language). To make sure that students have understood, and to encourage them to listen attentively, one can check their comprehension. "What are we going to study now? Yes, expressions of quantity. What are some examples of that?" This ensures that all students have, in fact, understood the topic and purpose of the next activity.

Teachers can give examples of how the activity will be conducted--that is, saying their cue while pointing to themselves, and then saying the students' sentence while pointing to the students. A second example would further clarify the mechanics. The teacher could even pause at the students' part and let them fill in the answer to see if they perceive the sequence. Thus, the teacher would say and do the following:

(Pointing to self) Moi, je dis, "Je prends du pain."	(I say, "I take some bread.")
(Sweeping gesture to all students) Vous, vous dites, "Je prends beaucoup de pain."	(You say, "I take a lot of bread.")
(Pointing to self) Moi: "Je prends du beurre."	(I say, "I take some butter.")
(Pointing to students--and pausing to see if they fill in answer) Vous? [pause] Oui. "Je prends beaucoup de beurre."	(You say? [pause] Yes. "I take a lot of butter.")

A similar procedure would be used with the next expression of quantity.

Thus, student teachers use only the second language, but the students have a short, precise, and understandable model of HOW the activity will be conducted. In general, student teachers would be wise to look at how they introduce an activity. If students do not know the topic and purpose of each activity and how they are to perform, they will break into English and ask many questions.

Another way to help students understand the target language is to present one classroom expression every day that they are to learn and use in the target language. The teacher can do this by writing out the expression on a piece of construction paper and putting the English meaning on the back. She or he would then show the expression to the students, say it in the second language, and show its English meaning two or three times while saying it. Each day that expression could be put on the bulletin board to construct a "language ladder." The different expressions written on paper of various colors create the image of the rungs of a ladder.

1.	No sé.	(I don't know.)
2.	Repita Ud., por favor.	(Please repeat.) [singular command form]
3.	Hablen más alto, por favor.	(Please speak louder.) [plural command form]

Once the expressions are posted, students are responsible for understanding and using them in the classroom. The teacher may also encourage students to copy them onto a separate page in their notebooks. This gradual building of a language repertoire is not as overwhelming as suddenly expecting students to use the language at all times. Moreover, there is a sense of progress and achievement in mastering an expression a day and being able to communicate more and more in the language. Since the expressions are numbered, the teacher can simply call out that number when using it or when hearing students say it in English.

Encouraging Students to Use the Target Language

Another technique for encouraging students to use common classroom expressions in the target language is to establish a "password" for the day. The teacher presents an expression that the students must be able to remember and produce BEFORE they can leave the classroom. The teacher usually reserves a certain spot in the room to post the password:

MOT DE PASSE
Passez un bon week-end!

(PASSWORD--Have a nice week-end!)

The password could easily be inserted or taped under the "Password" title and changed daily. As with the language ladder, the teacher can write the English meaning on the back of the expression and show that meaning while pronouncing the phrase in the second language. The teacher usually asks students to drill it at the start and end of the hour. Leaving it posted allows students to restudy it on their own. At the end of class, the teacher stands at the door, and each students earns permission to leave the room by saying the password. The students are learning just one useful expression at a time, but they are systematically building up their vocabulary for self-expression and communication in the language.

At first, the passwords might be leave-takings, as that seems realistic when saying the item as one leaves the room. In French this could include Au revoir, Mlle/Monsieur .... (Good-bye, Miss/Mr....), A demain (See you tomorrow), A lundi/mardi/mercredi (See you on Monday/Tuesday/Wednesday), A bientôt (See you soon), Bon week-end (Have a nice weekend). The passwords might also include items that the teacher overhears the students say in English during the class. This would reinforce realistic use of the language and would reduce use of English. For example, "Please repeat that" could be included or social rejoiners like "Darn it," "Terrific," or "I don't care." In fact, one can present the same expression verbalized differently for use in various interactions. A progressive change in politeness for "What?" in French would include Pardon, Mme? Comment? Vous dites? and Quoi?, with the latter used most appropriately with other students.

The passwords can also include positive and negative rejoinders. They can be posted each day on the bulletin board for contrast and reinforcement of each other.

Positive	Negative
Chouette! (Terrific)	C'est dommage! (Too bad)
Chic alors! (Great)	Zut alors! (Darn it)

During the class hour, the teacher can encourage use of the items in response to actual situations. "Now we're having a quiz. What could you say in French?" This helps students apply the expressions in a realistic, meaningful way.

Another technique for encouraging students to use the second language in class is to keep a checklist of how many times a student speaks in the target language during the class hour. Each day a different student could be assigned to mark the seating chart or a list of names each time one of the students speaks. (It may also remind us to call on a greater variety of students.) From time to time, an "oral participation grade" might be assigned students on the basis of the frequency of their contributions. Since no mark is made for the use of English, and credit is given for use of the second language, students have concrete proof that speaking in the second language is a valued classroom activity.

"Who am I?" and "Here is a present" are two games a student teacher can introduce to motivate students to speak in the target language (Knop 1972) and to train them to initiate conversation,

not just respond, as is their usual role in classroom interactions. "Who am I?" is based on the format of "Twenty Questions." The teacher pretends to be a famous person, and the students ask a maximum of 20 questions, to be answered only with "yes" or "no," until someone finally has enough information to guess at the identity. Whoever figures out the answer earns the right to be the next famous person. The game can be made more interesting by pasting a picture of the famous person inside a folded piece of construction paper and letting only the impersonator see it at first. Mathis (1976) adds the idea of holding the paper to one's forehead and pretending to send "ESP" to the other students. An interest inventory handed out at the start of the practicum could solicit the names of the students' favorite singers, movie stars, and TV personalities. The game could then include these people as well as members of the school or local community and famous people from the target culture (e.g., Picasso, Goethe, Napoleon).

For the game to succeed, the teacher must first drill a variety of question forms for the students to master. In addition, vocabulary covering nationality, age, and physical appearance as well as certain verbs (e.g., "sing, dance, act") must be covered. The students as a group might write up a list of typical questions to use in the game and then refer to that sheet when asking their questions.

The linguistic values of this game are numerous. Students must listen carefully to the answers so as to avoid duplicating (and wasting) a question and in order to retain the information. They are applying vocabulary and structures from their text or drills in a meaningful, communicative way. Most importantly, they are internalizing patterns and formations for asking questions, a skill that is not normally developed in typical classroom interactions.

"Here Is a Present" develops linguistic skills in a similar fashion. The purpose of this game is to guess what object is contained in a gift-wrapped box (Mathis). The vocabulary needed for this game emphasizes adjectives (color, size, shape) and various verbs (Do you drink it? Do you eat it?). Again, students must practice these questions prior to the activity. The extra bonus in this game is that whoever guesses the object correctly is allowed to keep it. Thus, motivation is very high to listen to others' answers and to ask pertinent questions.

A final technique for encouraging use of the target language during the class hour is to establish the rule that students--and the teacher--must ask permission before speaking English. Je peux parler en anglais? ¿Puedo hablar en inglés? Darf ich auf Englisch sprechen? are expressions that could be taught early in the practicum as part of the "language ladder" or "password" expressions. Insistence on asking permission before one uses English reinforces the mental set that speaking English is an unusual occurrence in class. Moreover, the teacher can decide whether or not it is appropriate to allow English at that point. In the midst of a pattern practice, the teacher may simply say in the target language, "Yes, but at the end of the drill" to avoid interrupting students' focus on the emerging pattern. During a grammar analysis or a cultural presentation, on the other hand, one may decide to allow a question or comment in English if the complexity of the presentation seems to require it or if the particular student usually does not abuse the privilege of using English.

The point should be made again that students indicate a strong desire to understand and use the second language. However, students do not begin to comprehend and produce the second language overnight. Systematic, daily practice, as suggested in the preceding activities and techniques, will help train them to interact--at least in the classroom setting--in the second language. Moreover, student teachers should realize that students do not automatically try to understand and speak the second language, even though they want to attain those skills. The teacher must motivate students to work to acquire communicative abilities and, thus, feel a sense of achievement and progress. And the student teacher must then continue to motivate students by insisting that they use those learned structures to communicate in the classroom.

Reacting to Students' Errors

Avoiding and Reducing the Frequency of Errors

A variety of linguistic studies have contrasted English sounds, forms, syntax, and usage with those of other languages to pinpoint likely problems and causes of errors for English speakers in learning the second language. Politzer has summarized many of those findings for teachers of Spanish, French, and German and has also suggested useful drills and techniques for helping students overcome specific areas of difficulties in learning that second language. The student teacher will find his suggestions invaluable for anticipating and analyzing errors and for planning contrastive and remedial drill activities.

Errors are not caused solely by linguistic interference. Very often, students make mistakes or give incorrect answers because of misunderstanding and confusion, because of tension or embarrassment, and because of the boredom and tedium inherent in rote-level learning. The teacher should take these factors into account when planning and presenting a lesson and should try to avoid or reduce the likelihood of errors due to these causes. Obviously, one cannot completely eradicate the occurrence of errors in class. But their frequency can be reduced by first realizing and understanding common causes of errors and then by constructing lessons that take these causes into account.

Misunderstanding and confusion

This is a typical problem for beginning teachers. Often their directions and cues are not clear. For example, they may begin an activity by saying, Où allez-vous après cette classe? (Where are you going after this class?) without (1) indicating whether students are to repeat or answer the question (usually they will repeat it) or (2) drilling a variety of possible responses. The result is that students repeat the answer, give an incorrect one, or simply look at the teacher in silence. The following suggestions are meant to reduce errors due to students' misunderstanding and confusion.

Give a statement of the purpose and mechanics of the activity. If students do not know what they are working on (or why), and if they do not know how they are to perform an activity, they will react with frustration and may even refuse to participate. The student teacher should be careful to announce a change in activities (Now we're going to do something different. Now we're going to change and work on...). Using a written outline of the lesson plan, as suggested earlier, is also helpful.

Then the teacher states the object of the activity. "We're going to study the pronoun y. At the end of the exercise, you're going to tell me what kind of phrases y replaces." (All is said in the target language with pauses and emphasis on the word y). The teacher can check comprehension by asking, "What word are we going to study?"

Then the teacher demonstrates how the activity will be conducted:

Moi, je dis, "Je vais au théâtre."	(I say, "I am going to the theater.")
Vous, vous dites, "J'y vais."	(You say, "I am going there.")
Moi, "Je vais au cinéma."	(Me, "I am going to the movies.")
Vous, "J'y vais."	(You, "I am going there.")

As indicated on p. 13, the teacher could use pointing gestures to indicate who says which sentence. Beginning the drill with those very same examples will ensure that the students can produce at least the first two items correctly and that they have a well-set model to follow in carrying out the drill.

Teach an answer before asking a question. That is, before asking, "Where are you going?" teach one or even several possible answers from which students may select an answer. Even if they have already studied and produced sentences like "I am going to the...," a brief review of those answers will prepare them to respond accurately and quickly to the question.

Establish automatic pairs in the language. "Are you going...?" is usually answered by "I am going...," "Is there...?" by "There is...," "What is...?" by "It is...," "Do you have...?" by "I have...." Once students have associated certain question cues with linguistically linked answers, they can usually produce correct and rapid responses (at least in that automatic pair section). Once automatic pairs have been set, many questions can be asked without having to drill the answers. Thus, even if students have not practiced the sentence "I am going to the boulangerie," if they hear "Are you going to the boulangerie?" (and see a picture of a bakery as a cue), then they are very likely to produce the correct sentence, using the automatic pairs "Are you going/I am going" and inserting the new word.

Break up lengthy sentences. Studies show us that students cannot retain and produce new sentences that are longer than seven or eight syllables (O'Connor). Therefore, if a sentence is lengthy, the teacher can model the entire utterance first and then break it into several groups of words for separated practice, either through a "backward buildup" or "frontward buildup."

A backward buildup is conducted in this way:

Je vais au cinéma avec Pierre ce soir.
(I am going to the movies with Peter tonight.)

PRACTICE:	Ce soir, ce soir (Tonight, tonight)		
	Avec Pierre (with Peter)	REPETITION:	Avec Pierre ce soir (with Peter tonight)
	Au cinéma (to the movies)		Au cinéma avec Pierre ce soir (to the movies with Peter tonight)
	Je vais (I am going)		Je vais au cinéma avec Pierre ce soir.

This technique is useful because students are always working toward learned material. They have already mastered the latter part of the sentence and can repeat the newest part immediately after the teacher. This technique also helps students learn to repeat and think in groups of words in the second language and helps them maintain the correct intonation for each word group.

The frontward buildup is conducted in a similar fashion but begins with the first group of words. This technique is useful right after the backward buildup to help students produce the sentence in a realistic, more meaningful way.

Keep to minimal step changes in a drill. If, for example, the purpose of a drill is to set expressions with tener in Spanish, one element of the sentence should be kept constant and each variation should involve a single change. Thus,

Tengo sed.	I am thirsty.
hambre	hungry
sueño	sleepy
miedo	fearful
calor	warm

makes a more effective drill than

Tengo sed.	I am thirsty.
Tenemos hambre.	We are hungry.
Tienen sueño.	They are sleepy.
Tienes calor.	You are warm.

In the first drill, the students are more likely to produce correct answers and to perceive the usage because of minimal changes that reinforce the basic pattern. A second drill, changing to another form like tenemos--Tenemos sed, hambre, etc. (We are thirsty, hungry, etc.) will extend the pattern to other persons but again will help students concentrate on the usage of tener with these expressions because of the single change per sentence.

Tension and embarrassment

In any learning situation, a certain amount of tension and embarrassment may be present because of the fear of failure in front of peers and friends. This situation is even more intense when the medium of learning is a second language. Students are deprived of their most common means of self-expression and must struggle to make linguistic progress as well as convey information or answer questions. These feelings seem to become more acute with the onset of puberty and the increased self-consciousness typical of that period, and are common causes of errors and faltering. Therefore, student teachers must do all they can to lessen anxiety and reduce chances for embarrassment. The following suggestions have been found useful for students at the junior high school level and beyond.

Use choral practice and group repetition at the start of a drill. When a drill activity is beginning, choral practice is useful for many reasons. First, all students have a chance to speak, thus maximizing practice and learning. Students feel secure because individual errors are not noticeable. In addition, students have a chance to gain accuracy and fluency in the utterance before they must say it on their own. The student teacher should be sure to reset the correct model during choral practice so that students can self-correct if they made a mistake in the previous repetition. The teacher should also move around the room to note errors and to motivate all students to perform.

Group practice gives students the continued security of repeating together but, by including fewer students, the teacher can hear errors that are possibly not noticed in full choral work. Groups may be assigned by halves of the room, by row, by boy/girl divisions, or by age.

Choral repetition and group practice are useful not only at the start of a drill; they can be used effectively again after an individual's answer. If the student has made an error, it is less embarrassing for the individual to repeat the correction with a whole group than alone. Choral repetition at this point helps eradicate errors, gives additional practice to all students, and takes the focus off the student who made a mistake. If the student answered correctly, calling for choral repetition checks if all the students listened to the answer. Asking everyone to repeat an individual's answer also indicates that the answer is worth listening to and that students are to learn from each other's answers, not just the teacher's model.

Avoid focusing on a student who made an error. When a student does make a mistake, the teacher should try to isolate the error, not the student. Rather than walking up to the student and correcting him or her, the teacher can look at the whole group and ask, in the target language, Petite faute? (Small mistake?) or Correction? Very often, the individual student will be able to correct the error during the pause when all students are asked to discover the mistake. If no one answers, the teacher can give a cue, in the target language (Singular or plural? Where is the verb? Today or yesterday--present or past tense?). Again, these points are addressed to the whole class. This makes all students more aware of the error and may lead them to self-correction if they themselves make the mistake on another occasion; furthermore, the student involved is not made to feel that she or he alone is in the wrong. If no one comes up with the correct response, the teacher can give it, call for choral repetition, and then ask individual students (including the one who made the mistake) to say the utterance.

Begin activities with familiar material. This refers, first of all, to the start of the class hour when a "warmup" is helpful. This consists of choral practice on very familiar material such as homework items, previously drilled dialogues or pattern practices, everyday expressions about weather, time, or health. The purpose of the warmup is to get everyone thinking and talking in the second language. Much as we ourselves need a few minutes in a foreign movie to "shift gears," our students need a little time to change their thinking over from English to the second language. Choral practice does not involve self-expression or decisions on answers. No communication is occurring; we are simply helping the students recall sounds, words, and structures in the target language. Practice with familiar material also provides positive motivation.

During other activities, it is also helpful to start with a familiar sentence. For example, when the student teacher is about to teach a negative that involves a new concept and new forms, starting the drill with one or two sentences directly out of a dialogue or a reading passage already learned reassures students that they have already produced examples of this "new" phenomenon.

Help students when they have a problem. When students do not respond in an activity, the teacher can try to rephrase and shorten the directions instead of reiterating them. It is also helpful to give one or two examples. Students learn better from specific examples than from lengthy directions or explanations.

When students have trouble with a new sound, the teacher can help them, not by saying the sound louder and louder, but rather by isolating it (e.g., vu, /y/), exaggerating its pronunciation (e.g., a very nasalized production of a French /ɔ̃/, an extensively rolled /r/ in Spanish, or a very gutteral /r/ in German), and by showing or telling them how to form the sound. The last procedure need not be extensive. Simply telling students where to put the lips, tongue, and teeth in relation to each other will help them to produce the sound.

Rephrasing a question in a more simplified form is another way of helping students. For example, if the teacher has asked, "What are you going to do this week-end?" and the student cannot produce an answer, the teacher could give some possibilities (Are you going to go to the movies, study, watch TV?), an either-or question (Are you going to study or watch TV?), or some personalized examples (I'm going to go shopping and I'm also going to go to the movies). Offer-

ing several options will give the student examples to follow and a little time to think of an answer.

Reward students for their performance and progress. Research indicates that the interactions of successful teachers are characterized by positive reactions to students' performance (Moskowitz). These reactions, usually called "rewards," are needed to let students know if their responses were right or wrong. Rewards also motivate students: they want to know that the teacher is pleased with their learning. Giving frequent, positive, and varied rewards is an effective means of reducing tension.

Rewards may be classified as verbal, nonverbal, and communicative. Purely verbal rewards, such as très bien, muy bien, and sehr gut, are necessary to let students know whether or not their answer was correct. They are typically used in practice and drill sessions when basic sounds, words, and structures are being overlearned. These rewards are also useful for building students' vocabulary in the the second language. However, they may become mechanical and nonmeaningful if the student teacher does not vary them. Beginning teachers often rely upon only one or two expressions for every reward. Listening for overuse of such rewards on a tape of the class or asking the cooperating teacher to note them would alleviate this problem. Linguistic rewards may also appear mechanistic if they are not expressed with emotional quality and accompanied by nonverbal rewards.

Nonverbal rewards include a smile, nod of the head, eye contact while talking, or even touching a student. Such nonverbal interactions are commonly used to show that we are listening to and understanding others. In drills and question-answer work, a teacher does not have to give a verbal reward for every answer. That would take up time that could be more productively spent. Also, a predictable pattern of "teacher cue—>student answer" and "student answer—>teacher's verbal reward" may be set up that reduces the effectiveness of the reward. Instead, nonverbal rewards would show students that their answer had been noted, understood, and accepted as correct.

The importance of nonverbal rewards cannot be overemphasized. Many teachers give a variety of verbal rewards but often use them as "fillers" while they look for their note cards or think about their next activity. Open-body language (e.g., arms reached out to students), proximity (for instance, leaving one's desk and walking among the students) and facial expressions (e.g., eye contact and smiles) are all effective nonverbal strategies for conveying interest, acceptance, and caring. These nonverbal rewards are just as important for motivating students as the verbal ones.

Communicative rewards, typically used in question-answer work or in communicative competence activities, respond to the student's statement and indicate acceptance of it. These rewards are a reaction to the content of what the student has said, not just its linguistic production. If, for example (when asked about ordering food in a restaurant), a student answers, "I prefer steak," the teacher may respond, "You must be rich!" or "So do I." Or, if in discussing plans for the weekend, the student says, "I'm going to the football game," the teacher could respond: "I hope we win" or "Whom are we playing?" This is a much more subtle form of reward than a verbal one or simply saying "OK." It also is much more typical of real conversation. Communicative rewards will help set a variety of expressions and structures that the students may eventually use on their own for communication.

In addition to using rewards for individual answers, the teacher may consider including a reward at the end of an activity or of a class session. When the students have been attentive and made real progress in a drill, the teacher might comment on that behavior to reinforce it positively. Teachers often make negative remarks when students are not paying attention or performing well, but rarely include positive remarks on their performance and progress. Glasser (1969) points out that it is equally important to single out and reinforce effective learning behaviors if we expect or want them to occur again. Thus, when the students have used the target language throughout the hour, the teacher can state how proud he or she is of their ability to do so. Similarly, positive statements can be made about students' handing in homework on time, learning a dialogue fluently, or listening to each other's answers.

Boredom and tedium

It is generally agreed that learning a second language involves, at least to some degree, the development of automatic habits and skills in understanding and speaking the language (Brooks; Chastain; Grittner 1977; Politzer 1965a, 1965b, 1968). To this end, students usually practice and even memorize dialogues, question-answer exercises, and pattern practices. Rivers (1975, pp. 4-5) describes this as the "skill-getting" level of language learning. As in any activity involving

rote learning and memorization, students are likely to feel boredom and tedium as the practice continues. Therefore, the student teacher must plan varied strategies and techniques for enlivening this necessary phase of language acquisition. The following suggestions have been found useful.

Keep each activity to about ten minutes in length. Students' attention span will not last longer than about ten minutes. Any practice on the same material will have diminishing returns in learning when continued beyond that time span.

If the activity must go on that long, the teacher should then be sure to include a variety of drilling techniques, such as choral-group-individual practice; a speed-up cue (to encourage fluency) or a speak-up cue (to emphasize emotional quality of the sentence and change volume); multiple repetition by students with no teacher model (to help them remember the utterance on their own); or role reversal (students ask the question of the teacher rather than giving the answer and then ask the question of each other).

Provide frequent "breaks." This may be done in several ways. First, after presenting new material, the teacher may move to a review of something familiar. Thus, instead of encountering a continuing barrage of unfamiliar items that they must assimilate, students have a chance to relax and work with something that is not new to them. This overlearning is needed for internalization of the previously presented material.

A "skill break" is also helpful. After an oral activity, the student teacher can plan a writing activity, for instance, copying the dialogue or answering questions about it. Or the teacher can give a series of commands; the students hear the language and show their comprehension, but they are not forced to continue speaking in the language.

A physical break is useful to counteract tedium. For example, a "stand-up" activity can be included. The students all stand after drilling a pattern practice or dialogue. When they produce one of the drilled utterances correctly, they may sit down. The teacher also uses physical breaks when giving commands or when assigning students to move into small groups for practice.

Use a variety of visuals and acting out of utterances. This provides multiple sense appeal and a focus of interest for students. The teacher can bring in objects that the students see and then touch, ask students to perform actions (e.g., shake hands when saying "hello" or touch the throat to reinforce "I have a sore throat"), or use pictures and drawings that students look at or point to when they are making the appropriate utterances.

Personalize and use humor in the sentences. Students are more interested and more willing to repeat sentences when their own names or activities are included. For example, a sentence like "___ likes to drink beer" can be repeated with enthusiasm many times over if names of students in the class (or other teachers) are used as the subject. The students are overlearning the basic sentence construction, but they are distracted and amused by the personal references. Students will also be listening attentively for their own names or their friends' in the drill.

The sentences can also require students to say something that they do not really want to say. For example, a drill on the use of infinitives with "to like" can incorporate such variations as "I like to study, I like to do my homework, I like to go to the library, I like to work hard, I like to have a lot of homework," etc. Students' emotional reactions to such sentences imbue them with interest and meaning that will offset the tedium of repeating just another pattern practice (Knop 1977).

Maintain "positive tension" in carrying out activities. This refers to avoiding predictability in drilling procedures. As was noted previously, calling for choral work from time to time after an individual answer will force students to listen carefully to each other's answers. Calling on students in random order will also keep them on their toes. If the teacher calls on one student after another sequentially in a row, those who are about to be called on will be unreasonably nervous and those already called on will "tune out." Instead, the teacher can call on students in different parts of the room in no predetermined order. Similarly, it is usually effective to ask the question and then pause before calling a student's name. If one calls the student's name first and then gives the cue, no one else will bother to formulate an answer, and the student named will be especially tense.

Proximity is important for keeping students alert. Thus, if the teacher is on the left side of the room, he or she should probably call on a student on the right side. This technique has several advantages. Those students nearest to the teacher will be alert because of the teacher's proximity. Those farther away will have to speak loudly to be heard by the teacher. Also, they will not be intimidated by the teacher's standing right in front of them and waiting for the

answer. Asking students on the opposite side of the room to repeat that individual's answer will confirm that it was loud enough to be heard and that students were paying attention to it.

Reacting as Positively as Possible to Errors

If the content of the answer was basically correct, the teacher may choose to accept it and praise the student. Another option is to accept it and paraphrase it, correcting the error. Then the teacher might call for class repetition so that all, including the student who made the error, repeat the correct response.

If the error is on a sound, word, or grammatical point that has recently been drilled, the teacher can cue the student by repeating the sentence up to the error (e.g., for "I don't have no money," the teacher says, "I don't have...?") and waiting for a self-correction or eliciting a correction from the class. This encourages students to listen to what they say and spot their own errors.

If several students make the same error, the teacher may choose to construct a drill to focus on the sound, word, or grammatical point. Students' errors are useful indicators of what linguistic practice is needed.

Deciding How or When to Correct Errors

There are various schools of thought on errors. Some psychologists and linguists believe that avoiding errors is crucial in linguistic training. Thus, structured auditory and oral work on points of interference is encouraged before students produce any utterances on their own.

Others believe that error analysis is a better approach. When teachers hear a student's error, they interpret it as a sign of what the student has already learned about the language and what still needs to be learned. For example, when a student says, "I have went," it shows that a generalization has been made that one uses the past tense of a verb to form the present perfect (e.g., I talked--I have talked). Analysis of the error can be followed by a drill to teach verbs that do not fit that generalization.

Still others believe that no drill need be formed at all. "Nativists" point out that all children learn their own language through trial and error, through absorbing data from the speakers around them, and through a progression of linguistic acquisition that appears universal to all languages and speakers of those languages.

Unfortunately, most second language learners are not continually immersed in a linguistic and cultural environment that feeds them data on the language. The teacher must consider the time element: it is more efficient to construct a pattern practice that exemplifies a recurring pattern than to wait for all students to notice and absorb it eventually. The teacher must also consider the danger of "fossilization": that is, if students repeat an incorrect sound or structure over and over, they may internalize it and never lose it (an example is speech patterns of immigrants who have lived in a country for years and never lose the "accent" or errors in the second language).

In deciding the "to correct or not to correct" question, a teacher may use several criteria:

1. How important and frequent is that item or structure in the language? If students use je suis faim for "I am hungry," they are likely to make the same error on the many structures that use "to have" in French instead of "to be," as in English. Such an error probably should be counteracted with vocabulary or pattern practice work so that the student does not generalize it to other parallel structures.
2. Is that item or structure common in the student's environment and experience? If so, the student is likely to utter it several times a day, many times a week, probably to the point of fossilization. A remedial drill is probably in order in this case.
3. Is it something that has already been singled out for study and drill? If so, a cue for self-correction may remind all the students of that item or structure--and may emphasize that it does, indeed, recur in the language.
4. Does it interfere with communication? If a student says poison for poisson ("poison" for "fish"), then confusion may result. The teacher probably should react as a native would: ask for clarification or show lack of comprehension.
5. How serious is the error in terms of social/cultural disapproval? More studies are needed in this area of sociolinguistic analysis of errors. However, anyone who has spoken with native

speakers of a language will have undoubtedly noted negative reactions to certain types of errors (e.g., incorrect gender of an article, incorrect auxiliary verb for a past tense). If the error is likely to cause such a reaction, then the teacher should do remedial work to eradicate it.

If the error does not fit into any of the preceding categories, then the teacher may choose to ignore it, to paraphrase the answer and include the correction, or to note it as a point to drill should other students also make errors on it. Obviously, the learning goal of the activity during which the error occurs is paramount. If students are engaging in open-ended communication or discussing factual information that is basically correct, stopping them to correct an error may interrupt and even discourage continued discussion. If the activity is a structured question-answer one, then perhaps some correction is necessary, especially if the answer was unclear because of the error. However, in both these cases, a remedial drill later in the day, or even on the next day, might be a better way to work on the error, since the item was not the main goal of the activity.

If the error occurs in a pattern practice or auditory discrimination drill where it is the main learning goal (e.g., "Je n'ai pas un" in a drill on "Je n'ai pas de"), then it is appropriate to stop the proceedings, have choral repetition of the correct response, move to group practice, and, finally, call on individuals, including the one who made the error. Leaving a student with an error on the main point of a structured drill is likely to lead to his or her continuing to make that same error.

Establishing Effective Classroom Management

No problem seems to create more anxiety for student teachers than their ability to control and discipline a class (Kolson). Unfortunately, there are no set or easy answers to offer the novice teacher. Rather, there are several questions that must be considered before deciding on actions to take to establish effective classroom management.

First, the question of what constitutes discipline problems must be considered. In some schools, typical discipline problems include physical abuse from students or gang fights. In the foreign language classroom, discipline problems seem less serious and yet can still be disruptive to the learning process. Typical problems include students' using English instead of the second language, not paying attention in class, talking to each other during activities, not handing in homework, being impolite to each other or the teacher, or refusing to participate in class activities. Some teachers view these kinds of behaviors as minor disturbances and ignore them. Other teachers and even students in the class may find such behavior annoying and disruptive to learning.

Student teachers must decide ahead of time what behavior they consider unsuitable and not conducive to learning in their class. During the observation period prior to the practicum, student teachers can note student behavior or interactions that they think should be changed for increased learning and can discuss strategies to effect those changes with the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor.

A second question to consider is how the cooperating teacher reacts to discipline problems. Is there behavior that is definitely not tolerated, such as getting up to sharpen pencils in the middle of a drill or chatting with a friend? If so, the student teacher would be wise to react negatively to such actions, as the students expect consistency in discipline, and the cooperating teacher will not want to have to re-establish rules and regulations when resuming teaching duties. One should also note how the cooperating teacher handles the problems. Are students verbally reprimanded? Are they asked to stay after school? By studying the cooperating teacher's approach, student teachers can learn a variety of responses to potential and actual discipline problems.

Yet another question is what the school's policy is toward handling discipline. In some schools, teachers are expected to solve all discipline problems on their own; students are not to be sent out of class. In other schools, principals want to show support of teachers and suggest that they send students causing serious problems to their office. In some districts, students cannot be kept after school because of bus schedules. The student teacher should discuss attitudes and approaches toward disciplining students with the principal, with the assistant principal, and with the counselors, in order to be more certain of the administrative procedures.

Ultimately, though, it is the student teacher's own attitude and reactions that decide on what is a discipline problem and how to handle it. There are several principles to consider in establishing effective classroom control and, therefore, in avoiding potential discipline problems.

Batchelder et al. suggest a constructive approach to teaching "by which we create a situation in which disciplinary difficulties are not likely to arise" (p. 81). Many of the suggestions previously discussed for avoiding errors are also helpful for creating this constructive approach and for reducing the likelihood of discipline problems. That is, if the teacher writes an outline of the lesson plan on the board, gives clear directions and examples for activities, explains the "how" and "why" of exercises, and plans minimal steps in drills, then students will feel secure about the class activities and will be able to perform successfully. When they feel successful in their learning, they are not likely to cause problems. Moreover, if the novice teacher uses a variety of drill techniques and audiovisual aids and also keeps activities to a length of ten or fifteen minutes, students are less likely to become bored, fatigued, or unruly. If, in addition, the student teacher makes frequent use of positive rewards (verbal, nonverbal, and communicative) and uses open-body language and proximity, a warm and accepting climate is created in the classroom, and students are apt to feel positive toward the teacher and subject matter and, therefore, more cooperative.

Rivers (1972, pp. 62-63) and Grittner (1977, Ch. 6) remind us of the importance of motivation for students' learning and for avoiding potential disciplinary problems. Motivation may be analyzed as "intrinsic" or "extrinsic." When moved by intrinsic motivation, students want to learn because the learning is, in and of itself, interesting and worthwhile to them. Some students already possess this intrinsic motivation. For others, it can be developed if the teacher relates the materials to students' interests and experiences, uses personalized and realistic examples in drills, and displays his or her own interest and enthusiasm. Students' attitudes toward the second language and culture are shaped by the teacher's preparation, by the teacher's use of the second language for communication in class, and by his or her positively expressed feelings toward the language and toward members of the studied culture (Gardner and Lambert).

Extrinsic motivation is created by using strategies to encourage and even require students to learn. This may include giving oral participation grades each day, collecting homework and evaluating it, planning a game or song at the end of the period if other activities are covered, or giving a quiz on the homework. Some students need obvious and concrete reinforcement for their work in the form of grades, teacher comments, or pleasurable activities. As the semester progresses, the teacher may be able to reduce these strategies when students see their progress and begin to develop intrinsic motivation to continue studying.

Below is a synthesis of advice offered to student teachers regarding ways to avoid discipline problems (Batchelder et al.; Brand; Byers and Irish; Johnson and Anderson; Kolson):

1. Plan lessons thoroughly. Students will feel secure and will respect a teacher who appears interested and committed enough to present a well-thought out lesson.
2. Be consistent. For example, if you expect students to speak the second language at all times, require it of every student. Similarly, do not allow students to chat together on one day and then expect them to stop such behavior the next time.
3. Treat students with respect and courtesy. If you speak disrespectfully and unkindly to students, they are likely to treat you in the same way. On the other hand, if you are polite and positive, they will probably react in kind.
4. Remember that students are human, too. We all forget things (like pencils or paper). We all have "off days." It may be helpful to ask students to tell you at the start of the hour if they were unable to finish their homework, are unprepared, or are not feeling good. Then you will understand if they do not volunteer or participate. Moreover, they will appreciate your asking a little less of them on such days.
5. Be firm. If you ask students to do certain things to further their learning, insist that they do them. For example, although one usually expects choral work to be done by all class members, sometimes students do not participate. One can explain the purpose and value of choral drill and then ask all students to repeat (or call on individuals who are not repeating). One must also insist that students use the second language to communicate. In most instances, they will be able to find a few words to express their question or comment if the teacher refuses to understand or respond to their English.

It is inevitable that students will "try out" a new teacher. They want to know the expectations of that teacher and how far they can go in potentially disruptive behavior. At the same

time, they look to the teacher as the authority figure in class and expect him or her to establish limits and boundaries on their behavior. In fact, the most common advice offered to student teachers from their students is to be stricter, especially with the troublemakers in class (Knop 1972, pp. 357-58). The student teacher must decide which types of behavior are most conducive to learning, insist that students carry them out, and then reward them with positive comments and praise when they do occur. Similarly, decisions must be made as to which kinds of behavior are not helpful to students' progress, and these must not be tolerated.

Reacting to Discipline Problems

When disruptions do occur, the student teacher should react to them immediately. Problems do not go away of their own accord; instead, they usually grow worse until the teacher puts a stop to them. How one reacts to disciplinary problems depends again on their nature and seriousness, on the personality of the students involved, and on the student teacher's own feelings about the infraction. In addition, as previously noted, one must consider the administrative procedures in regard to discipline as well as those of the cooperating teacher. Obviously, no one approach is the "right" one for every teacher or for all situations. However, the following techniques have been used successfully by student teachers in foreign languages:

1. Stop talking and look directly at the persons who are being disruptive. It usually does no good to try to talk above their noise or activity. Silence, in this case, is usually effective to single out the disruptors. One could then ask their permission to continue the learning activity that other students want to pursue without distraction. One could also make a comment or two in English, for the "shock" effect of breaking the use of the second language.
2. Talk to individual students outside of class. If some students continually cause problems, set up a separate conference time for each of them (perhaps with the counselor or cooperating teacher present) to discuss what they can do to be more cooperative in class and, as a result, to learn more. Sometimes teachers discover that their own behavior has been perceived as threatening or negative to the students, and they can then try to work on more positive interactions. They may also learn that the students have a variety of personal problems that are upsetting at this time. Expressing interest and concern about the students as individuals will usually make them feel more valued and better understood. In many cases, this leads to improved in-class behavior.
3. Change the seating arrangement in class. If groups of students continually cause disruptions, the teacher can rearrange desks or reassign students to different parts of the room. For positive motivation, the teacher can tell students that they may return to their original seats or may sit wherever they want to as long as they do not talk or "fool around" with those near them.
4. Avoid or discontinue activities that seem to encourage discipline problems. If, for example, the class is having a relay race and students begin to speak English, yell, or even trip and shove each other, the teacher should stop the activity immediately and tell the students why. Games, small-group work, and competitions are considered motivating and rewarding activities for students. However, if students are not learning during these activities, the teacher should discontinue them or, perhaps, give students one more chance to engage in them on the condition that they do not misbehave.
5. Ask students for suggestions on how to improve class behavior and discipline. Students can write out such suggestions anonymously and hand them in for the teacher to summarize. In a follow-up class discussion, students might list rules and appropriate behavior for maximum learning by the entire class. Generally, the students will suggest use of the target language, no speaking out of turn, listening to each other's answers, and polite, considerate interaction. These are items that the teacher would probably suggest, too, but since the ideas are initiated by the students themselves, they are more acceptable.

It is also helpful to have a "heart-to-heart" talk with an entire class when problems arise. The teacher can keep ten minutes at the end of a class to ask the students for ideas on how to overcome the problems he or she has perceived. When students know that a teacher has noticed discipline problems and is concerned about solving them, they often react with more understanding and cooperation in succeeding class sessions.

Students value honesty in teacher behavior (Moskowitz). They respect a teacher who faces discipline problems, discusses them with the students, and then works with the students to solve

the difficulties. It is to be hoped that student teachers will be able to avoid or reduce discipline problems by using some of the suggestions presented previously. However, it is likely that they will encounter disciplinary difficulties during the practicum. The most positive advice that can be offered is to look on these problems as a learning experience. By trying out a variety of approaches for solving discipline problems, student teachers can discover which strategies are most effective with a given class and which should work best in the future.

Developing Self-Evaluation Skills

Bebb and Monson have stated that "student teaching should be a time to study teaching as well as practice teaching" (p. 15). In other words, student teachers should have opportunities to analyze and evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching. Developing a repertoire of techniques and activities for self-evaluation can help student teachers study their teaching during the practicum and can also provide them with a variety of approaches to draw on when no cooperating teacher or university supervisor is present to provide feedback.

One activity that has been helpful in this regard is the taping of class sessions for analysis by the student teacher (DuVall and Krepel; Knop 1979). The student teacher evaluates each activity, indicating successful strategies, those that need change, and ways to change them. The cooperating teacher makes a similar evaluation, based on the tape or actual observation of the teacher. After making their own analyses, the two meet to compare notes and suggestions for change and improvement. In this way, the student teacher has already made an independent assessment of the teaching but also has insights and suggestions to draw on from the cooperating teacher.

The tape might be analyzed with the aid of a checklist on interactions or a checklist of specific performance criteria. Sample checklists are suggested in Part I for use in observing the cooperating teacher. They could easily be used by student teachers for self-evaluation. Dussault reports that "one of the relationships most heavily supported by research studies in the field of supervision of teaching is the one between the use by the supervisee of an objective system of categories to describe and analyze his teaching performance and the changes observed in his teaching behavior" (p. 241). A sample checklist for analyzing techniques used during an entire class period is offered in Table 4. The list of items was developed by taking a frequency count of comments and suggestions from evaluation reports on student teachers. These reports were produced by a wide variety of sources--cooperating teachers at the middle and high school levels, two university assistants, a methods professor, and the student teachers' pupils. The student teacher can indicate examples of how each point was met or else add suggestions for meeting those points in the future. The checklist is also useful as an instrument for analyzing a lesson plan prior to teaching it.

Students' analyses and comments regarding one's teaching can also provide a useful source of information for improving instructional approaches and techniques. A formal checklist (see Table 5 for a sample) along with open-ended questions can elicit evaluation of classroom activities and techniques as well as valuable ideas for ways to change one's teaching. Asking students to first evaluate their own efforts and achievements in the course may help them be more objective and fair in evaluating their student teacher. One should probably look for recurring patterns and suggestions in the evaluations rather than be influenced by one or two negative comments.

These evaluations can be used for planning future lessons. In fact, it would be very rewarding to students if the student teacher pointed out to them that their evaluations indicated certain preferences (e.g., for cultural presentations, small-group work, games) and that the teacher was, therefore, planning such an activity every day to respond to their comments.

The preceding suggestions are meant to stress the importance of regular analysis and evaluation of one's teaching. A teacher does not automatically become a good or better teacher through more experience. Teaching must be continually examined for successful and nonsuccessful strategies and approaches. Student teachers need to be trained during their practicum in the use of various techniques and activities for examining their teaching, both to improve their instruction as student teachers and to become skilled in self-evaluation when they become regular, full-time teachers. It is to be hoped that a commitment to continual striving for improvement will be developed through the use of these techniques.

TABLE 4

French Teacher Evaluation Sheet

\+ - Outstanding
OK - Satisfactory
NI - Needs Improvement
NA - Not Applicable

	Visit One Date Visitor	Visit Two Date Visitor	Visit Three Date Visitor
Lesson Planning			
Variety of techniques/activities			
Several skills worked on			
Length of activities (10-15 minutes)			
Mixture of new & familiar material			
Warm-up used			
Transitions between activities			
Overview given to each activity			
Lesson planned in detail			
Techniques Used			
Amount of teacher talk to student talk			
Mixture of choral/group/individual work			
Small-group activities included			
Use of visuals			
French used throughout period			
Personalization of materials			
Learning checks (comprehension and transfer)			
All students called on			
Meaning reinforced via visuals, intonation, etc.			
Correcting: cues for student self-correction			
Class Climate			
Amount of student volunteering			
Students prepared			
Students active during hour			
Students relating to each other			
Teacher's rewards: varied, sincere, partial, accepting what's right in answer			
French used as communication (T. greets Ss. in French, rewards in French, comments in French; Ss. speak to each other in French)			
Ability in French			
Pronunciation			
Intonation			
Morphology & syntax			
Vocabulary			

Comment on:

1. Learning during the hour: did students make progress?
2. Clarity of goals and whether they were attained.
3. Thoroughness of planning.

Source: Constance K. Knop, "Developing a model for student teacher supervision," Foreign Language Annals 10 (December 1977), 635.

TABLE 5

Mid-Term Course Evaluation

1. Organization of class meetings:

__poorly organized __usually well organized __exceptionally well organized

2. Teacher's interest in subject:

__mild interest __strongly interested __intensely interested

3. Teacher's explanations are

__not clear to me. __usually clear to me. __always clear to me.

4. The teacher

__follows routine. __tries to vary routine. __uses lots of techniques.

5. How interesting are the class meetings?

__dull __mildly interesting __highly interesting

6. Is the teacher easy to talk to and get help from?

__sometimes difficult to get extra help __available and helpful __friendly and eager to be helpful

7. Feeling between class and teacher:

__indifference __friendly toward each other __strong feeling of mutual good-will

8. Promptness in returning homework, quizzes, et cetera:

__never prompt __usually prompt __always prompt

9. The amount of work required by the teacher for this course is

__excessive. __about right. __not enough.

10. In relation to my other classes, this course seen as a whole is

__disappointing. __about average. __rewarding and stimulating.

11. General rating of teacher compared to all the other teachers I have had:

__poor __fair __good __better __one of the best

12. Weekly quizzes:

__poor sampling of students' mastery of the material __good sampling __very good sampling

13. Use of quizzes as a learning device:

__students left uncertain of mistakes __usually explains and helps student improve __carefully goes over exams and helps students improve

The one thing the teacher should continue to do in his/her teaching:

The one thing the teacher should change in his/her teaching:

Utilizing the Textbook

Student teachers have little or no choice over the text to be used during their practicum. They are usually expected to continue to use the same materials as the cooperating teacher. However, that does not mean simply picking up a book and beginning to teach from it. Few, if any, textbooks in second language learning can be used that way. Instead, teachers must consider the goals and content of a given unit in the text in light of the learning needs and interests of their own students.

In order to do this, student teachers make weekly and daily lesson plans based on the materials in the textbook. In addition, they will undoubtedly want to select and use different audiovisual aids to reinforce the text's offerings and to add to their students' interest and motivation. Finally, they may want to plan activities beyond those included in the text.

Making Lesson Plans

Student teachers often ask what a lesson plan is supposed to be. According to Huebener (1965), it is a statement of the objectives to be realized and the means by which they are to be attained as the result of activities engaged in by the pupils (pp. 103-4). A lesson plan, then, indicates what will be covered (content, materials, activities), why (the purpose and goal of each segment), and how (the procedure, means of presentation, and sequence). It is, if you like, anticipatory teaching. While writing out the lesson plan, a student teacher mentally goes through the class session in advance of actually teaching it. In addition, student teachers usually find it helpful to act out the plan (practicing their directions, cues, hand gestures, and use of visual aids) and to memorize the sequence of activities.

Values of a Lesson Plan

There are many advantages to having a detailed lesson plan for every class period. The teacher will have thought out the most efficient procedures for presenting materials and will, therefore, make economic use of class time. Progress in learning will be assured, as each lesson (and each activity within a lesson) should be related to what preceded it and to what will follow it. Thus, reinforcement of materials is sytematically provided for on a daily basis. Also, when planning in detail, the teacher is more likely to be sensitive to the need to build in a variety of activities and techniques for every class session. This will provide a change of pace in daily instruction and will offset the frequency of errors or discipline problems due to boredom. Moreover, students will be able to perceive a sense of purpose and direction during each activity and throughout the class hour. Teachers who have carefully clarified for themselves what and how they are going to teach will be able to direct activities more clearly and confidently. Obviously then, student teachers, who often lack confidence, will need the support and security of a well-thought out lesson plan.

Student teachers should also realize that they are building for their future in making lesson plans. They will undoubtedly refer back to a given plan for ideas, activities, and techniques to use in future classes. In addition, most administrators expect their teachers to hand in lesson plans on a weekly basis. Thus, for many reasons, it is to the beginning teacher's advantage to spend a great deal of time on lesson planning. Student teachers can begin to develop their skills in lesson planning by examining and evaluating sample plans for teachers in general (Byers and Irish; Wiggins), and for foreign language teachers in particular (Allen and Valette; Grittner 1977; Huebener).

Format of a Lesson Plan

The format of a lesson plan depends on many variables. For example, the school district may have a policy of requiring teachers to state their plans in the form of performance objectives. If so, the student teacher should examine the books by Mager (for a general view of how to write performance objectives), and by Steiner or Valette and Disick (for specific references to behavioral objectives in foreign language teaching).

Performance objectives usually state the goal and outcome of an activity in terms of overt, measurable learning change or behavior. A performance, or instructional, objective may have several parts, all of which are to be stated as specifically as possible. Papalia suggests that the teacher who is writing instructional objectives should identify "(1) what the learner will be doing; (2) what the learner will work with; (3) what restrictions or limits are set, and the skill involved; (4) the acceptable criteria for minimum passing; and (5) the time factor, if time is to be a criterion" (p. 69).

Even if the school system does not require that the performance objectives be written out, the student teacher might find it useful to employ the elements of these objectives to analyze a lesson plan. Such a process may help evaluate the clarity and procedure of each activity.

Another point to consider regarding the format of the plan is how easy it is to use in class. The student teacher may choose to write out a lesson plan in extended detail at home but then bring a condensed version of it to class. While it is valuable practice to write out every step in each activity before class, trying to teach from such a plan may cause the student teacher to become lost in the morass of details and lose contact with the students. An alternative approach is to write an outline of the entire plan on one piece of paper and then prepare a separate notecard for each activity. The overall outline can indicate the sequence of activities, time allotments assigned to each segment, audiovisual aid(s) to be used, the homework assignment, and any items to be written on the board. This outline provides the means for a quick review of the lesson right before class and an easy reference during the session. On the notecards, the teacher can specify directions (in the second language), material to be learned (e.g., the dialogue sentences), and cues (e.g., questions to ask, vocabulary to vary the pattern practice). Some student teachers find it efficient to write each of these points in different colors for easy reference.

The format of the lesson plan may be changed to focus on the teacher's problem areas. The outline shown in Table 6 was developed in response to common areas of concern for beginning teachers. Very often the student teacher will plan a lesson that is interesting and varied--for himself or herself. That is, the teacher may be cueing activities differently and be using a variety of visual aids and be moving around the room; but, if we examine the students' behavior, we may find that in every activity all they did was to repeat chorally. Thus, listing the teacher's cues and students' behavior side by side may remind the student teacher to vary the learning procedures. For example, one might examine what skills the students used in each activity (hoping to find listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in fairly equal amounts). Or one might analyze the types of responses students were giving (choral or group or individual; repetition or transformation; rote level or communicative).

The outline covers another problem area for beginning teachers: checks on learning. Very often student teachers introduce and drill an activity well but do nothing at the end to find out if the students did, in fact, meet the learning goal for that activity. A sample list of learning checks is suggested in Table 7.

Content of a Lesson Plan

The specific content of a lesson plan depends, of course, on the material in the textbook, on the learning needs of the students, and on their level of language study. However, the following general suggestions are useful as planning guidelines:

1. One may start the hour with a "warmup," that is, four or five minutes of practice on very familiar material. This could include rote repetition (e.g., days, months, proverbs, or a poem), review (e.g., dialogue practice), pronunciation practice (e.g., production of minimal pairs of isolated sounds), or listening comprehension (e.g., following commands).

2. Plan a mixture of new material and review segments. One should always include some new learning for students, even if it is just a "password" or rejoinder. Students need to feel that they have made progress in every class hour.

On the other hand, it would be wise to examine the plan to make sure that presentation of new material does not exceed ten to fifteen minutes, as mentioned previously. As recommended by Stevick (Ch. 2), pauses in learning should be included to break up the tension and fatigue accompanying acquisition of new structures. After presenting two or three dialogue sentences, the student teacher can plan a small-group activity where students drill those same sentences or can introduce a pattern practice based on one of the sentences.

3. Plan a mixture of active and passive segments. Active segments include those in which students study new material as well as activities in which they produce the language in oral or

TABLE 6

Sample Outline for a Lesson Plan

Activity & Length	Goals of activity (State in expected student behavior/progress)	Checks (Did learning occur?)	Teacher's cues (List them. Varied? Faded?)	Students' behavior (What were they doing during each activity?)

TABLE 7

Examples of Learning Checks

A. On a Dialogue

1. Individual repetition (to show progress in accuracy, fluency, intonation)
2. Question-answer work (rote learning, factual information, personalized)
3. Reciting sentences in response to visual cues (e.g., cue cards)
4. Making up original dialogues

B. Pattern Practices and Grammar

1. Answering a final general question with one of the variations
2. Answering questions in rule eliciting
3. Applying rule to new sentences

C. Reading Passages

1. Answering factual questions on the passage
2. Making up a résumé, first with teacher cues and then on own
3. Creating visuals for the passage
4. Checking vocabulary (synonym/antonym, definitions, word family work)

D. Culture

1. Showing recognition (answering yes/no questions, either/or)
2. Answering questions (one-word answers; factual information)
3. Acting out the cultural situation

written form. After such activities, the teacher usually plans a change in pace, moving either to review materials or to work in listening or reading that requires less language production. The pupils are still learning and are still working in the second language, but the tension of studying new material or of actively producing the language is broken. A corollary to this point is to plan a lesson that includes all skills (i.e., use of listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Students learn through different senses (Lepke; Nunney; Reinert), so it is important to include activities to appeal to and make use of the various skills. Learning styles are accommodated in this way, and review is easily carried out by restudying the material through another skill area.

4. Assign homework that builds on learning done in class. Homework may be looked on as the bridge between classes. Students should have time to review and master items presented in class, whether to acquire increased accuracy and fluency in them, memorize them, or extend them into communicative expression (e.g., original dialogues, personalized compositions, question-answer work on a reading passage). A general rule to follow is that students are not assigned to work on anything unless it has been thoroughly drilled (for understanding and production) in class. The teacher may even choose to begin the homework assignment with students to make sure that they understand how to complete it.

Student teachers often have difficulty in making homework assignments. Sometimes they do not reach the prerequisite activity in the lesson for doing the homework. Other times they plan too lengthy or too short an assignment. From time to time, they even forget to make the assignment. To avoid these problems, the student teacher can (1) plan homework based on an activity done early in the lesson plan; (2) ask the cooperating teacher's guidance and opinion on the length or difficulty of an assignment (and check on it the next day with the students); (3) write the homework assignment on the board (making it the students' responsibility to copy it each day) and include a time, midway through the lesson plan, for an announcement of the next day's assignment.

Using Audiovisual Aids

The term "audiovisual aids" covers a wide variety of items. For many teachers, it refers to machinery. In the case of the foreign language teacher, the tape recorder, language laboratory, slide projector, filmstrip machine, and opaque, overhead, and film projector are probably the most commonly used pieces of equipment. Since space does not permit a detailed description of ways to use all these machines, the student teacher is directed to books and chapters that deal specifically and at length with those items employed in the teaching of a second language (Allen and Valette; Edgerton; Grittner 1977; Huebener 1960; Lado 1964; Mollica; Stack).

In addition to including machinery, the idea of "audiovisual aids" usually encompasses any aural or visual materials brought in by the teacher to enhance learning. As such, the following items may be considered useful aids for the foreign language teacher: (1) objects (e.g., currency from the target culture, a loaf of bread typical of that culture, a football or other examples of sports equipment); (2) pictures (e.g., advertisements and pictures from newspapers or magazines, photographs, slides); (3) drawings (e.g., the simple drawings found in children's coloring books, freehand drawings of a situation or sentence from the dialogue); (4) diagrams (e.g., time lines to show the sequence of grammatical tenses, different sized musical notes on a scale to show stress and intonation patterns--see Lado 1964, Ch. 8); (5) cue cards for dialogues or pattern practices (e.g., stick figures indicating the persons involved, drawings to represent a word or concept, such as a heart shape for "to love"--see Allen and Valette, p. 124); (6) flash cards (e.g., numbers for drill in counting or doing mathematical problems or for practice in telling time).

Probably the most effective type of audiovisual aid is also the most accessible one: the people and objects in the classroom. The teacher and students may be used in many ways to add meaning and interest to the learning. They can act out the meaning of sentences and vocabulary, using pantomime, facial gestures, physical movements, and emotional quality in their voices. Their clothing, possessions, appearance, and hobbies or special interests can all be specifically referred to in drills to reinforce the meaning of separate vocabulary items or of whole sentences.

The advantages of using audiovisual aids far outweigh the time and effort involved in preparing or obtaining them. For one thing, they add more meaning to the sentences and structures being drilled. Continuous use of visuals during repetition practice would counteract the possibility of students' repeating utterances to the point of fluency and accuracy without recalling or reinforcing the meaning of what they are saying (an occurrence far too common in foreign language learning). Moreover, research indicates that as more meaning reinforcement is added during the learning process, students' retention and recall of utterances increase (Jarvis and Hatfield; Oller and Obrecht; Stevick, Chs. 1-3).

Stevick also points out that each student needs different types of learning mediators (pp. 19-25) and associations for setting and retaining meaning. Some students are verbally oriented and so need to hear a word (along with a definition or synonym) and to say it in the second language in order to understand and remember that word. Other students have psychomotor needs in learning: they must act out the word or utterance in order to retain its meaning and production. Yet others have to see and touch items to recall the verbalization. Using a variety of audiovisual aids will respond to these different learning styles and needs. (See the articles by Hosenfeld and by Birckbichler and Omaggio for additional items on students' learning styles and strategies for meeting their individual needs.)

These aids cut down on the need for English in the classroom. Students can make a direct association between the target language and the item being taught, reducing the need for or tendency toward translation. The next time the students see the visual, they will recall the word directly in the second language; and the next time they say that word, they will visualize it. This association is even more likely when students act out sentences, for instance, "I have a headache" (touching their head) or "I get up" (performing the action). Language and physical action become intimately linked, and each then triggers recall of the other (Gouin). In many cases, the cultural referent is also being shown, thus reducing the interference of cultural visualization (for instance, envisioning American sliced and packaged bread for le pain or American money for el dinero).

In addition to reinforcing meaning and satisfying various learning styles, these aids can be used for quick cues in practice sessions. The teacher simply shows the item in order to direct changes in a pattern practice (e.g., objects or pictures to cue changes in "I like to eat . . . bread, meat, peas, potatoes," etc.) or to elicit sentences from the dialogue or reading passage (e.g., a cue card o picture that served originally to set the meaning of the utterance is now shown to check students' recall of the sentence). Such cues reduce the amount of teacher talk in class, speed up the pace and tempo of the drill, and do, in fact, check that students remember the actual meaning of the sentence or pattern variation and are not simply repeating an utterance mechanically. For the student teacher, these aids are helpful, too, because they force all students to pay attention; students must be looking at the items in order to respond. One can keep better control of a class and direct it more clearly and quickly by using visual aids.

Audiovisual aids provide variety and, therefore, generate interest and enthusiasm during practice sessions and drills which, while necessary, are potentially boring. For example, hearing native speakers deliver the dialogue gives students the opportunity and challenge of trying to understand different voices and accents, adding to their flexibility in listening skills. It also encourages them to continue practicing the dialogue to meet the model set on the tape. Another example: going over homework is more interesting if the overhead is used. A transparency with blanks could be prepared ahead of time and individual students could write in their own responses to prepare an answer sheet for the homework assignment. Also, pattern practices can be entertaining if actual objects or humorous drawings are used as cues and if personalized, realistic examples are used in the variations.

Finally, some mention should be made of the usefulness of visuals for stimulating students' creativity, free conversation, and self-expression. Pictures, drawings, or slides are possible stimuli for oral (or written) descriptions or narratives by students. Either individually or in small groups, pupils could prepare a presentation of several sentences to summarize their reaction to a visual, write a story about it, or simply describe everything they see in it. Similarly, cartoons could be employed to elicit possible captions or descriptions of characters or a story leading up to the situation in the cartoon. A film could be shown, with the sound track turned off, to elicit sentences of description or narration from the entire class. (For further ideas along these lines, see Edgerton.) Or the students could prepare the visuals on their own to represent one of the dialogue lines or sentences from the reading passage and ask the others to guess what sentence it represented.

While audiovisual aids have many advantages, student teachers must take some precautions in using them. First, the aids must have some definite goal and should meet students' needs. Pupils must realize, for example, that they are listening to a tape or seeing a film so that their learning is enhanced and promoted. Therefore, the teacher would be wise to state the outcome of the activity. For example, comprehension questions based on the tape, filmstrip, or film could be assigned prior to the activity and worked on afterwards as a check on students' achievement. In that way, students will be motivated to pay close attention during the activity.

Obvious though it may seem, one must remind the student teacher to practice using the aid and to have it all set up and ready for use prior to teaching. Much class time can be wasted focusing the overhead projector or finding a screen for the filmstrip or rewinding tapes for the language laboratory. The student teacher and the students will feel more secure if audiovisual aids are ready for immediate use and do not interrupt the tempo and progress of the teaching.

Similarly, audiovisual aids are a possible hindrance to the teacher's movement in class. Holding up pictures or cue cards may be awkward when one is also trying to direct students' responses. Instead, the teacher could place the visuals in the chalk tray, put them on a flannel board, or hand them out to students as the drill progresses and ask students to hold them up. Also, the teacher should to place the aids in different parts of the classroom to avoid having to stand in one section of the room and close to the same student for the entire class period.

Supplementing the Textbook

It is not without caution that the topic of supplementing the textbook is introduced. Recently, leaders in the field of second language education have pointed out that many of our textbooks contain far more material than teachers can cover in a given year (Grittner 1979; Powell; Morrow and Strasheim; Warriner). As a result, teachers often experience frustration at having to present a great deal of information without really teaching it well. Many feel that they are teaching for quantity--not quality--of learning by rushing through all the material in the book.

Nevertheless, textbooks do need supplementing to meet the expressed interests and goals of both students and teachers in second language learning. The two areas most often mentioned in this regard include being able to communicate in the language and understanding the culture. More and more textbooks are including sections that cover these two areas. Therefore, the student teacher needs to understand the purpose of such sections and ways to implement them into daily teaching. She or he will also probably want to add information and original activities to expand on the text's offerings. Thus, it seems appropriate to examine techniques, activities, and sources for encouraging communication in the classroom and for teaching culture.

Encouraging Communication in the Classroom

The recent communicative competence movement attempts to stress the importance and value of learning to converse in the second language. Proponents of this movement make the obvious, but often unobserved, point that students will learn to communicate only if they engage in communicative activities (Paulston and Bruder; Rivers 1972; Savignon). That is, as a step beyond memorization of dialogues and pattern practices, students need to have daily activities that encourage them to engage in realistic conversation and communication.

According to the above authors' definition of communication, the interchange must include new information. We actually learn something from the students' conversation. Thus, if we ask, "What is this?" and cue the answer with an object, that is not defined as communication, because the answer is already known and is teacher-directed. On the other hand, an open-ended question such as "What are you going to do this weekend?"--when we really do not know--will lead to communication because an exchange of previously unknown information or ideas occurs.

Two other points are also included in this definition of communication: students must initiate as well as respond in the communication and the topics for communication must be realistic and meaningful to students.

Communicative activities grow out of materials that students have been studying and practicing. Planning such activities does not mean that the teacher abandons vocabulary, structures, or topics from the text. On the contrary, communicative activities are based upon items from the text previously drilled and learned in class, but now students are using those materials to express and exchange ideas, information, and opinions. One may look on communicative activities as the final learning stage, a last review. The format of the review changes from the textbook's prescribed activity or from the usual classroom routine. Rather than repeating sentences or doing drill exercises again, students now use the structures, vocabulary, and questions-answers to converse with each other.

Communicative activities that could easily be set up in language classes include the following:

1. Interviews. Students obtain information from each other and then share it with the class. Such an activity is not new, but in its usual format involves the teacher and one student, with the rest of the class listening to the answers. Instead, the teacher can plan student-to-student, small-group work. As an example, consider the topics "family" and "house," both first year level in vocabulary. The teacher can first have the class repeat sample questions such as "What is your mother's name?" "How many brothers or sisters do you have?" "Which room do you study in?" or "What is your favorite room?" These questions can be listed on the board or on a sheet of paper to guide

the interviews. After practicing the questions (i.e., learning to initiate), students break into groups of two's to ask each other the questions and obtain information (taking notes or writing out whole sentences). Afterwards, the information can be shared by having individuals report on answers or by eliciting group responses (e.g., by asking, "Who has one or more brothers?" In this format, students are responsible for both obtaining and for giving information--in other words, engaging in communication. Almost all question-answer activities could be organized in interview form, with students conversing in small groups. (See Disick, and Baker for additional ideas on small-group activities.)

2. Problem solving. This activity also stresses the importance of exchanging information and ideas. It can be carried out in groups of two or three, or it can begin with a large-group discussion, with each member contributing an idea.

One simple problem: "You have $10 to spend this weekend. How are you going to spend it?" Involved here is the use of the present tense of different verbs (or the "I'm going to" future form), numbers, and concrete objects--all items usually covered even in first year. In groups of two, students would then discuss and decide how to work out the problem. They need not communicate in whole sentences. Such phrases as "$4 for a record . . . No, $3 for a movie . . . I want $2 for roller skating" are similar to what they would really say in such a situation in their native language. What is important is that the students are <u>using</u> the language as a means to discuss and solve a problem.

Other possible problem-solving topics include planning a local visit for a French friend, deciding what items to take to camp with a 40-pound limit, or discussing how to spend an afternoon when school has been canceled. These activities all have limits and parameters (money, weight, time) within which students must work out the problem. Possible solutions could then be shared with the entire class.

3. Talking your way out of a situation. This is similar to problem solving but is more conversational. Again, this could be worked on with the whole group first, with each individual adding one or two ideas. Then the small groups could develop this in greater detail, in oral or written form. Possible situations: "You arrive home at 2 a.m. when you were supposed to be home at midnight. Explain why you are late." (This would be useful as a follow-up to the study of past tenses.) Another situation: "You want an increase in your allowance. Explain and justify--first to a friend, then to your parents." A further situation: "You received an F on your report card. Explain why to your parents."

4. Role playing. This activity can be combined with problem solving. Role playing is especially useful in getting students to see someone else's point of view and to articulate it. This approach can also be humorous, of course, allowing students to make an exaggerated stereotype out of the role or to turn it about completely from the usual, expected behavior. Thus, a role-playing situation could be a discussion of a bad grade between two students, a parent and a student, or a teacher and a student. In fact, such contrastive role playing could be used in sequence to show students how the topic could be discussed in different ways, depending on the participants. Another possibility could involve asking for permission to use the car and explaining why you want it.

Some educators also advocate activities that involve students emotionally and affectively. This involvement ranges from personal answers in pattern drills or question-answer work (Jarvis et al.), to asking for students' responses to imaginary or fantasy-filled situations (Christensen), to working on values clarification and decision making (Wattenmaker and Wilson). The student teacher will find a wealth of materials and ideas in these works to stimulate communicative activities and interchanges.

It should be pointed out that all these communicative activities have generally focused on real problems and information in a student's life. It is doubtful whether communicative activities can work well if they are not based on the experiential background of students. Moreover, these activities <u>must</u> be based on the vocabulary and structures worked on in the text. If students have not had numbers and verbs, they cannot decide how to spend $10. On the other hand, think of the motivation involved--and how much longer lasting the learning--if students use numbers and verbs to discuss a problem with each other and to justify how they would spend that money. Communicative activities allow students to use memorized vocabulary and memorized structures for realistic, personalized, meaningful exchanges. Students are using the language for a purpose, not memorizing the language as the only or final goal in their learning. Students' motivation in memorizing basic structures and vocabulary will increase when they know that later on they will engage in conversation, actively using the language to communicate their own ideas and wishes to each other.

Teaching Culture in the Classroom

Culture may be defined as the aesthetic achievement of a country (its works of art, music, and literature as well as its monuments, churches, castles, and museums); it is also the patterns of daily behavior and beliefs of a nation. Students usually express a great deal of interest in cultural activities, particularly those dealing with aspects of the latter type.

The student teacher may decide to include culture study for a number of reasons. The dialogue or reading passage in the text may contain a sentence, vocabulary, or usage that will be more clearly understood with some cultural information. For example, the characters in the dialogue may be using the familiar "you" form with some people and the formal "you" with others; an analysis and discussion of this change in usage will help students realize when each form is appropriate and will enable them to make parallel changes in their own speech. Or the reading passage may refer to some historical figure or event, or to a famous painting, such as "La Joconde" (the Mona Lisa). The student teacher may then choose to present a brief lecture or show pictures or slides to give the students a more in-depth learning experience.

Students sometimes ask questions that lead into the presentation of culture. For example, they are usually curious about the educational system of the country or the typical daily routine of young people their age. (For information on these topics, see the books by Bourque, and Bourque et al. on French and Spanish teenagers.) Responding to their questions with a follow-up culture study meets immediate learning needs and undoubtedly motivates students to raise more questions. The student teacher can also hand out an interest inventory with a list of possible cultural topics that students are asked to rank.

At times, the students make statements about the people or culture in the second language that show misunderstandings or stereotypes. Negative comments may be made, for example, about the French people's excessive drinking of wine or the Spaniards' extreme cruelty in bullfights. In response, the student teacher might bring in information that would clear up misunderstandings and counteract the stereotype. Lado (1957, Ch. 6) suggests that a cultural act be analyzed from three points of view: the form (physical manifestation of the act), the distribution (patterns of time, space, and frequency--where, when, how often the act occurs), and the meaning (what the act represents to native speakers, on the intellectual level--their understanding and interpretation of it--and on the affective level--their approval/disapproval or esteem of it). Presenting information from these different points of view is often effective in offsetting stereotypes or negative judgments. It also encourages the process of looking objectively at another culture.

A variety of possible techniques can be examined for presenting cultural information. Since Seelye discusses cultural goals and techniques at length, this discussion will be limited to only a few of the most commonly used approaches. One effective technique is the "culture capsule," a short (5- to 10-minute) presentation that focuses on one minimal difference between the target culture and the native culture of the students (Taylor and Sorenson, p. 350). When written up, they usually are self-contained, including a statement of goals, information relating to the essential difference between the cultures, audio-visual aids to use in demonstrating the difference, and follow-up or quest activities to reinforce the information. The ACTFL Materials Center contains many useful culture capsules, as does Seelye's book. Two books of culture capsules are available that contrast French/American cultures and Mexican/American (Miller and Loiseau, Miller and Bishop).

Because culture capsules are brief, they are more likely to be included in daily teaching. Many teachers restrict culture study to very limited times, such as the day before vacation or after a test. However, most teachers would be willing to spend at least five to ten minutes a day on this topic. In addition, these presentations set short-range goals for students. Each time a capsule is taught, students leave the class having learned one definite point of cultural information. The capsules provide a rewarding learning event that students look forward to.

Several capsules focusing on different aspects of a given cultural situation may be presented daily over a week's span to form a "culture cluster" (Meade and Morain). The cluster leads to a summarizing activity in the form of a dramatic simulation of the cultural act. This activity provides tangible proof of students' having achieved a definite learning goal.

There are some possible pitfalls in preparing culture capsules. For one thing, students may not realize how and why a cultural act is carried out in their own culture. This is to be expected, since, after all, one stated goal of foreign language study is that students will learn more about their own language and culture. Therefore, prior to presenting the capsule, the teacher can ask students to observe a given situation in their own culture and to take notes on it, as if explaining it to someone from a different culture (e.g., American table manners).

Another danger in using culture capsules or, in fact, in any type of cultural presentation is

the possibility of students being passive, unresponsive, or even bored if a straight lecture is given. To avoid this possibility, the teacher can assign questions that are to be answered following the presentation. Or the teacher can ask individual students or groups to study the culture capsule on their own and to present it to the entire class (students are usually responsive to peer teaching). The students may share factual information with the group or, better yet, act out the cultural situation (e.g., eating breakfast) while the others take notes on how the behavior or situation is different.

The teacher may use another non-lecture technique, the Gouin series. In a Gouin series, the teacher acts out the logical sequence of steps in a given cultural situation while saying sentences that describe each of those steps. A sample Gouin series might be called "How to Buy Bread in France" and would include the following sentences (all said in French and all acted out with props and visuals):

> I enter the bakery. I say, "Bonjour, messieurs/dames." I ask for a baguette. I pay for the baguette. I pick it up (unwrapped) and put it under my arm. I say, "Au revoir, messieurs/dames." I leave the bakery. (Knop 1976)

After watching the teacher say and act out the sentences, the students could answer a few questions or contribute statements to show that they perceived the differences in behavior. After that, the students themselves might act out the series, using the props and performing the appropriate actions, and might even practice the sentences, combining linguistic and cultural learning in one activity.

Another approach to teaching culture is the use of polls. Grittner (1977, pp. 270-72) suggests a cross-cultural comparison, whereby the teacher presents questions (previously answered by natives of the second culture) to American students and asks the Americans to give their own answers. One such poll dealt with the value of money in French culture and another with the role of women in Mexican society. (These polls are regularly available in magazines from the target country.) The teacher could then show the types of answers given by natives of the students' age and the pupils' own responses. Questions, answers, and figures would all be presented in the second language. A follow-up discussion could begin with students' stating the differences in the answers, then explaining their reasons for answering as they did, and, finally, trying to analyze why some answers were similar between the cultures and others were different. As in the Gouin series, students are using culture as a basis for increasing their linguistic proficiency and, at the same time, they are using the language to study and analyze culture.

Another approach to teaching culture that combines linguistic and cultural learning is the "minidrama" (Levno; Snyder). Students study a dialogue in which there is a point of conflict between an American and a native (or natives) of the second culture. Pupils may either practice the dialogue out loud or read it to themselves. At the end of the dialogue, four alternative interpretations or analyses are suggested to explain the behavior of the native or the lack of understanding of the American. After choosing what they consider the correct answer, students are directed to look up a "feedback" explanation that tells them whether their choice was correct or not and provides them with further information. Students are often told to reread the incident or to restudy a lesson in their text where information or explanations about that situation are covered or to consult another source. When it is not taught through the use of dialogues but, instead, through a reading passage, this approach is usually called a "culture assimilator" (Fiedler et al.).

The minidrama or culture assimilator is a very effective technique to check on previous presentations. The student teacher can also ask the students to make up their own minidrama to exemplify a cultural contrast that they have studied. Groups of students can present their own skit or dialogue and the others can either choose among four prepared answers to solve the problem or verbalize their own interpretation of, or solution to, the misunderstanding. (All these activities are conducted, of course, in the second language.) The student teacher would be wise to analyze cultural presentations to make sure that students are kept actively involved, either through introducing the material itself, through answering comprehension questions, or through discussing and applying the information in follow-up activities.

The student teacher can make an important contribution to the foreign language program by bringing in cultural activities and information. Often, the cooperating teacher has not had the advantage of travel and study abroad that the student teacher has had, or it has not been in the same geographical areas or social contexts the student teacher has experienced. Sharing realia, anecdotes, and insights with students and the cooperating teacher will enrich learning for all concerned. Moreover, in view of their rigorous daily teaching schedules, cooperating teachers simply do not have time to prepare cultural presentations. The student teacher might offer to present a cultural activity to the cooperating teacher's other classes as well as to those in

which he or she is teaching. Finally, some cooperating teachers have not had much training in teaching culture and so are not familiar with a variety of ways of presenting it: usually they fall back on lectures. It is even possible that the cooperating teacher may learn some new teaching strategies from the student teacher. In this way, the student teacher will become a full-fledged partner in the dyad and in the process of learning how to be an effective teacher.

The purpose of this section on supplementing the textbook has been to point out ways that student teachers can and must respond to the learning needs and interests of students. Lesson planning is a crucial step in determining the instructional objectives for a given day and for a given group of students. Teachers must examine what the text has to offer to meet those goals and then decide on a sequence of activities to accomplish the learning. They may find it useful to examine the lesson plan to see if it meets the general principles suggested for organizing an effective plan.

In addition, student teachers must perceive where the text is lacking and then decide how to make up for its deficiencies. They will undoubtedly have to prepare or obtain several audiovisual aids to provide variety in the practice, stimuli for different learning styles, and several reinforcements of meaning. Furthermore, they will probably need to plan communicative activities to encourage students to go beyond rote-level practice and to engage in self-expression and exchange of ideas. Finally, they may consider including a daily cultural presentation, in the form of culture capsules, Gouin series, or minidramas. Such presentations meet students' interests in the second culture and provide a tangible, definite accomplishment in learning for all students every day.

The textbook is also the starting point for second language instruction. Student teachers provide the crucial link between what the text includes and what the students learn. It is the teacher's planning and presenting of the text's materials--and supplements to it--that will determine students' learning progress and achievements.

APPENDIX I

Sample Letters of Expectation

Letter A -- Student Teacher's Section

1. I will teach 4 classes (two French II and two French III) at 8:20, 9:30, 1:30, and 2:30, plus homeroom at 9:20. I will be in the building from 8:00 a.m. till 4:00 p.m., M-F during the block period.

2. I will begin full teaching responsibilities by the second week, October 25. Up until then, I will observe and then gradually begin teaching more, perhaps one dialogue on Wednesday, two half-classes on Thursday, two full classes Friday of the first week.

3. The cooperating teacher and I will outline material to be covered; I will be responsible for individual lesson plans, using the materials students will learn from.

4. I will model tests after the cooperating teacher's tests, but make my own.

5. I will follow the "+, OK, -" homework policy, and return homework the day after turned in.

6. I will encourage my students to use only French, by setting the model myself.

7. I hope that the cooperating teacher observes me often, but fades out in the fourth week so that I am not aware she has left the class. I hope she observes intermittently after that.

8. After the cooperating teacher and I confer, I will prepare lesson plans by Friday for the following week.

9. I will try to attend at least one extra-curricular activity at Memorial High.

10. From the cooperating teacher I will hope for positive as well as negative constructive criticism, since everybody needs both. Likewise, I will feel open to criticism and will accept it as constructive, instructive, experience-based help.

11. I will try not to be frustrated about sharing others' materials. I will not feel obligated to make up all new exercises on my own.

12. On the weeks of no visit from the University supervisor, I will expect to tape and analyze one of my classes, report on it, and send in a report with the cooperating teacher's help.

13. I will expect to be able to go to the cooperating teacher for help on resources, discipline problems, and questions regarding methodology.

14. I will be open to suggestions and criticisms and will try to integrate those ideas into the next day's teaching.

Letter A -- Cooperating Teacher's Section

1. During the initial phase of the student teaching block, namely, the first week, I will teach my normal sequence of classes, with the student teacher sitting in and observing all activities. During this period, we will spend time together discussing the goals, methodology, success, or failure of the lesson plans, strong and weak points of the lesson, materials used, and student response to the lesson. Toward the end of week one, the student teacher will have done at least one activity in each class on Thursday, perhaps two activities on Friday. Monday of the second week at least one class will be assumed completely by the student teacher.

2. I will remain in all classes at all times initially, taking notes pertaining to methodology, use of the French language, discipline and control of the class, and preparation. These will be shared with the student teacher, discussed, and commented upon by both of us.

3. Lesson planning will be a joint venture throughout the student teaching block. My materials (e.g., overhead transparencies, pictures, files, slides, etc.) will be available for use by the student teacher if he or she so desires.

4. Initially, at least, I will help with the taking of attendance, parent contracts, and determining grades. These areas will also be discussed and acted upon by both of us, with the student teacher taking more responsibility in these areas as the student teaching block continues. By the third week of the block, the student teacher will be given full responsibility for attendance-taking procedures in his or her classes.

5. As the block continues, I will visit most, but not all, classes. These visits will be announced. The notes taken during all class visits will be shared and discussed by both myself and the student teacher. The notes will be given to the student teacher for reference.

6. One of the student teacher's classes will be videotaped; this videotape will be discussed in a post-observation conference by myself and the student teacher.

7. Toward the end of the student teaching block, I will ask the student teacher for his or her appraisal of each student's daily participation during the block and general comments about the student's achievement during this period.

8. Initially, I will assist the student teacher in the homeroom with attendance taking and handling of other pertinent business. By the third week, the student teacher will assume full responsibility for keeping homeroom advisee's records up to date with regard to attendance, cuts, and other pertinent data. We will share the responsibility of dealing with problems related to advisees.

9. I will be available for assistance at school between 8:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m. and evenings by phone at my home.

Source: Kay Cipperly, Madison Memorial High, Madison, Wisc.

Letter B

The following is a letter of expectation covering the roles and responsibilities of Mary Smith, student teacher, and Betty Jones, cooperating teacher, for the period beginning March 6, 1978 to May 5, 1978.

Regarding classroom teaching load:

1. Mary will assume responsibility for three 8th grade classes (1st, 3rd, and 8th hours) and serve as a teacher aide for the 7th grade class, fourth hour.

2. Betty will continue teaching the 7th grade classes (fourth and sixth hours).

3. Mary will be worked gradually into the teaching load so as to assume full responsibility by Thursday of the first week. The proposed schedule for accomplishing this is as follows:

   a. Monday: no teaching assignment; observe, grade homework, put up bulletin board, etc.
   b. Tuesday and Wednesday: 15-minute pattern practice and worksheet in 8th grade classes. 5-minute exposé.
   c. Thursday: all activities except warmup.
   d. Friday: 8th grade--all activities.
   e. Monday: Week 2--full load

Regarding school hours:

1. Mary is expected to be at school by 7:35 a.m.

2. After-school hours vary. However, before leaving school for the day, Mary should have all board work up for the next day, have all filing done, name cards and homework passed out for the first hour class, and all materials that have been prepared for the next day in readiness.

Regarding lesson plans:

1. On Wednesday evenings, Mary will work up lesson plans for Monday of the following week. On Fridays she will go over them with Betty. At this time she will give the rationale (goals) for each activity and state how each one will be conducted (techniques, sequence of presentation, materials to be used).

2. On the weekend, she will make up lesson plans for the rest of the week. On Mondays, they will be discussed in the manner described above.

3. On Friday of each week, Betty will offer suggestions for possible activities to be included in these lesson plans.

4. It will be Mary's responsibility to make two copies of her lesson plans, one to be given to Betty and the other to be submitted to the junior high principal.

5. It is further understood that while Mary might need and welcome suggestions for lesson planning, she is always free to initiate her own ideas. She must, however, be able to clearly state the goal of the activity and the specifics of how she proposes to conduct it.

6. Mary will finish Chapter 6 and begin Chapter 7 in 8th grade.

Regarding making up worksheets, quizzes, flashcards, tests, and visuals:

1. Standardized tests from the text are used, but Mary may feel free to add to them.

2. Mary may use worksheets, quizzes, and flashcards from Betty's files as examples, but she is expected to revise them to provide for more effective teaching, personalization, and the like.

Regarding homework correction and the recording of grades:

1. Mary will follow the same grading system as already in force.

2. Homework, quizzes, tests, and corrections will be graded and returned to students the next day.

3. Each paper will be marked with a letter grade and a comment when appropriate.

4. Grades are to be recorded in Betty's grade books. A letter grade is sufficient in all cases except that of exams, where both a numerical and letter grade are required.

5. Oral grade cards will be made out for each student on a weekly basis, according to the following schedule: First hour--Mondays; Third hour--Tuesdays; Eighth hour--Fridays. Comments may be penciled in on a daily basis to aid in computation of the final grade. Betty will keep oral grades for the first two weeks.

6. Mary will compute mid-quarter grades for all her students and submit them to Betty on the Sunday following the end of the student teaching experience and average grades for the first three weeks of the nine-week grading period.

7. Betty will compute third quarter grades for <u>all</u> seventh grade classes.

Regarding discipline and classroom atmosphere:

1. Mary will maintain a professional posture before the students.

2. Disruptive behavior in the classroom will not be tolerated. Mary will be responsible for handling all misbehavior that occurs in her classes. This includes supervising the students to whom a detention is assigned.

3. In addition, there is to be no
   a. gum chewing, candy eating, etc.
   b. English spoken without permission (use verbal admonishment)
   c. materials on the students desk, unless required for an activity.
   d. working on homework once class begins.

Regarding teacher responsibilities outside the classroom:

1. Mary is asked to attend all faculty meetings and French Club activities, as well as to sit in on all parent-teacher conferences involving her students.

2. Mary will tutor any of her students who require it, either due to absence or poor classroom performance.

3. She is responsible for handing out missing work to students who have been absent, scheduling make-ups for quizzes and tests, and informing all students on a regular basis of missing work and corrections, and to keep them after school if this behavior persists.

4. Mary is to fill out weekly progress reports for 8th grade students whose parents request them.

5. She is to put up a bulletin board during the first week and again during the sixth or seventh week.

Regarding planning time:

1. Mary and Betty should have one hour together each day for discussion and planning, preferably second or seventh hour.

2. It is important that each party have her own territory and be able to spend one hour a day on her own, if possible. Mary may use the office across from the classroom, a room across from the R.C., or the R.C. itself for this purpose.

   Betty will use the classroom.

3. Fifth hour will be used for the purpose described above in number 2.

Regarding pattern of supervision and nature of comments:

1. It is understood that Mary will be completely on her own for the final two weeks of the student teaching experience. Betty will not be in the classroom except as required to conduct the final observation and to keep abreast of activities in anticipation of assuming full responsibility for the classes when Mary leaves.

2. The schedule of supervision for the first five weeks is as follows:

   a. Betty will be in the classroom full time for the first two weeks and possibly part of the third week.

   b. In the fourth week, Betty will observe at least one prep daily, or more if Mary so requests.

   c. Betty will conduct videotaping during the fifth week and observe other classes at Mary's request.

3. The nature of the comments should be as follows:

   a. At the outset, Betty will concentrate on giving feedback on giving directions.

   b. Early in the experience, Betty will give criticism (both positive and negative); however, this feedback will be restricted to one or two salient items.

   c. Betty will accentuate the positive, while at the same time offering one or two suggestions for improvement.

d. Mary should be able to state at least one thing that went really well, as well as one thing she would like to improve upon, along with possible suggestions for doing so.

e. Betty will pose guide questions to aid Mary in analyzing her own teaching.

Regarding attendance:

1. Mary will phone Betty as soon as possible in the event of absence. Betty will do likewise.

Both the undersigned parties consent to the terms of this agreement. However, it is understood that it may be renegotiated at either party's request.

Mary Smith, Student Teacher

Betty Jones, Cooperating Teacher

Source: Karen Mathis, Sun Prairie Junior High, Sun Prairie, Wisc.

Appendix II

Typical Questions Asked of the Foreign Language Teacher in the Interview at the End of the Methods Course

A. Professional Qualifications

- Why will you make a good teacher?
- What is your philosophy for your subject area?
- What are the current methods/texts of preparation in foreign language?
- What are your strengths and weak areas in your field?
- How do you feel about team teaching, grades, report cards, nongraded classes, etc.?
- What type of curriculum are you prepared to offer your students?
- How would you allow for individual differences in your teaching?
- What is the purpose or place of your subject in the school curriculum?
- What should be included in the curriculum for your subject?
- How would you handle discipline, cheating, disruptive students, motivation?

B. Interpersonal Relationships and Adaptability

The candidate must function as a person as well as a teacher. Questions to explore this area of concern will include:

- What kind of a relationship would you like to have with students...with your fellow teachers?
- What would you do if...? (problem-solving or organizational abilities)
- What can you offer your community and school outside the classroom?
- How will you accept the extra duties that go along with the job?
- What are you interested in?
- What problems did you have in the internship, and how did you handle them?
- What do you expect of students in your class?

C. Personal Qualifications

Individual differences account for the range in ability levels, personal relationships, and teaching performance.

- What is your philosophy of education?
- What is your philosophy on discipline, grouping, grading, etc.?
- Why did you choose teaching?

•Did you have discipline problems?
•How do students react to your teaching methods?
•Why do you feel qualified for a teaching position?

Source: Anthony Papalia, Toward a competency-based teacher education program in foreign languages at SUNY Buffalo (Buffalo: State University of New York, n.d.)

APPENDIX III

Competencies to Develop within the School Community

Teacher-School-Community-Profession

The school, as a social institution in the community, consists of administrators, faculty, pupils, and other support personnel. As the preservice teacher enters the teacher-school-community-profession in the intensified field experience, he will demonstrate the following competencies related to the school community.

A. Competencies--working relationships

1. Since the teacher must communicate with the personnel in the school-community, the teacher shall be able to

   a. demonstrate common courtesies to all members of the community;

   b. communicate his ideas and feelings in language understandable to all members of the community;

   c. define and interpret the rationale for the inclusion of foreign languages in the curriculum and interpret this to students, administrator, and community.

2. Since the school-community consists of a variety of personnel, each with a specific function, the teacher shall be able to identify the function of the following personnel, if represented in the school-community:

   a. professional personnel--administrators, department chairperson, curriculum director, audiovisual director, librarian

   b. support personnel--clerical, custodial, paraprofessional

   c. pupil service personnel--guidance, school doctor, nurse-teacher, reading specialist, psychologist

3. Since a teacher must work in harmony with all personnel in the school-community, the teacher shall be able to

   a. support colleagues insofar as their actions are consistent with established policy;

   b. demonstrate that he can accept changes and constructive criticism and other persons' views and ideas.

4. Since professional activities are an integral part of the school-community, the teacher shall be able to

   a. identify the functions of and participate in school committees, extracurricular activities, and cocurricular activities.

B. Competencies--student records and communication with parents

1. Since teachers receive (privileged) information concerning students from such sources as other students, parents, pupil personnel service team, or the pupil himself, the teacher shall be able to

   a. decide whether or not this information should be transmitted;

   b. select the appropriate person(s) to whom this information should be transmitted;

   c. utilize this information to meet the pupil's needs.

2. Since the school-community is governed by specific rules and organizational procedures, the teacher shall be able to

   a. record the attendance of the pupils utilizing the district procedures;

   b. record data concerning the pupil's learning progress utilizing the district procedures;

   c. utilize the district or building handbook to identify and describe the procedures to be followed in each of the following: fire drill, emergency evacuation, accident, illness of pupil, extreme discipline problems, safety procedures, field trips, guest speakers;

   d. identify appropriate procedures to follow when a specific situation is not covered in the district handbook.

3. Since communication with the parents of students is an integral part of the teacher's role, the teacher shall be able to

   a. describe pupils' performance understandably to parents;

   b. make curriculum objectives clear to parents;

   c. describe the foreign language in such a way as to elicit parents' interest and concern;

   d. participate in parent-teacher conferences;

   e. utilize parents' interests and concerns in meeting pupils' needs.

4. Since a large number of resources are available in the community to meet pupils' interests and needs, the teacher shall be able to

   a. identify resources available in the community that apply to specific objectives in instructional units;

   b. utilize community resources when feasible in the instructional process.

5. Since the socioeconomic climate of a community affects the cultural background, entering behavior, and physical welfare of students, the teacher shall be able to

   a. identify and state the socioeconomic situation of his pupils.

C. Competencies--professional organizations and professional evaluation

1. Since professional organizations serve certain needs of teachers, the teacher shall be able to

   a. identify specific local, state, and national professional organizations;

   b. identify the function of each of these professional organizations;

   c. identify the professional committees that are functioning for the growth of or change in the profession;

d. attend meetings of professional organizations and committees when appropriate.

2. Since school districts now function under a teacher-district contract the teacher shall

   a. read the current school district contract;

   b. be able to identify and state teacher rights and obligations in the contract;

   c. attend, where possible, meetings that develop the contract.

3. Since professional evaluation is one major method a teacher can utilize to improve professionally, the teacher shall be able to

   a. seek analysis of his teaching by other professionals (i.e., sponsor teacher, other teachers, administrators, etc.);

   b. accept constructive criticism from other professionals and utilize their suggestions to improve his teaching performance;

   c. gather data concerning his teaching performance utilizing educational technology (i.e., audiotapes, videotapes, etc.);

   d. utilize instruments that analyze teaching performance (i.e., Flander's Interaction Analysis);

   e. utilize pupil evaluation in teaching (i.e., interview, questionnaire, etc.);

   f. display a sense of responsibility for professional growth that foreign language methodology is continually evolving.

Source: Anthony Papalia, Learner-centered language teaching (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1976), 173-75.

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