DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 208 679 FL 012 597

AUTHOR Buckingham, Thomas
TITLE Needs Assessment in ESL. Language in Education: Theory and Practice, No. 41.
INSTITUTION Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.; ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-87281-162-X
PUB DATE 81
CONTRACT 400-77-0049
NOTE 54p.
AVAILABLE FROM Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect St, NW, Washington, DC 20007 ($4.00).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Basic Education; Adult Education; *Community Action; *Educational Needs; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Industry; Language Proficiency; Language Usage; *Needs Assessment; Postsecondary Education; *Program Implementation; Public Schools; Sociocultural Patterns; Student Characteristics; Two Year Colleges; Universities

ABSTRACT

In recent years, many schools, churches, social groups, and corporations have found it desirable to implement programs designed to improve the English communicative abilities of their employees, students, or clients. This report attempts to provide these institutions with a general picture of the ESL situation today and to suggest ways in which they might sensibly assess and respond to the functional, sociocultural, and educational needs of their English speaking members. Two different types of communities of second language speakers are identified. One is the relatively stable, permanent community whose members need to function with near-native proficiency in English. The other is transitory and temporary and their language needs will vary depending on the domains in which they operate. For the former group, educational needs may take precedence while for the latter group sociocultural and functional requirements are preeminent. Topics reviewed include: (1) the needs assessment process including the identification of language-minority communities, determining community goals, and determining the extent of needs; and (2) characteristic assessment practices of some specific communities including public schools, colleges and universities, junior/community colleges, corporate programs, and adult basic education programs. (JK)

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

41

Needs Assessment in ESL

Thomas Buckingham

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.

Buckingham, Thomas.
Needs assessment in ESL.

(Language in education ; 41)
Bibliography: p.
1. English language--Study and teaching--Foreign students. 2. English language--Study and teaching--United States. 3. United States--Languages. I. Title. II. Series.
PE1128.A2B75 428'.007'1073 81-38534
ISBN 0-87281-162-X AACR2

October 1981

3520 Prospect Street NW
Washington DC 20007

Printed in the U.S.A.

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) is a nationwide network of information centers, each responsible for a given educational level or field of study. ERIC is supported by the National Institute of Education of the U.S. Department of Education. The basic objective of ERIC is to make current developments in educational research, instruction, and personnel preparation more readily accessible to educators and members of related professions.

ERIC/CLL. The ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (ERIC/CLL), one of the specialized clearinghouses in the ERIC system, is operated by the Center for Applied Linguistics. ERIC/CLL is specifically responsible for the collection and dissemination of information in the general area of research and application in languages, linguistics, and language teaching and learning.

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE. In addition to processing information, ERIC/CLL is also involved in information synthesis and analysis. The Clearinghouse commissions recognized authorities in languages and linguistics to write analyses of the current issues in their areas of specialty. The resultant documents, intended for use by educators and researchers, are published under the title Language in Education: Theory and Practice.* The series includes practical guides for classroom teachers, extensive state-of-the-art papers, and selected bibliographies.

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either TESOL or NIE. This publication is not printed at the expense of the Federal Government.

This publication may be purchased directly from the Center for Applied Linguistics. It also will be announced in the ERIC monthly abstract journal Resources in Education (RIE) and will be available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, Computer Microfilm International Corp., P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. See RIE for ordering information and ED number.

For further information on the ERIC system, ERIC/CLL, and Center/Clearinghouse publications, write to ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007.

From 1974 through 1977, all Clearinghouse publications appeared as the CAL/ERIC/CLL Series on Languages and Linguistics. Although more papers are being added to the original series, the majority of the ERIC/CLL information analysis products will be included in the Language in Education series.

PREFACE

There are today--more than at any time in our national history--large numbers of people for whom English is a second or additional language. These non-native speakers of English sit in classrooms, churches, and meetings; pay taxes; hold jobs; buy and sell products; and participate in the life of their communities. Too frequently, however, their participation is severely limited by their lack of skill in the use of the language of mainstream America.

Because of this increase in the number of speakers of English as a second language, many schools, churches, social groups, corporations, and other kinds of institutions have found it desirable to implement some kind of program designed to improve the communicative abilities of their employees, students, or clients. This publication is an attempt to provide these groups with a general picture of the ESL situation in the U.S. today and to suggest ways in which they might sensibly assess and respond to the needs of their English-speaking members.

INTRODUCTION

Language Needs

Language has been defined as the use of a shared verbal code by a significant number of people for the interchange of ideas. Human communication--at least on a very basic level--would not be impossible without a shared language; however, it would be inefficient and probably would be quite ineffective as well. It is almost inconceivable to think of participating in life without sharing a language with those around us. Twenty-eight million Americans, however, come from homes where a language other than English is spoken, and 2½ million of these American citizens today speak no English at all (Waggoner, 1978). These people are not participating fully in the affairs of the nation or the communities of which they are a significant part. Furthermore, the fact that they do not share the majority language means that many of their functional, sociocultural, and educational needs are served only inadequately or not at all.

Functional

Each of us constantly interacts with others in the conduct of our daily lives. We may, in the course of a single day, participate in hundreds of these interactions. We go to the store to buy food; we ask directions from the bus driver; we tell the bank clerk whether we wish to make a deposit or withdrawal; we inform the repair man what is wrong with the stove; we describe an illness to the doctor. Even when we are not face to face with others, we are entertained or informed by the television or the radio, we read labels, follow directions, and heed warnings. These are very common occurrences in our lives, yet they require the control of a broad range of linguistic skills and abilities. Nearly every interaction requires the ability to both understand and produce language. Even for a very simple interchange of information, rather complex language functions are necessary.

In addition, anyone who holds a job must have some degree of control of the basic language requirements of that occupation. Furthermore, training for a job requires control of basic English communication skills. It is true that some occupations do not require the extensive use of language. It is conceivable, for example, that a stock clerk or a punch-press operator might "get along" without much need to speak. Even in these limited contexts, aside from the fact that it is desirable to speak to fellow workers, it is often necessary to answer questions about one's self and one's work, understand directions,

ask for clarification of an assignment, read warnings and announcements, make explanations to other workers, and make appropriate requests and explanations in unusual situations.

Sociocultural

We have used the term "community" without bothering to define it with much precision. We now need to be somewhat more specific about the way in which we are using the word. The generally accepted concept of a community as a geopolitical entity is somewhat limited for our purposes. Individuals in a community share other, more important, characteristics besides a common geographical area. They have common interests and goals; they share some of the same sets of values, beliefs and attitudes; and, perhaps most important, they have "regular and frequent interaction" through a common language that, at least sometimes, makes them distinct from other communities (Gumperz, p. 381). By using Gumperz's definition of a "speech community," we can include in our definition such communities as schools, factories, gardening clubs, or the PTA. When we speak of a community, then, we mean any group of individuals who share social goals and who potentially share a common language.

We must add the word potentially here because not all the individuals who want to--or who ought to--share in the life of a community can actually do so, because they lack the shared communication system of the community. In addition, even if they have mastered the formal structure of the language of the community, they may not be familiar with the sociocultural rules of the use of the language, which is an equally important aspect of communication (not only how something is said, but why it is said and when it is appropriate to say it). A lack of understanding of these rules of language use can cause limited English speakers to be thought of as "odd, different, not one of us." Such attitudes encourage the systematic exclusion of some people from participation in the affairs of their communities.

Not only are individuals of such limited proficiency in English harmed by their inability to function fully within a community, but the community itself suffers through their non-participation in its affairs, especially where the minority language population is quite large. No community--or nation--can achieve the potential of excellence to which it aspires without the art, the thought, and the technological, scientific, commercial, and administrative talents of a significant part of its population.

Educational

Finally, we must consider the special language needs that arise in relation to educational systems. Schools, including

higher educational institutions, are seen today as the key to social equality in a pluralistic society such as ours. While all the ramifications of the interaction between language and education are not fully understood today, it is at least clear that without sufficient skill in using the language of the educational system, one cannot take full advantage of it.

What do we mean by "the language of the educational system"? It appears that we must consider the use of language for educational purposes on at least two levels: (1) the ordinary verbal code that American educational institutions use to carry on instruction, i.e., everyday English, and (2) that particular kind of English that is used for instructional purposes within the school setting as opposed to the kind of English used outside school.

It is obvious that learners must be able to understand English both in its spoken and printed forms and to be able to make themselves understood well enough to confirm their degree of learning to teachers and to be able to communicate their learning needs as well. Unless learners have enough control of English to understand the talk of teachers, ask and answer questions, read texts, write papers, and take examinations, they will not be able to progress satisfactorily through any educational system.

But this first level of language control is not sufficient for success in educational endeavor. The language of education is a rather special variety of English, not so much in its purely linguistic features as in its sociolinguistic rules of use. To be sure, the employment of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical systems of English is independent of the setting. Only rarely do words or sentences have special meanings within the educational context. The rules for language use, however, are often different from those which are used in non-educational contexts. There are, for example, special rules in instructional settings that dictate when questions are to be answered, when and on what topics the teacher may be questioned, who may talk to whom and when, forms of address, the use of written versus oral channels, and so on. For children who have not had the opportunity to learn this special language of school and its rules of use, the result is usually difficulty--if not failure--in school.

We have been speaking of language in the educational setting in a more or less formal sense; the same observations hold true, however, for informal kinds of education in a variety of settings. Adult education programs, or the informal kinds of learning that go on in corperations as professionals interact, reflect the same kinds of differences.

(For a fuller discussion of the nature of the special language of education, the reader is invited to examine Shirley B. Heath's Teacher Talk: Language in the Classroom, which is listed in the Additional Readings section of this publication.)

DETERMINING THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

To be sure, the linguistic and cultural diversity in the U.S. has immeasurably enriched the quality of life in this country. But such enrichment is not achieved without cost. We now wish to focus on the nature of the problems that have been generated by this diversity. It is only recently that educators have recognized and been willing to do something about the education of Americans who belong to linguistic and cultural minority groups. While public schools have had to bear most of the responsibility for meeting the language needs of this population, many other organizations are faced with the need to institute some kind of language-training program. Adult and continuing education programs, colleges and universities, junior and community colleges, businesses and corporations, hospitals, child and day care centers, public libraries, public service organizations, religious and social organizations, and concerned individuals from time to time perceive a need to provide ESL classes or programs.

An ESL Program: What Is It?

At this point in our discussion, we should specify exactly what is meant by an "English as a second language program." First, it should be clear that English as a second language is not "compensatory" or "remedial" in any significant sense (Dakin 1975). It is indeed unfortunate that the courts, governmental agencies, and even educators themselves use words like remedy and compensatory education. Two simple points need to be made. The first is that bilingual education and English as a second language are not opposing terms or concepts, although many educators view them as such, and many school administrators may consider ESL or bilingual education programs as alternatives. Bilingual education is an approach to education, just as the open classroom, competency-based instruction, individualization, group inquiry, or peer-mediated instruction are. ESL, on the other hand, is a course with a content, like elementary algebra, home economics, or world history (Buckingham 1976) and a viable subject in the curriculum of any school that has students with limited English proficiency. ESL may, and does, appropriately exist apart from a bilingual/bicultural education program; BBE, on the other hand, must, by definition, include instruction that is designed to improve an individual's use of a second language, usually English. Obviously, within a single school, both ESL and BBE may be necessary parts of the curriculum if such a view is taken.

The second point is that thinking of ESL as "remedial" is like thinking of French or Latin in the same terms. Teaching algebra is "remedial" in the sense that students, at the beginning of the course, know little or nothing about algebra.

Universities often make this mistake when they require international students to take English courses without credit on the grounds that ESL is a "remedial" subject. The development of language skills, regardless of the language, should not be considered compensatory.

A second misconception about the nature of English as a second language has to do with the relationship between teaching English to non-native speakers and teaching English to those who already speak it. To many elementary and secondary teachers who encounter the problem of a non-native speaker in the class for the first time, it seems quite natural to approach the teaching of "English" in the same way one already has taught it to native speakers. That is, the teacher might assume that the problem is related to pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, reading, or penmanship. Indeed, these may be accurate observations as far as they go, but they are the surface manifestations of a deeper problem. The native speaker who may exhibit some of these language-related problems nevertheless already has a fairly complete functional command of the English language. The non-native speaker, on the other hand, does not.

An example may help to illustrate this difference. It is almost never necessary to help make a native English-speaking child aware of when to use prepositions, articles, or words like could, should, will, or might. While the English-speaking child may not be able to state the rule for the usage of items like these (nor can most adults, for that matter), he or she does possess a nearly unfailing ability to use them correctly in sentences. The ESL speaker, on the other hand, does need to learn such "linguistic facts." The non-native child has grown up with another language system, one with a far different system of sounds, meanings, and grammar. The non-English-speaking child must, therefore, learn to use the new language system before attacking problems of reading or writing. One can hardly read, speak, understand, or write a language one does not know.

Too many times the non-English-speaking schoolchild, particularly where there are few such children, is turned over to the speech therapist, the remedial reading teacher, or, in the past, to the teacher of the slow learner. The unfortunate result can be that normal children are treated as though they had some physical or mental incapacity. A child learning English as a second language needs a trained and experienced teacher to help with the special problems associated with this learning situation.

While the terminal objective of the teacher of English to native speakers and non-native speakers is the same--that is, "acceptable" use of the standard forms of spoken and written English--the specific problems and the means by which they are resolved are quite different. In most cases, the methodology appropriate for first language teaching has little relevance to second language teaching.

An additional difference between teaching English as a first and as a second language is that the latter is generally concerned with language in culture. There is strong evidence, both in research and in the experience of teachers, that language cannot be taught as units of isolated linguistic forms. Current language-teaching theory rejects the position that language can be taught as though it were a string of phonemes fastened together by syntactic rules, or words with various meanings, which can be slipped at will into appropriate slots to form one or another of a few dozen patterns.

Language is not learned (or taught) in isolation from the specific situations in which it is used, but must involve an understanding of the cultural patterns of behavior it is intended to express and reflect. Students of a second language must become familiar with the rules of social use of language. Teaching such awareness involves such things as the nonverbal, physical correlates of speech; an understanding of the social rules of language use; an understanding of the use of specific cultural references from literature and history embedded into and assumed by the language; and an understanding of the function of the formalized institutions (church, law, education, family, and so on) that the language assumes (Buckingham, forthcoming).

(The teaching of language-as-culture has sometimes been misunderstood as a conscious attempt on the part of teachers to denigrate the culture and language of the learner or an unconscious assumption of the superiority of the second language and culture, Anglo-American English. Neither is necessarily true. In their desire to ensure that students made the optimum use of every opportunity to put into practice what was taught in the classroom, teachers in the past often forbade all use of the home language, even in situations where it would be perfectly natural and right for the child to use it. Fortunately, this is no longer an accepted practice for the majority of teachers.)

ESL programs are nearly always initiated and conducted to serve a particular purpose. Within the schools, the educational needs of the students are the primary goal, and their functional and sociocultural needs are often secondary. In institutions of higher education, English courses and intensive programs for foreign students are created to help the students function as quickly as possible in an academic setting. Such programs often emphasize English for special purposes: academic English, English for science and technology, or business English. In adult education programs, the primary emphasis is on functional/occupational needs; sociocultural/educational needs are of secondary importance. In industrial/business settings, programs are often initiated to upgrade the communication skills of employees in ways which will improve on-the-job performance.

Most programs, however--whatever their purpose is--assume

that the specific units of language--sounds, words, sentence patterns--must be taught during the initial phases of instruction. A general English language course is usually provided, and this is sometimes followed by specific training in language for particular areas of interest. Usually this specialized training concentrates on vocabulary and sentence structure characteristic of the specific field. Some skills are stressed more than others. A speaking/understanding competence may be all that one program wishes to undertake; for another program, early teaching of the written language is essential. Nevertheless, nearly every program attempts to pay some attention to all four of the traditional language skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing.

These factors should be taken into consideration when assessing the need for an ESL program in a particular situation and designing an appropriate program. Some kind of ESL program is nearly always possible. ESL programs range from full-time intensive or immersion programs with trained staff, a well-developed curriculum and admirable facilities, to once-a-week church basement classes taught by an untrained volunteer with only a sense of dedication and an imaginative use of household materials as a "text." Such factors as available time, facilities, personnel, and funds must, of course, be considered in coming to decisions about providing ESL instruction.

Preliminary Questions

Regardless of who initiates a particular program, certain questions will have to be answered if planning and implementation are to be effective. We shall consider these questions one by one; at the same time, we shall attempt to characterize the extent and diversity of the ESL population in the U.S. The most important fact to bear in mind is that no single kind of program can be regarded as effective in all situations where English language instruction may be desirable.

1. Is the need for English temporary or permanent?

To identify the extent of the language "problem," we shall first need to make a distinction between two kinds of populations. One population that needs English language instruction is composed of those who will remain permanently in an English language environment and who will need to interact in a largely English-speaking community. The other kind of population consists of those whose stay in an English-speaking environment is temporary. After some relatively brief period of time, temporary residents will return to their own countries and languages, and their use of English will be eliminated or at least severely restricted.

Permanent communities

Permanent communities include both native-born citizens of the U.S. who grew up in homes where a language other than English was spoken, and those who have taken out either citizenship or permanent residence in the U.S. This includes such groups as Japanese Americans, Chinese Americans, Mexican Americans, and large groups of refugees coming from Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, the Soviet Union, Cuba, and other areas of the world. As economic, social, and political conditions around the world change, various groups of people react to these changes by seeking more amenable conditions elsewhere. American history is filled with accounts of such immigration patterns of individuals and large groups of people. Waves of immigration have occurred at various times during the history of the U.S. At one time or another large groups of Chinese, Italians, Irish, Poles, Germans, and Jews, among others, have migrated to the United States to improve their chances for economic and/or social opportunity.

These groups of immigrants often came to the United States expecting to remain only long enough to achieve financial security or to outwait inauspicious conditions at home. This may have inhibited the learning of English for a time, but by the second generation, there was usually little doubt that these families were permanent residents in the new country. Whether they came expecting to stay or only acknowledged their permanent status later, most of the groups voluntarily adopted the new language and new cultural patterns; furthermore, they applied pressure, both on their children and on later waves of arriving immigrants, to do the same. Large groups of later immigrants, such as the Indochinese, seem to be following similar patterns.

The situation for native-born Americans from language minority groups, while they are also part of the permanent population, is somewhat different. As mentioned earlier, there are about 28 million native-born Americans today who grew up in homes where a language other than English was usually spoken. About 16 million are in U.S. public schools (Waggoner 1978). All Native Americans and many Mexican Americans come from families that resided, sometimes for generations before the arrival of the Europeans, in areas now belonging to the U.S. In addition, many Japanese, Chinese, Italians, Germans and others come from families who became citizens several generations ago. In all such cases, it should be noted, the minority language is still an influential factor in the language use patterns of the individuals (Spolsky, 1978, 65-66).

Not all those who need ESL instruction are part of such a permanent population. There are many people who reside in the U.S. for only a limited period of time, but who must have enough control of various aspects of English to function effec-

tively. The needs of this group are different from those of more permanent communities in that they may be restricted to a narrow range of situations and in the depth of skills to be used.

Foreign students in the United States make up one very large group of temporary residents. There are currently about a quarter of a million foreign students in U.S. institutions of higher learning (Julian et al., 1979). That number has increased steadily over the past few years, and it is likely to increase at even higher rates in the future. It is estimated that by 1990, foreign students will number over 1 million. With English so widely accepted throughout the world, particularly as the language of international commerce and technology, an education in a U.S. institution remains, for a large portion of the world today, a prized commodity. Other English-speaking countries, such as the U.K., Canada, and Australia, also have encountered increases in number and greater enrollment rates for foreign students.

International business, diplomacy, and industry provide additional numbers of temporary residents. In addition to those who live for a period of time in this country--along with their spouses and families--as representatives of foreign governments or as employees of non-U.S. industry and business, are the thousands who come and go on brief assignments. These individuals also must have some functional control of the English language. Most of them have been able to learn some of their required language skills in the home country, but many of them will have attended school in the U.S. for a period of time prior to joining their employers.

Migrant laborers make up a significant part of the population of schools in many areas of the country, and there are increasing numbers of adult ESL programs for these workers. Generally, there are two different types of migrant workers: the "provisional" laborer, who still works in the traditional industries such as agriculture, food processing, or fishing, but who ceases to move from place to place, electing instead to settle permanently in a community; and the "itinerant," who continues to follow the harvest seasons. All migrant laborers are poor, earning the lowest wages among all workers in the U.S. (Williams and Labriola, p. 13). About one-third of all migrant laborers are between the ages of 13 and 17. It can be seen that the migrant labor population comprises three distinct groups that may need ESL instruction: school-age children of itinerant laborers, school-age children among the provisional workers, and adult migrants. Obviously, each group has somewhat different language needs.

A Special Case: the Illegal Alien

Because of the indeterminate status of illegal aliens, little is known about them, and almost no generalizations can

be made. The stereotypical picture of illegal aliens as poverty-stricken, illiterate, unemployed fugitives does not fit all--perhaps not even the majority of--cases. They may well be students, homeowners, or employed and active contributors to their communities. They may or may not consider themselves permanent residents, and may or may not be actively seeking English language instruction.

Implications

It is important to recognize the different types of populations because, as we have already pointed out, there will be some important differences in the particular kinds of ESL instruction that will be appropriate in each situation.

One such difference is in the kind of language that will be needed by the ESL population. For the temporary resident, there will be functional needs, of course, but there will be much less need for extensive knowledge of English than for the permanent communities. For those who are here temporarily, there will not be the need for standards of correctness approaching the native-like control of the language required by those who are part of the larger community.

In the matter of sociocultural functions, the temporary resident will no doubt feel that an understanding of the rules of language interaction will be helpful; but such understanding does not imply that the temporary resident will want to adopt--even for the time being--such cultural performances. It is apparent that since individuals who are only temporary U.S. residents will be returning after a brief time to the home culture and language, the control of sociocultural rules of language use is of only minor importance. The more common and familiar items of such usage--greeting and leave taking, introductions, expressions of friendship and the like--will be important enough to control with some facility.

In addition to the fact that language and cultural patterns are only temporarily important to such individuals, it has been observed that the lack of complete control of the language has a kind of protective function. That is, the person who demonstrates perfect control of the language is expected to behave in all respects like a native speaker--demonstrate the same values, beliefs, attitudes and so on. However, the person who wishes to remain within his or her own culture may unconsciously display a "foreign accent" or speak ungrammatically but understandably, as a way of signalling others not to expect too much.

2. What kind of program will be required by the size of the ESL population?

One of the problems of determining the need for an ESL program within a community is that of locating the individuals of

limited English-speaking ability who may take part in the proposed instructional program. A look at the numbers of non-native English-speaking Americans and non-citizens currently resident in the U.S. suggests that there is indeed a need for increased numbers of ESL programs suitable for both temporary and permanent populations of ESL speakers.

As we have indicated, the number of foreign students currently in the U.S. is more than a quarter of a million, and American citizens and permanent residents of the country number about 28 million. There have been many guesses as to the number of undocumented aliens now in the U.S. One estimate is that only 1 in 10 such persons is ever identified, and that the total now within U.S. borders is probably between 4 and 12 million people. One border station in California in one month was reported to have identified 41,000 illegal attempts at entry; if the "1 in 10 thesis" is correct; then nine times that many were successful. The 12 million figure may be closer to the true number than the lower figure. In addition to the above groups, there is of course the constant flow of persons in industry, research, trade, and technology who may be resident for brief periods of time but who must be reckoned as a part of the ESL population since they do from time to time need ESL services for themselves and their families.

The problem can become a gigantic one in some situations. In Houston, for example, the international character of the city in recent years has increased, and this has drawn diplomatic, commercial, and educational interests to the city in large numbers. Limited funding for public education is being strained by the large numbers of nontaxable families with children in the public schools, and the local school district has investigated ways to reduce this burden. The question of whether such educational services ought to be provided to these noncitizens is extremely complex, and the issue is currently being debated between various federal governmental agencies, the states, and local school districts.

3. What is the variety of language backgrounds represented by the ESL community? Can the prospective program be based on a homogeneous group of speakers, or are many languages represented?

The Educational Testing Service lists over 130 possible languages of those who take their Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Naturally, some of these rarely show up in ESL classes. Still, when the Houston Independent School District recently surveyed its non-English-speaking population, nearly 100 languages were represented. Some students speak not one or two languages, but three, four, and sometimes five or more. A Lebanese Jew, for example, speaks Hebrew, possibly Yiddish and Arabic, probably French, and perhaps English and German as well.

Certain geographical areas of the U.S. reflect concentrations of specific languages, and certain languages are quite predominant in the U.S. as a whole. Heavy concentrations of Spanish are found, naturally, in Florida, the Southwest, California, and in the largest cities of the East and Midwest. Chinese is a commonly spoken language in California, as is Japanese. There are concentrations of French in Maine and in Louisiana.

The largest percentage of foreign students in U.S. colleges and universities is Chinese speaking, accounting for about 11% of the total. Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, and Jordan supply many speakers of Arabic. Latin American countries contribute heavily to the non-native English-speaking student population of U.S. institutions of higher education (Julian et al., 1979). Such figures are, however, dependent on world conditions. Before the Iranian revolution, Farsi speakers represented the largest group of students from a single foreign country: 15% of the total in 1978 (ibid.).

Even though such concentrations of language backgrounds can be identified within a particular region, school administrators or others who are contemplating the organization of ESL programs should not expect to find classrooms with only one language background represented. While certain school districts are large enough to support several bilingual educational programs in various languages, most situations will find students from many language backgrounds represented in a single classroom. This is a far more typical situation than the homogeneous class.

4. What areas of the country are most likely to need ESL programs?

According to a report of the National Bureau of Educational Statistics (1978), 13% of the total population of the U.S. is of a non-English language background. It is difficult to generalize beyond this about the nation as a whole. The specific languages spoken are related to particular regions of the country. Spanish speakers make up about one-third of the U.S. total. Sixty percent of the school-age language minority speaks Spanish as a first language. Two thirds of the people with a Spanish language background live in Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, and these states, plus New York, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey, account for 90% of the Spanish background population.

Twenty-five percent of French speakers live in Louisiana, and another 40% in Maine, Massachusetts, and New York. German-speaking people are to be found in numbers exceeding 100,000 in New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin, California, and Texas. Most of the language-minority persons in this survey were born in the U.S. or its territories. Altogether, 23 of the 50 states have a language minority population of more than 10 percent.

Among the foreign students, enrollment patterns currently reflect a shift away from the northeastern states to the Southwest. This is partly because the largest OPEC nations, such as Nigeria, Venezuela, and Saudi Arabia, account for a large percentage of all foreign students in the U.S. today, and they tend to prefer climates similar to their own and cities such as Houston, with its petroleum-based economy.

Others, such as illegal aliens, are generally found in the largest ports of entry and in the "border states."

The examples given here are sufficient to show that the distribution of people from non-English language backgrounds is not homogeneous throughout the country, but depends on concentrations by language background in specific areas. While foreign students in the past were to be found only in the largest, most prestigious, and best-known universities, there are high enrollments today in schools of every size, from those with the highest standards of admission to those with the lowest, and in every area of the country, rural or urban.

5. At what level of study, and for students of what ages, should programs be organized?

A survey of income and education conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in the spring of 1976 (Waggoner, 1978) broke down language-minority information by age groups (preschool, school age, and adult). Of the total non-English-speaking population, 2¼ million were of preschool age, 5 million were of school age, and nearly 21 million were in the adult postsecondary category.

The statistics on the 2½ million people who speak no English at all are especially interesting. About 90% of them are 19 years old or older. The same survey indicates that in addition to these non-English speakers, there are about 284,000 children under the age of 4 who live in households where no English is spoken, about 70% of these households being Spanish speaking. Concerning the language backgrounds of the non-English speakers, roughly 80% represent European languages, largely Spanish; another 10% are from various Asian languages; and the remaining 10% represent a wide variety of other languages.

To these figures it is necessary to add the 250,000 foreign students currently in U.S. institutions of higher education, those in the "adult" category above public school age (visiting scholars, researchers, governmental representatives, businessmen, and various others who work here on a temporary basis) as well as the unknown numbers of illegal aliens.

6. For what purposes will potential students want to study English?

The Institute of International Education observes that engineering continues to be the most popular field of study for

foreign students (Julian et al., 1979). Nearly a third of all foreign students are currently in this field of study. The next greatest number are studying business and management. Together, these fields account for 45% of U.S. foreign student enrollments. Also popular are natural and life sciences and social sciences. Slightly less than half of the foreign students in the U.S. today are in graduate school, and about 85% of all foreign students are in four-year institutions. The number of students who enroll in two-year schools is rapidly increasing, however, partly because there are greater numbers of such institutions eager to accept them, and partly because education in two-year community colleges is virtually free.

Summary

In our attempt to identify the nature and extent of the need for ESL programs in the United States, we have briefly touched on two essentially different types of communities of second language speakers. Relatively stable, permanent communities, such as immigrants, refugees, and native-born Americans from non-English language homes, will need to function with near-native proficiency in English. Their needs will be uniformly great in nearly all domains except for family and home. On the other hand, members of transitory, more temporary communities, such as foreign student communities, foreign business/industrial personnel on temporary assignment, and migrant laborers, will demonstrate varying ESL needs and levels of proficiency, depending on the specific domains in which they operate. For one group, educational needs may take precedence over all others, while for another group--foreign professionals, for example--sociocultural and functional requirements are preeminent.

We have attempted to identify the major geographical areas of the country and associate them with specific language groups. In general, the most urgent and most easily identified program needs are those of large cities. It goes without saying, however, that even in the smallest community or the most sparsely populated regions of the country, there will be individuals who urgently need ESL instruction.

The patterns of distribution of U.S. language-minorities indicate that the largest proportion of them are at the post-secondary level. Contrary to popular belief, most of the permanent population who need ESL are not new arrivals, but were born in the United States or one of its territories.

THE NEEDS ASSESSMENT PROCESS

In the previous sections we described the limited-English-speaking population of the U.S. who are potential candidates for ESL instruction and specified the characteristics of an ESL

program. We now turn to a detailed discussion of three major steps in assessing the need for such programs.

(1) The assessment process begins with the identification of language-minority community(ies). Once the initial contact has been made, a more precise and extensive identification of the community must be undertaken.

(2) The next step in assessing ESL needs is to determine the specific goals of the community that has been identified and those of the community at large. Both the language-minority community and the larger community of which it is a part have interests that must be safeguarded in the implementation of any ESL program. Those in need of ESL instruction as well as those who seek to provide it must be clear about their reasons for wanting a program. These goals, once identified, should be stated in language that is persuasive, objective, and clear. They should be addressed to individuals who are in a position to implement or conduct such instructional programs.

(3) The third step in assessing ESL program needs is the determination of the extent of the need: once the clientele and the goals have been identified, the establishment of the program must be justified.

A fourth phase of program needs assessment--testing[1]--involves the evaluation of the degree to which specific language needs of the ESL community are being met. This means that once the goals of the community are known, it will be possible to select or to develop specific evaluation instruments that can indicate how well the community is at present meeting these goals. Put another way, it is essential to establish the specific ways in which the members of the community are not able to fulfill their own goals.

Evaluation of the characteristics of a community's English language use requires a coordinated assessment rather than a single evaluation instrument. The particular methods and instruments used for this phase of the assessment process should be valid and reliable measures of the identified goals; they should be efficient for testing large numbers of people; and they should be free of biases or unsubstantiated intuitions that may affect the outcome of the assessment.

A great variety of assessment instruments and processes are available, and the use of more than one means of assessment is desirable. The main consideration in their selection is that they fit the goals of the particular community as closely as possible.

The assessment of ESL needs is incomplete without a summary report of the findings, which makes clear the obligations of

[1]This is too extensive a topic to cover adequately in the present discussion. See the bibliography and additional readings section at the end of this publication for some useful texts in ESL testing.

the wider community and the needs of the language-minority community of which it is a part. The report is, in one sense, the plan for implementing the recommendations. The report must state what kind of program is recommended, specify the linguistic goals, and suggest means for initiating action.

Identification of Language-Minority Communities

What binds together a community of ESL learners is the fact that they all learned to speak another language before they learned to speak English. An ESL community exists within the context of an educational, social, or geopolitical community. It is a group within a group.

Such ESL speakers will bear certain similarities to each other as well as demonstrate certain differences among themselves. All second language speakers, for example, know at least one other communication system that permits them to function in social intercourse with each other. For such speakers, English will serve as a second communication system, one which will be activated only under certain specific conditions or for specific activities. In some communities these activities will be educational in nature; in others the second language will serve purely functional purposes; and in others, it will be used for sociocultural reasons. Whatever the purpose, however, there is bound to be a certain homogeneity of functional use of the language within the ESL community.

On the other hand, even within a given community, certain individuals will have mastered the target language to a much greater degree than others. In fact, abilities can range from nearly no control of the language at all to near native-like proficiency in English. Consequently, the ESL program devised for the community will not serve all individuals equally well. The program must therefore include ways to assess English proficiency in order to separate those individuals who need an instructional program from those who are obviously functioning adequately without one.

Depending on the diversity of the language backgrounds represented in the community, there may be some differences in the particular areas and specific features of English that are not controlled adequately by the speakers. For example, it is not uncommon to find in a college-level ESL class those whose oral language is fluent but who lack even the most fundamental notions of writing in English; at the same time, others will control the written language admirably but cannot speak intelligibly or understand the English of native speakers around them. Some foreign students seem to have a large English vocabulary without being able to put the words together coherently.

The specific objectives of this first phase of the assessment process are

- to identify the ESL community by describing its size, number of languages represented, and various demographic characteristics;
- to determine if the community is a permanent or a temporary community;
- to identify community resources for participation in further assessment procedures.

Initial Contacts

In this initial step of the assessment process, it is important to establish contacts with representatives of all levels of the ESL community. At later stages of the process, such contacts will be valuable for carrying out the more specific evaluations of abilities and in assessing community needs and goals. This step may require some frustrating and unproductive activity. It is necessary to get into the community itself, insofar as one can, to meet contacts' families and friends. If the community is an academic one, student representatives can be invaluable, and foreign student associations are also willing to cooperate.

Many communities, such as the employees of a company, are nearly self-defined and their members easily identified. Others, such as communities of illegal aliens, are nearly impossible to define or describe.

The first contact with a potential ESL community is sometimes made because a representative of the community—often someone who needs ESL instruction himself or herself--seeks help. A foreign student has failed a course in freshman English because of an inability to write a composition in English. A Vietnamese refugee shows up at the YMCA looking for an English language class in order to get a job as an orderly in a local hospital. An employee of a telephone company calls the English department of a local university to ask if there are English classes at night so that she can get a better job at her company. This no doubt happens less often than it should, because in communities that have no organized ESL programs already, there is no way to know who might logically be approached. Often it is the church, the local high school, a university, or some social service organization that can provide appropriate services.

But more common than the clients' making the first contact is the situation where someone in the English-speaking community recognizes the need for a new program. Often this is someone who, because of the nature of his or her job, has frequent contact with a number of persons unable to function adequately in English, e.g., a receptionist or secretary; someone in a social service job; a small-business owner; a foreman or superintendent

in charge of a team of workers; a clerk in a hospital, office, bank, or store; or a faculty or staff member at a school or college. Consider the following instances of initial contacts:

- A small-business owner was receiving unsatisfactory reports from customers about floor employees who couldn't answer questions or answered the phone and then hung up when they didn't understand the caller's question;
- A supervisor of a crew of workers for the grounds and buildings maintainance staff of a university wanted materials so that he could teach English to his monolingual Spanish-speaking staff;
- A supervisor in a very large engineering-construction firm that employs hundreds of ESL speakers in various drafting and supervisory capacities requested the manager of one of the training programs to provide a communications skills "crash course" for some of these employees who had been identified as having on-the-job communication problems; the manager in turn contacted a local intensive ESL program;
- Parents of Vietnamese high school students asked the guidance counselor of a local high school to provide some special help in ESL; since the high school did not have an ESL program, they in turn asked the local YWCA to provide after-school instruction in ESL for the students;
- The janitor of a local high school telephoned the English department of the university to ask for help in finding a book from which to teach ESL to his custodial staff whom his wife had volunteered to teach;
- The staff of a neighborhood activities center received many requests for ESL classes for the Spanish-speaking residents of the area;
- After many requests from the community, the public library, through its branches, offered classes in ESL;
- ESL classes were started in a junior college after numerous complaints were received from faculty members who found they were spending too much of their time teaching foreign students to speak and write English rather than the subject matter they were supposed to teach;
- American university students enrolled in laboratory sections taught by foreign graduate students could not understand the speech of the instructors; the situation was so provoking that there was a near-revolt of the students, and the result was a new state requirement that all foreign instructors had to pass a test of spoken English before they could be assigned to the classroom.

These many examples of initial contacts serve to emphasize that the first contact can come from either someone in the community at large who recognizes the need or from someone in the ESL community who makes a request for the service.

Contacts are often made somewhat haphazardly, principally because most people do not know that there are thousands of

people in this country who have had training or experience in the teaching of English as a second language. If the person making the contact is fortunate, he or she might find someone who is knowledgeable or who knows of other locally available resource persons who can be contacted for help.

Describing the Community

The investigator should not be content in most cases with a single means of identifying the community. There are nearly always ways to cross-validate perceptions. For example, enrollments in ESL courses provide one estimate of the size of a community, but registration of ethnic-surnamed people may reveal a different number. Large disparities in estimates should be checked carefully.

One of the first questions that must be resolved is that of the age and educational level of the community. It is useful to know, for example, whether the population of the community is nearly all school-age or older, or whether there are in fact a significant number of preschoolers in the community.

Information is also useful on the occupations and/or socioeconomic status of individuals in the language-minority community. This frequently correlates highly with the educational levels attained. The Indochinese refugee provides a good example. The refugees themselves come from all walks of life and from a broad range of socioeconomic levels. Prior to coming to the U.S., they may have been everything from laborers or policemen to doctors or professors.

Determining Community Goals

The ESL Community

Even within communities that seem on the surface to be fairly homogeneous, there are differences in goals, and some of these can be significant. For example, an intensive university program may have two or three hundred students enrolled at a given time. It can be reasonably assumed that most of these students will eventually end up in an academic program of study at that or another university or at a college or technical school.

But this is not actually the case. In nearly every program such as this, there are some students who do not intend to enter a university program at all but are learning English to satisfy other personal goals--interaction with Americans or functional control of the language to get a job, for example. They may have chosen that particular program, even though it doesn't quite suit their purposes, because it is the most expedient (and sometimes the only possible) solution.

Whatever the intent of the program, in most cases, those

who enroll in language classes will have their own personal objectives in mind. Ordinarily this should cause minimal problems, especially at the beginning levels of language fluency. However, as students become more fluent, they often find that particular programs do not meet their needs. While a program cannot and should not attempt to satisfy specific objectives for everyone, most programs will be flexible enough to adapt to individual needs. In the example cited above, there may be a conflict between the program objectives, which emphasize academic English (and attendant skills of reading and composition), and individual objectives, which may include communicative styles not appropriate in the classroom, and will certainly not include much emphasis on academic reading and writing.

Occasionally, students may appear in ESL classes because they want to achieve literacy in English, although their basic language skills of understanding, speech, grammar, and so on, are quite good. Literacy for adults is a special problem, and requires unique materials and approaches that most college-level programs are not prepared to provide. Before admitting such students, it would be well to consider whether the program as it is organized is flexible enough or has staff with the necessary expertise to be of any help.

We have mentioned before that more permanent communities will have somewhat different goals from those of a temporary community. Furthermore, standards of performance and acceptability will change somewhat. It will be necessary to determine whether the clientele are U.S.-born or foreign-born. If they are foreign-born, it will be necessary to know whether they have been residents of the U.S. for a long period of time or if they are recent arrivals, for this can be a relevant factor in the selection of instructional patterns and goals for the ESL program.

If the group is made up largely of immigrants or refugees, the language program will include many more of the sociocultural aspects of American life, and this may, in fact, be the major task of the teacher. For those who are native-born Americans, to attempt to teach sociocultural patterns of behavior may risk offending some individuals.

The Community at Large

It would be appropriate at this point to discuss the goals of the larger community, not specifically those of its ESL members. We are concerned here with the community as a whole, whether it is a city, a college or university, a public school, or a corporation.

In order to determine the goals that any community may deem appropriate, it is necessary to establish what benefits the members of the community may perceive as the result of accomplishing these goals.

English as a second language programs satisfy the goals of those who provide the services as well as those who need them. Full participation in a community's governance benefits all members of the community. While this fact may be understood and appreciated by some members of the community, others may sometimes feel that instituting programs that seem to benefit only a small part of the community--those who need ESL instruction--may not be worth the time, effort, and expense that it would require.

One school district recently questioned whether it was desirable to provide free education to the foreign residents in the community, on the basis that it was a drain on the taxpayers to provide such services. Discussions on this topic generally do not include the fact that the presence of such foreign personnel in large numbers provides the city with millions of dollars in business and trade from abroad. These people spend these dollars locally, recirculating them many times. Furthermore, foreign residents of a community, whether temporary or permanent, whether legal or undocumented, pay substantial amounts in taxes from buying or renting property, sales taxes, and so on.

Colleges and Universities

University and college communities sometimes reach similar conclusions about the "dubious" benefits of the foreign student presence on their campuses, especially if it means providing special services. One community college in Texas has decided to eliminate foreign student enrollments rather than provide special English language instruction. Such a view is xenophobic and parochial. It is worthwhile to examine briefly some of the benefits that accrue to colleges and universities through the presence of international students on campus.

- Contact with other cultures provided by international students aids American students in better understanding the physical, moral, and intellectual world in which they live. One of the things that foreign students find incredible about Americans is their lack of knowledge of geography and history not only of the world, but also of their own country. Understanding other cultures also enhances understanding of ourselves.
- North Americans are increasingly interdependent with other nations as far as natural resources, human resources, political and military strength, and world trade markets are concerned. We benefit ourselves by benefiting others. When we educate people from around the world in our institutions, we augment our own national interest through stimulation and exchange of technology, information, and products. In other words, we help to create world markets for our products and talent through international scholarship exchange.

• As we increase contact through the presence of internationals on campuses, we increase the good will and cooperation of other nations, if we have provided internationals with good experiences here. Policy decisions in foreign corporations and governments are made by many individuals who have been educated in the United States. To the extent that an American education was a productive and positive experience, the good will generated by such exchange will increase. To the extent that Americans isolate themselves, it will decrease.

• Foreign students, and especially foreign scholars, contribute talent, knowledge, and expertise in many areas where Americans lag behind the rest of the world.

• American universities that encourage the presence of internationals on their campuses find that they often are encouraged to reciprocate the exchange by organizing programs of study and teaching abroad. Academic units in the universities thus broaden their scope of operation.

• The presence of foreign students on a campus often signals to a foreign corporation or government that there is American interest and expertise on the campus that could be of benefit to them. Thus, in many cases, grants and contracts paid for by the corporation or government bring additional financial support to the institution.

• Some American colleges and universities need foreign students, particularly at the graduate level, in order to keep programs alive that would not survive on their American student enrollments alone--e.g., engineering, business, and agriculture courses.

These facts indicate clearly the desirability--sometimes the necessity--of international contact. Concomitant with the presence of internationals, of course, is the need for ESL instruction. In order for the experience of the international student/scholar on campuses to be productive, adequate language facility is essential. This can only be achieved through well-run ESL programs. U.S. institutions of higher education should realize that by accepting foreign students into their community, they incur a moral obligation as well to provide the kinds of services such students need--including advisors who understand the special problems of foreign students.

There has been a recent tendency toward the creation of special intensive and semi-intensive ESL programs in institutions of higher education, particularly in junior and community colleges. These appear to be popular because there is a modest profit to be made from them. Such programs often charge high tuition rates, have large classes, and use untrained and/or inexperienced teachers (Gay, 1975). Typically such institutions skim off the "profits" from these programs and do not return the money to the program itself for adequate salaries, facilities, or services. It should be emphasized that most institutions offer legitimate, high quality programs; the "English-for-profit" programs are still in the minority.

Industry

As a special kind of community, a large corporation--particularly one with multinational interests--is especially sensitive to the loss of "talent" that results from language-based communication problems. Such corporations require the expertise of foreign engineers and other specialists and are increasingly interested in providing specialized language-training programs so that these talents become available to them in an efficient and economical way.

Employers often find that while workers can get along on little or no English language ability, their services, efficiency, and productivity often rise, and absenteeism and turnover often decline, after the establishment of ESL programs for their language-minority employees. Such benefits are not to be overlooked as trivial. Some large companies offer in-house ESL instruction, while others permit employees to study English on company time or indeed reimburse the student for the cost of such instruction.

The benefits of the ESL class to the ESL speaker are obvious, and we have treated them elsewhere: better jobs, more responsibilities, and improved financial security all go along with increased ability to use the English language in a work context. This is, as we have said, as much a part of the goals of the business institution or community as it is of the goals of the community itself.

Public Schools

The special goals of American education require provision for language-minority students to achieve education through the school systems. It has taken a long time for the U.S. to recognize its responsibilities to language-minority people, particularly in the schools. The Bilingual Education section of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and its subsequent amendments have sought to intervene in public education on behalf of the rights of minorities to receive education on an equitable basis with all other Americans.

At present, federal, state, and local governmental units are responsible for the provision of equal access to educational opportunities, regardless of language background. The federal government provides direct assistance through grants for programs and in support for research in bilingual education; state governments allocate a portion of their funds to provide services for minority-language children; and local governments are expected, if they are to continue to receive federal and state monies, to provide adequate programs.

The largest share of all funds for education of language-minority children has been provided for bilingual education in the public schools; less money has been provided specifically

for ESL programs. Programs for foreign students studying in the U.S. receive no federal or state money in most cases and usually are entirely self-supporting.

Communities, then, regardless of their specific nature, have reasonably clear goals in implementing ESL instruction:

- to facilitate participation in community affairs of all members of the community;
- to utilize a greater part of the available talent and workforce;
- to encourage more individuals to become independent of public assistance; and
- to encourage the education of all children at the least expense.

Determining the Extent of Need

So far in this section we have discussed some general principles of identifying the ESL community and its goals. We now turn our attention to the question of determining whether there is sufficient need to justify the establishment of an ESL program once these steps have been taken. Some of the factors that have to be considered are the size of the community, the diversity of languages, and the recency of the speakers' arrival.

Size of the Community

The need for a program should not be determined by number alone. The identification in a community of a single individual whose command of English is insufficient for him or her to function adequately as one of its members is enough to warrant the initiation of some kind of program.

Programs vary, as we have suggested, from arrangements for a few individuals on an occasional basis to very large and complex institutes that prepare students for academic study in American colleges and universities. The general principle is that the greater the number of ESL speakers, the more diverse their needs and the more complicated and complex the structure of the ESL program will be.

Diversity of Languages

Programs in communities consisting of a single ethnic group, where all second language speakers speak the same native language, may be organized on the basis of a different set of assumptions from those for communities where the language background of the population represents a wide range of different languages. It is sometimes a peculiarity of the junior community college that a single institution will attract many

speakers of the same language. Sometimes, programs are organized specifically on this basis, of course--for example, for Vietnamese or for Indochinese generally or for Spanish-speaking adults.

More common, however, is the program that will have several --even dozens of--different languages represented. Chicago, for instance, offers more than 12 different bilingual programs in Spanish/English, Arabic/English, German/English, and so on. Even a small community can have a diverse population, especially if it is the home of a college or university. A multilingual/cultural program in a small Illinois city enrolled children from over a dozen language backgrounds in its first year. It is evident that the problem of administering such a program is quite complex, from both a pedagogical and an administrative point of view. With only one or two students in a single school or at a single grade level, there is little opportunity to offer the same kinds of services as those provided to native English-speaking children.

In public schools, children should be grouped with their age peers, not by their performance on tests or by attained grade level. A significant number of preschool or post-high school age children may signal the fact that programs for these age groups may be feasible.

Recency of Arrival

Many people who qualify for ESL instruction and who would be potential clientele for such programs were born in the United States. Others are recent arrivals. It is not unknown for some foreign students to get off the plane one afternoon and find themselves in an ESL class the next morning. The recency of the integration of the individual into an English-speaking environment should be taken into account in estimating the urgency of the need for programs.

It has been observed that some of the language problems of border areas are due partially to the fact that these communities are constantly being reinforced by new arrivals of language-minority speakers. While this retards the shift from one language to another, it also retards the ability of individuals to learn the second language. In such a situation, the need for language programs is a continuous one. Bilingual communities are highly desirable, but both the first and the second language must be supported within the educational setting for this to take place. Communities with patterns of migration that reinforce and constantly renew the supply of those in need of ESL will need to think seriously about the kinds of programs that will be acceptable to the community.

CHARACTERISTIC ASSESSMENT PRACTICES OF SOME SPECIFIC COMMUNITIES

So far we have examined specific steps in the needs assessment process: identification of the community, determining the goals of the community, and determining the extent of need. We now take a look at some specific communities and the ways in which they characteristically assess and meet their program needs in English as a second language.

Communities can vary greatly in their makeup and in the basis of their organization; it is essential, therefore, to look at several different types of communities in detail to understand some of the specific processes that may be useful. A process that is useful in one type of community may be helpful in another; on the other hand, it may serve no purpose in a different setting.

Public Schools

Those who have worked in the area of English as a second language or bilingual education have for a long time followed established procedures for identifying, testing, and assigning students to appropriate educational programs. Typically, school districts are required by state laws--operating under federal guidelines--to identify all potentially limited English-speaking persons of school age who reside within their districts and who qualify for public education. These could be children who speak both English and another language, or whose parents use another language in the home.

Once such persons have been identified, their language skills must be assessed to determine if they should be enrolled in a bilingual education program or need other English language instruction. Many states have evaluated various instruments to determine the effectiveness of these tests in making such judgments. State educational agencies generally establish policy regarding the use of such tests, including a list of "approved" tests for placement purposes.

There are established ways, therefore, in which students can be returned from bilingual classrooms to "regular" classrooms, where they will function completely in English. These criteria for moving students back to regular classes are prescribed by the schools themselves in most cases. The problem of "keeping track" of students for the administration of educational programs requires that specific processes be set up and followed. One of the most common ways to do this is to use some sort of control record, such as the one in Figure 1, which is kept in the student's permanent file. A document such as this provides information not only as to the ethnic group identity of the student and the results of the home language survey, but the results of the tests of home and school language abilities and

BILINGUAL/ESL PROGRAMS

The following information and supporting documents are to be included in each student's official cumulative folder:

1. Home Language Survey
2. English Language Proficiency Test Results
3. Record of:
   A. Parent approval/disapproval for student's placement in bilingual/E.S.L. program; and
   B. Student's assignment to program.
4. Program Exit Documentation
5. Possible Program Re-entry Documentation

1. Home Language Survey

   Date completed_____Home language specified_____

2. English Language Proficiency Test Results

   Name of Test_____
   Date of Test_____Test Administrator_____
   Results: English Level_____
   Spanish Level (bilingual only)_____

3. A. Parent approval for student placement in program?
   Yes___No___Date_____

   B. Student assignment to program:
   Bilingual E.S.L. School_____

4. Program Exit Documentation
   A. Test Data
   Name of Test_____
   Date of Test___Reading & Language Arts Percentile_____

   B. District's Notification to Parents
   Parent approval for student to be reclassified as non-LESA and reassigned to regular, all-English curriculum: Yes___No___Date_____

5. Possible Program Re-entry Documentation
   A. Subjective criteria utilized (contact supervisor):

   B. Parental permission for student's re-entry into program?
   Yes___No___Date_____Program_____

Figure 1: Example of a summary sheet recording pertinent data on bilingual/ESL students

records related to the student's placement and progress in ESL or bilingual programs. The specific content of documents such as these should provide as much information as may be needed in the future to make sound educational decisions.

In addition to such record keeping for purposes of identifying and assessing individuals' needs, public schools generally regard some form of summary information as an essential part of the planning and implementation of new language programs. These summary statements often include tabulated summaries of the limited English-speaking population of a school district. In smaller schools or districts, these may be quite simple lists of students by grade level with information regarding their home language backgrounds, ages, and grade levels. In cases where larger districts with many schools are involved, they may be quite extensive. An example of a comprehensive summary sheet for a larger school district (Figure 2) is provided here.

The school system represented in Figure 2 was a moderate-sized one with nearly 11,000 students in the secondary system. About 1,640, or 15% of the total school enrollment, were non-native English speakers. In individual schools, this ranged from 0% to 66%. The district kept records from year to year, so that it was possible to determine any patterns of change that took place. In this case, the language-minority population of the district had increased by 2% over the previous year.

An examination of Figure 2 reveals one other interesting fact that will be important in the implementation of an English language-training program. Since students are listed separately by major language groups, it is possible to identify the geographical distribution of the ESL clientele in the district. In administering a language program in a large district, administrators may wish to consider various alternative plans for locating classrooms. The relative merits of multilanguage vs. single-language classrooms will not be argued here; each has distinct theoretical and practical advantages. The final decision should be made on the basis of these considerations. The point is that such data provide administrators with the potential for sound decision making in language program planning.

Naturally, smaller schools will not need to follow the same procedures, nor would they be able to, considering the amount of money, time, and skilled personnel usually required to carry out such a detailed analysis of a language-minority community. In a smaller community, perhaps all that is needed is a survey, based on enrollments, of the home language patterns. Students who have difficulty with language can easily be identified by classroom teachers or by others in the school system who have frequent contact with students. In schools that have small populations of language-minority students spread throughout various grade levels, or in several schools within a district, it is still essential, at the very least, to collect and tabulate data on the number of children in each grade level by language background.

ELEMENTARY SURVEY OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

School	Total Non-Native English Speakers	Native Language of Speakers							
		Spanish		Korean		Vietnamese		Other	
Abin	179	33	18%	57	32%	25	14%	64	36%
Ashl	17	11	65%	0	0	2	12%	4	24%
Barc	36	12	33%	2	6%	0	0	22	61%
Barr	100	18	18%	19	19%	17	17%	46	46%
Clar	97	38	39%	7	7%	23	24%	29	30%
Cust	47	16	34%	0	0	4	9%	27	57%
Drew	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	100%
Fair	15	5	33%	0	0	4	27%	6	40%
Ft.	143	19	13%	59	41%	23	16%	42	29%
Geor	7	4	57%	1	14%	0	0	2	29%
Gleb	25	0	0	0	0	4	16%	21	84%
Glen	145	21	14%	50	34%	15	10%	59	41%
Henr	114	52	46%	8	7%	14	12%	40	35%
Hoff	14	3	21%	1	7%	1	7%	9	64%
Jack	28	10	36%	1	4%	0	0	17	61%
Jame	11	4	36%	2	18%	1	9%	4	36%
Key	224	100	45%	27	12%	29	13%	68	30%
Long	71	21	30%	7	10%	16	23%	27	38%
McKi	20	3	15%	4	20%	4	20%	9	45%
Mott	23	2	9%	3	13%	9	39%	9	39%
Oakr	56	30	54%	5	9%	5	9%	16	29%
Page	18	6	33%	3	17%	2	11%	7	39%
Rand	22	9	41%	1	5%	0	0	12	55%
Redd	88	14	16%	9	10%	5	6%	60	68%
Sayl	31	3	10%	0	0	7	23%	21	68%
Tuck	19	6	32%	2	11%	8	42%	3	16%
Wood	79	33	42%	3	4%	18	23%	25	32%
TOTAL	1640	473	29%	271	17%	236	14%	660	40%

Figure 2: A sample data summary sheet for district elementary schools

Colleges and Universities

There is often confusion in college and university communities over the means of identifying non-native English speakers. Before any assessment of the language needs of the students can be made, it is necessary to identify all, or as many as possible, of the members of the potential ESL community. Various institutions use different approaches to accomplish this identification. Admissions applications usually ask the student to list his or her nationality. This is a good start, but it does not guarantee 100% accuracy in categorizing students as native or non-native English speakers. The possession of a British passport, for example, does not guarantee that English is the native language of the holder. A person with a Canadian passport may speak English or French as a first language. An American passport is likewise no guarantee of English language proficiency. Many American-born high school graduates are from language-minority homes. In addition, those from U.S. territories and possessions and Puerto Rico may not be proficient enough in English to function adequately without further instruction in ESL. Refugees and others with permanent resident status are often not identified as potential ESL clientele.

Occasionally, applications for admission request information on the language background of the student. The wording of such a request is important. The terms "mother-tongue" or "home language" may honestly be answered "English" by many students whose first-acquired language is not English. The term "first language" is sometimes taken to mean "language predominantly used" rather than first-acquired. "First-learned language" may be a better alternative.

In most cases, sufficient information may be obtained from the application for admission. Through experience, the people in the admissions office who process applications from overseas learn which nationalities are likely to have problems with English. Information from applications can be supplemented by personal interviews when the students arrive; often this is the only way to be sure of the need for assignment to ESL classes. When the institution has a language proficiency requirement, the foreign applicant should be forewarned in the first response to his or her inquiry, and an appropriate statement should be included in the institution's general descriptive catalog.

Most larger institutions have devised special ways of checking the language background of students. Several institutions have created offices to supervise the testing of foreign students. Often all non-U.S. citizens are required to complete a special form (see Figure 3) which records information including their TOEFL score, the amount of transfer credit they may have accumulated, and so on. This sheet is sent to the academic unit that has the responsibility of determining the student's language proficiency in English, with a copy retained by the regis-

trar's office. Students are then required to present evidence of acceptable English language performance through a general test.

NAME: _____ graduate or undergraduate
(last) (first) (middle)

STUDENT #_____ NATIVE COUNTRY:_____
NATIVE LANGUAGE:_____

Other English courses completed at U.S. institutions:

	course	institution	credit hours	grade
1.				
2.				
3.				

You are required to take the courses circled below in chronological order, beginning this semester and continuing each semester until the sequence is completed.

UNDERGRADUATE: ENG 145 ENG 146 ENG 233T(f) ENG 233T(f)
GRADUATE: ENG 694

_____ _____
date signature

Figure 3: A control sheet to facilitate the identification of limited English speakers, academic credit, and assignment to appropriate courses in a higher educational institution. Note that some students may be required to take two sections of English 233T(f).

It is wise, especially in larger institutions, to develop special ways to screen and process students so as to assess the size and character of the ESL community. Sometimes as much as 15% of the population of an institution may consist of foreign students. It is also an advantage in larger institutions to designate some academic unit responsible for the evaluation of English language proficiency of all international students.

In smaller institutions, such procedures may not be feasible. However, most institutions, regardless of size, make some attempt to evaluate the quality of all students' writing--native and non-native alike. When students fall well below the normal range of scores on a writing test, the administrative unit should take a closer look at the individuals; it is possible that they are second-language speakers of English who would benefit from special ESL instruction.

Sometimes, of course, in spite of all the regulations and

procedures that can be devised, individual students will manage to bypass the system, or will have accidentally been passed over by it. It is then not until the student has been enrolled in regular English classes, structured around the needs of native English-speaking students, that the special needs of that individual are recognized by a perceptive and alert instructor.

It is useful, as with secondary school populations, to keep an accurate record of the summarized data. One institution, which has nearly 3000 foreign students, makes a comprehensive annual study of its foreign student population. Such information as the student's geographical origins, field of study, sex, marital status, and so on, are useful in planning and implementing academic and ESL programs. Careful track should also be kept of the entering proficiency of students, since this may indicate the necessity of changing the pattern of foreign student admissions requirements.

Through close cooperation, the foreign-student advisor, the admissions office, the registrar's office, the English department (or other department charged with English language proficiency requirements), and the academic advisors can locate most of those who will benefit from ESL instruction. Academic advisors, if they are kept aware of the requirements and processes that apply to international students, can be extremely useful agents in the identification process.

Junior/Community Colleges

Two-year institutions have a particularly difficult problem. Many are "open admission" institutions with few requirements other than residence in the district served by the college. The services of the college are therefore open to anyone, and there is little justification for entrance examinations. Furthermore, many smaller institutions are hard-pressed for financial support and want to admit all who apply. Traditionally, in such cases, there are few attempts to determine the language needs of those who enroll. Such individuals are expected to succeed or fail on the basis of their own abilities and efforts. This has not been a serious problem until the last few years, when there has been a remarkable increase in the number of two-year institutions and a comparable increase in the enrollment of non-native English-speaking students.

One of the reasons for this enrollment change has been the more stringent standards of admission imposed by the four-year institutions. This has meant that many foreign students seek entrance to the two-year colleges for at least a year in order to improve their basic skills, including language abilities, and qualify for transfer to the four-year colleges. Some international students have also seen it as a way to get around the English proficiency requirements of the four-year institutions. Since the universities are often more demanding in their

requirements, internationals will sometimes attempt to take the required English course sequence in a two-year college and later transfer the "easy" credit. Many of the four-year schools have now begun to test all entering international students, including the transfers, as a way to check this practice. The lower cost of a two-year institution is also a relevant factor in its increased popularity for international students.

Sharp increases in enrollments over a short period of time are not uncommon. At one institution, the enrollment jumped in one year from eight foreign students, all from the Ivory Coast, to an enrollment of between 110 and 120 students. Many of these students--about 60%--were able to do work in English without much difficulty; some, however, needed special instruction in ESL, instruction that the college was not prepared to provide. Unfortunately, in that case, the college chose the expedient solution of placing all international students in a remedial English class, which the students rightfully resented.

Some institutions have placed quotas on the enrollment of foreign students. We have already mentioned the community college in Texas that is now phasing out all special courses for ESL students and intends in the next few years to eliminate all international student enrollments. Usually, the solutions are not so extreme. A quota is often set at a percentage of the total enrollment figure. This provides some flexibility and the possibility of measured increases without the threat of becoming overwhelmed by excessively rapid growth. Some institutions place quotas at fixed numbers--an undesirable alternative. Some others establish minimum English-language proficiency standards for their non-native English speakers, recommending that those who do not meet these requirements attend intensive English language-training programs until they reach desired levels.

Community and Volunteer Programs

Outside of formal educational institutions, there are many people who need ESL instruction but, because they are older (or younger) than school age, and because they are not interested in or prepared for entrance to a college or university, are not identified as a significant community of ESL speakers. Sometimes programs are organized for such persons by institutions and community programs such as the YMCA, YWCA, the Red Cross, public libraries, religious groups, community centers, and other social organizations.

As we have said, such programs usually develop from requests originating in the ESL community itself or from someone in the organization who, through contacts with language-minority people, perceives the need and is willing to do something about it. Usually, once a few members of a community have been identified, other members are easily located. It is often true that it is not until a program has been initiated that the extent of a language problem can be accurately identified.

No particular patterns of identifying persons of ESL status have been developed in community and volunteer programs. It may be useful, however, for those interested in starting such programs to contact the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (see list of organizations at the end of this booklet). This organization, begun more than 30 years ago, devotes its expertise to matters affecting foreign students in U.S. university and college communities. One of the sections of NAFSA concentrates on the problems of adjustment to living in this country, including language problems. Many communities, under the guidance of NAFSA, have developed high-quality language instructional programs. A set of guidelines for community volunteers is published by NAFSA and is available upon request.

Community programs may find the problem of identifying accurately the size and nature of the non-native English-speaking community a very difficult one. The very nature of the community (it is usually the submerged part of the population that needs the services most) precludes an accurate count of the potential students. Many will be undocumented aliens, residents, and refugees and, partly because of their language inadequacies, those who do not interact in the life of the community.

Corporate Programs

A variety of circumstances in the U.S. and around the world have made the business/industrial community increasingly aware of the need for programs in English as a second language tailored to their own demands. Companies of nearly every size and purpose may identify such program needs. In some middle-sized and large corporations, many of the entry-level positions must be filled by applicants with minimal education, many of whom are speakers of English as a second language or who speak standard English as a second dialect. Some U.S. companies, especially if they have clients in other countries, employ non-native English speakers in engineering, drafting, sales, office, and middle- and top-management positions both in their U.S. offices and abroad.

Certain types of corporations, such as the oil-related industries and engineering/construction firms, often find it necessary to bring to the U.S. groups of foreign nationals either for temporary assignment in the U.S. or for periods of training. Such persons frequently require periods of English language training of several weeks or months prior to their technical training (often referred to as "pretechnical English").

The use of this term suggests that the curriculum of the English program is less academically oriented than programs designed for students who will study technical courses in a college or technical-training institute. The course will focus on the vocabulary and structure employed with high frequency in the industry of the sponsor. Also, some language skills may be

taught only minimally or not at all, e.g., advanced skills in written English may be ignored completely or restricted to filling out forms or writing short technical reports or memos. Reading skill may be dealt with only enough to permit interpretation of procedures and technical manuals.

The particular method of selection of the participants depends on the purposes that the corporation hopes to serve through the instructional program. Some of the typical ways in which the problem is addressed are discussed below.

Problem-Centered Identification

The need for pretechnical courses in English in some organizations such as utility companies, larger businesses, and corporations is often identified first by middle-management personnel, e.g., operations managers or line managers who work closely with entry-level or "line" personnel and observe their work by serving as their trainers, directors, and supervisors. Since these managers frequently monitor work orders, work reports, customer complaints, and other types of paperwork, they have an opportunity to notice errors and other problems that are caused by inadequate basic language skills. They may, for example, notice a high incidence of repeat orders or uncompleted work orders or a high occurrence of customer complaints. Such evidence clearly indicates communication problems in the company's basic operational procedures.

Many of the larger corporations must involve employees in some kind of in-house training program, usually related to technical tasks essential to job performance. These training programs are operated both in a classroom setting and in the actual job setting. In the latter situation, technical trainers have a unique opportunity to observe whether or not trainees have the basic math or verbal skills that are necessary for efficient job performance. Through their own oral interaction with trainees, they have the opportunity to evaluate their level of language proficiency and may suggest their participation in a pretechnical English course.

The next step is to find the appropriate channel for instituting the pretechnical English course. A corporation often has such a structure already in the form of a division of training or development, or a training manager or director may undertake the organization and implementation of such a course.

The training director in one large public utility corporation has provided an outline of the identification and training process, which can be used as a model (Figure 4). Because the corporation offers both specialized training programs and an orientation for all new employees in the company, instructors in these programs have an opportunity to evaluate the level of skills that employees demonstrate in the training process. As the chart suggests, some employees may also determine for themselves that a program is needed and volunteer for a pretechnical

FLOWCHART OF BASIC SKILLS PROGRAM

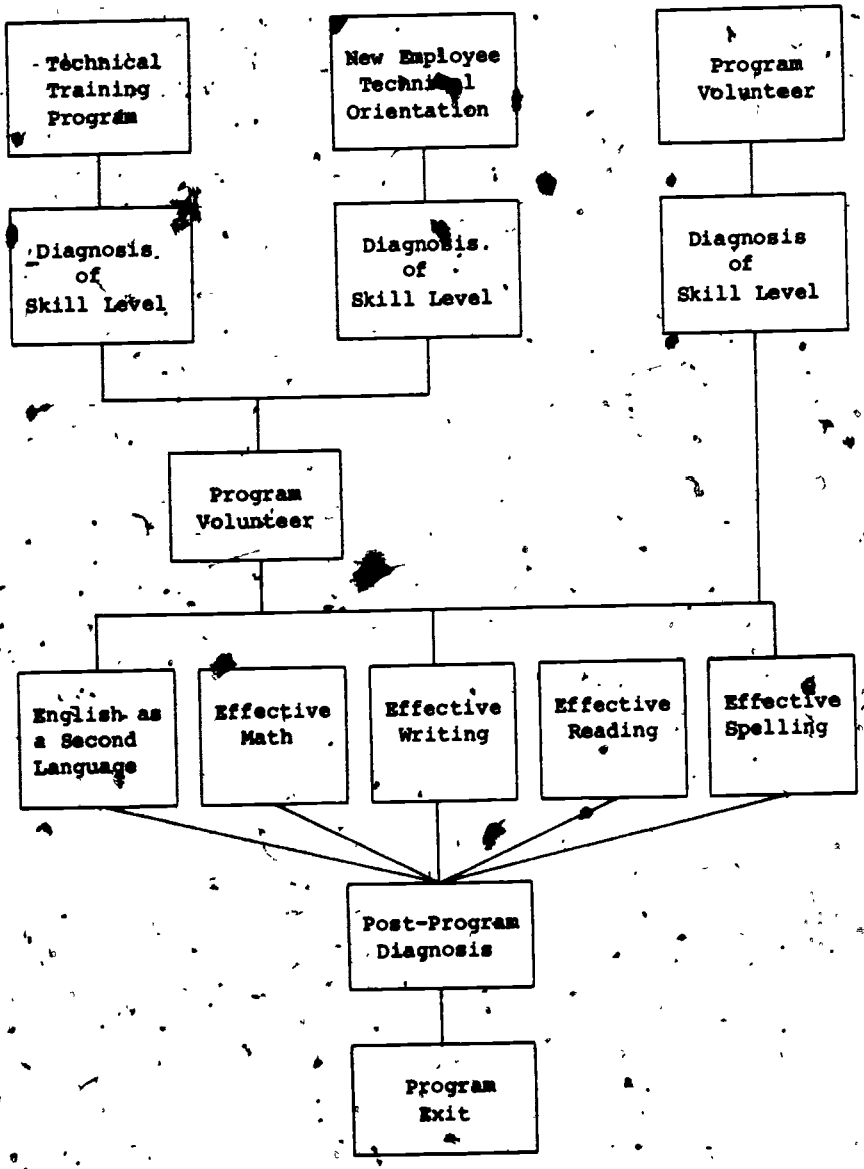

Figure 4. A model for identification and organization of basic skills training in a corporation

or basic skills course if one has been made available. After volunteers have received instruction in one or more components of the basic skills program (which includes ESL, math, writing, reading, and spelling), a follow-up evaluation is provided.

Task-Centered Identification

Some groups are targeted for pretechnical English courses not because of problems with communication observed in job performance, but rather because the corporation has identified a task that is to be carried out by a specific group of non- or limited-English-speaking persons. For instance, an engineering company might take over the maintenance of a paper mill in Mexico, thereby assuming the obligation to provide a group of Mexican nationals with training of a technical nature in the U.S. Before such training can be delivered, however, the essential English language skills must be provided.

In this situation, it will be the responsibility of the training division or the project director to mount an appropriate program of pretechnical English for the participants.

Adult Basic Education Programs

Many individuals in a community may experience their only English language instruction through what are generally known as adult basic education programs. These programs are usually operated through evening, continuing, or extension divisions of district school programs, universities, and colleges. They are generally for anyone 18 years old or older and combine two areas: general subject matter instruction and the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

Such programs are usually nontraditional. They may meet in regular classrooms or in storefronts, church basements, homes, or wherever space is available. They often involve a very special clientele: prisoners, migrants, factory workers, or patients in drug rehabilitation centers. Teachers often work under very unusual conditions in such programs. They may, for example, teach classes to students whose abilities range from "no English" to "good English." The programs often have no beginning or ending point--that is, students may enter or leave them at any time. Many students are working full time as well as carrying their educational programs. Students differ widely not only in age, but in social, economic, and cultural backgrounds as well (Ilyin and Tragardh, 1978).

Because of these many special conditions, the problems and practices of ABE/ESL programs are different from other kinds of language-teaching programs, and they require the special attention and assistance of people who have had experience in this area. The language-minority population that is served by these classes is usually self-identified, and classes are conducted on a walk-in basis.

THE FUTURE

Trends in the growth of language-minority populations are influenced by many factors. Economic conditions in Puerto Rico, Mexico, and other areas will have a great deal to do with the influx of immigrants and migrant labor as well as illegal aliens. Possible changes in the status of illegal alien residents now in this country may change the configuration of school populations considerably. Toughening of the enforcement of student visa requirements by the Immigration and Naturalization Service or tightening of refugee quotas may have some effect on student populations in higher educational institutions; changing attitudes toward foreign students in state universities may also alter the situation. Texas has recently enacted a law, for example, increasing foreign student tuition to ten times the former rate.

Trends in foreign student registration in U.S. colleges and universities clearly indicate the future of ESL teaching: in 1958, 47,000 students from abroad were enrolled; by 1968 there were 121,000; ten years later the total was 236,000 (Julian et al., 1979). Asian students are clearly increasing in numbers. The number of students from the Far Eastern areas is rather constant or declining slightly, so the increase is almost entirely due to the Southwest Asian OPEC nations. Latin American enrollments remain fairly constant at about 16% of the total.

The need for special programs in English as a second language in the public educational system will continue to grow. On the basis of general population trends, particularly of language-minority groups, it is clear that there will be continued concentrations of such persons in areas where they are now, and that the proportion of language-minority persons in the schools will increase over Anglo students. Moreover, the general trend in most states and in the courts is to enact laws that protect the educational rights of language-minority persons.

In the private sector as well, the need for special English language instruction is growing. Corporations involved in international trade and the transfer of American technology abroad need special pretechnical courses for their clients, especially in such high-technology industries as engineering/construction, energy, and computers. Those who provide programs to these industries--private international training corporations and universities--are enjoying a period of rapid growth as more and more industries observe the need and take steps to provide appropriate training programs.

Wherever a need exists, some kind of solution is possible. Through careful investigation of the precise nature of the needs, the characteristics of the language communities, and the capabilities of the investigating organizations, sound programs can and should be provided.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Documents identified by an ED number may be read on microfiche at an ERIC library collection or ordered from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210.

Adams, A. Hugh, in cooperation with Gail Ellyson and William Greene. 1978. Effective programming for foreign students in community and junior colleges. In The foreign student in United States community and junior colleges. New York, NY: College Entrance Examination Board, pp. 53-74.

Aitken, Kennedy G. 1977. Using cloze procedure as an overall proficiency test. TESOL Quarterly 11(1): 59-68.

Alston, Herbert L. 1977. Title IV-C pilot program: An educational needs projection model. ED 144 182.

Brière, Eugene J. 1978. Limited English speakers and the Miranda rights. TESOL Quarterly 12(3): 235-46.

Buckingham, Thomas. [Forthcoming.] Toward a pedagogical taxonomy of culture in intercultural communication. In Collected papers of Illinois TESOL/BE, John Haskell, ed. Chicago: Illinois TESOL/BE.

_____. 1979. The goals of advanced composition instruction. TESOL Quarterly 13(2): 241-54.

Burt, Marina and Heidi Dulay. 1978. Some guidelines for the assessment of oral language proficiency and dominance. TESOL Quarterly 12(2): 177-92.

Cohen, Andrew D. 1980. Testing language ability in the classroom. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Dakin, Robert. 1975. Notes on some problems in the needs, content, and objectives of college EFL programs. NAFSA Newsletter 26(4): 7-9.

Ellis, E.N. 1977. Survey of pupils in Vancouver schools for whom English is a second language. ED 144 361.

English, Carl. 1979. Serving people where they are. In The adult basic education TESOL handbook, D.E. Bartley, ed. New York: Collier Macmillan International.

Gay, Bill. 1975. That's what ESL programs are made of! NAFSA Newsletter 26(9): 7-10.

Gumperz, J. 1968. The speech community. In International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. New York: Macmillan, pp. 381-86.

Hawkey, Roger. 1980. Needs analysis and syllabus design for specific purposes. In Foreign language teaching: Meeting individual needs, H.B. Altman and C. Vaughan James, eds. New York: Pergamon Press.

Ilyin, Donna and Thomas Tragardh, eds. 1978. Classroom practices in adult ESL. Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Johnson, Dixon C. 1977. The TOEFL and domestic students: Conclusively inappropriate. TESOL Quarterly 11(1): 79-86.

Julian, Alfred C., Janet Lowenstein and Robert E. Slattery, eds. 1979. Open doors/1977-78 report on international educational exchange. New York: Institute of International Education.

Lesberg, Amy. 1978. ESL students in schools without an ESL program. NAFSA Newsletter 30(3): 49-67.

Mackay, Ronald and Alan J. Mountford, eds. 1978. English for specific purposes. London: Longman.

Medsker, Linda et al. 1977. Educational needs assessment of College of Alameda students enrolled during fall quarter 1976. ED 145 913.

Morray, Marjorie K. 1975. ESL in the small college. NAFSA Newsletter 26(10): 5-6.

Oller, John W., Jr. 1973. Discrete-point tests versus tests of integrative skills. In Focus on the learner, John W. Oller and Jack C. Richards, eds. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, pp. 184-99.

Oskarsson, Mats. 1978. Approaches to self-assessment in foreign language learning. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. ED 166 962.

Richterich, René and Jean-Louis Chancerel. 1977. Identifying the needs of adults learning a foreign language. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. ED 163 810.

Spolsky, Bernard. 1978. Educational linguistics. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Trim, John L.M. 1980. The place of needs analysis in the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project. In Foreign language teaching: Meeting individual needs, H.B. Altman and C. Vaughan James, eds. New York: Pergamon Press.

Trimble, Mary T., Louis Trimble and Karl Drobnic, eds. 1978. English for specific purposes: Science and technology. Corvallis, OR: English Language Institute, Oregon State University.

Waggoner, Dorothy. 1978. Non-English language background persons: Three U.S. surveys. TESOL Quarterly 12(3): 247-62.

Williams, Miriam Q. and Robert J. Labriole. 1977. The Pennsylvania migrant adult model curriculum resource guide: A needs assessment approach. ED 143 472.

Yorio, Carlos, Kyle Perkins and Jacquelyn Schachter, eds. On TESOL '79: The learner in focus. Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

The following books or articles are of special interest to readers who would like more detailed information on the topics covered in this publication.

Baron, Marvin J., ed. 1975. Advising, counseling, and helping the foreign student. Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs.

Although this monograph is not specifically aimed at English as a second language, it contains four articles and a bibliography on the more global problems of foreign students in American higher education institutions.

Crandall, Jo Ann. 1979. Adult vocational ESL. Language in Education series, no. 22. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics/ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. ED 176 592.

This helpful manual discusses the problems of adult vocational ESL programs and covers some important "basics" such as the language of the typical adult vocational student, literacy, motivation, and adaptation of materials. A sample lesson and extensive bibliography are appended.

Dieterich, Thomas and Cecilia Freeman. 1980. A linguistic guide to English proficiency testing in schools. Language in Education series, no. 23. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics/ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. ED 181 746.

A critique and catalog of curren[illegible] used measures of oral English proficiency.

Escobar, Joanna Sculley and John Daugherty. 1975. A teacher's planning handbook for developing the ESL/ABE instructional program. Arlington Heights, IL: Bilingual Education Service Center.

This handbook provides a brief discussion of the goals of adult ESL/ABE programs and presents material related to subjects to be covered, basic content of a typical course, a sample program design, and a chart assessing the usefulness of some commercially available materials. There is also a brief annotated bibliography of some English examinations w[illegible]y be appropriate to the clientele of adult vocational [illegible]s.

Harris, David P. 1969. Testing English as a second language. New York: McGraw-Hill.

The information in this book is basic to most testing procedures, including tests of specific skills and content areas, design and construction of tests, some basic test statistics, and aid in the interpretation and use of testing scores. Of help to the person wishing to construct objective tests, conduct interviews, or evaluate student writing.

Heath, Shirley B. 1978. Teacher talk: Language in the classroom. Language in Education series, no. 9. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics/ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. ED 158 575.

This manual presents some valuable information on the nature of the language used in the educational setting by classroom teachers. It presents useful insights into the kinds of language with which many ESL learners will have to become familiar, and has important implications for the ESL teacher in a public school setting.

Lange, Dale L. and Ray T. Clifford. 1980. Testing in foreign languages, ESL, and bilingual education, 1966-1979: A select, annotated ERIC bibliography. Language in Education series, no. 24. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics/ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. ED 183 027.

Contains virtually all references to foreign/second language testing entered into the ERIC database since its inception in 1966. One of the most comprehensive testing bibliographies ever compiled.

Manual for the volunteer as a teacher of English. Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs.

This short pamphlet is produced by the Community Section of NAFSA to assist untrained persons to do volunteer teaching of English in their communities. It provides the most urgently needed information quickly and in simple terms and includes a helpful list of "do's and don't's" and suggestions for further reading.

Robinett, Betty W., ed. 1977. Guidelines: English language proficiency. Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs.

This monograph is of particular interest to the teacher or program administrator in U.S. institutions of higher education. It discusses general English language proficiency and the matter of institutional policy toward non-native English speakers and includes discussions on the design and implementation of ESL intensive and non-intensive programs, the content of curricula, culture, and language skills. Appendices offer resources for tests of English, various services of interest, and a position

paper by the membership of the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language.

Spolsky, Bernard, ed. 1979. Some major tests. Advances in Language Testing series, no. 1. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Provides descriptions and reviews of a number of recent tests including TOEFL, the FSI Oral Interview, and the Bilingual Syntax Measure.

ORGANIZATIONS

The following list of organizations related to the teaching of English as a second language should help teachers and others identify resources for assistance in planning and implementing programs in English for the limited English speaker.

CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS
3520 Prospect Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20007
202/298-9292 (LORC toll free: 800/424-3701 or 3750)

CAL is a private, nonprofit organization that offers resources for expertise and information in many areas of linguistics, including English as a second or foreign language. Of special interest are the Center's publications, e.g., the Bilingual Education series, the Advances in Language Testing series, the Language in Education series, and the Indochinese/refugee education phrasebooks and textbooks. The Center operates the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, and the Language and Orientation Resource Center (formerly the National Indochinese Clearinghouse/Technical Assistance Center, and the Orientation Resource Center).

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
(located at the Center for Applied Linguistics)

ERIC/CLL collects and disseminates thousands of documents related to teaching and research in ESL and, with the Center for Applied Linguistics, publishes the Language in Education series. ERIC materials include bibliographies, articles, conference papers, reports of research, descriptions of projects, books, program evaluations, and so on.

EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE
Princeton, NJ 08540
609/921-9000

This commercial organization publishes and administers the Test of English as a Foreign Language, the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test, and the Test of Spoken English, all of which are designed for the non-native speaker. ETS provides interpretative and general information about these tests and about testing in general.

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION (IIE)
809 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017
212/883-8200

IIE is concerned with both the foreigner in the U.S.--students, visiting scholars, visitors, and businesspeople--and Americans who intend to go abroad. The organization provides information on educational and cultural aspects of U.S. life and offers a number of publications on international education, including an annual survey of foreign students in U.S. institutions and guides for the foreign student.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION (NABE)
1201 16th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
202/833-4271

NABE publishes a journal and other documents of interest primarily to bilingual educators.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR FOREIGN STUDENT AFFAIRS (NAFSA)
1860 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20009
202/462-4811

NAFSA is an organization of special interest to those whose work involves foreign students in American institutions of higher learning. There are five special groups within NAFSA, of which COMSEC (Community Section), ATESL (Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language), and ADSEC (Admissions Section) are probably of the most interest. NAFSA provides a free consultation service to any accredited U.S. institution of higher education.

NATIONAL CLEARINGHOUSE FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION
1300 Wilson Blvd.
Suite B2-11
Arlington, VA 22209
703/522-0710 (toll free: 800/336-4560)

The Clearinghouse publishes bibliographies, a newsletter, and guides to publishers as well as numerous documents on research in bilingual education and English as a second language. Free computer searches are available through the Clearinghouse.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana IL 61801

The NCTE has long been interested in the unique problems of the disadvantaged and the second language learner. It produces special publications related to these topics, and provides information to those interested in implementing ESL programs.

TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES (TESOL)
202 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington, DC 20057
202/625-4569

An international organization of professionals devoted to the teaching of English as a second language, TESOL publishes journals, monographs, and books, and can provide, on request, local contacts for those seeking information and assistance. TESOL maintains a placement service, sponsors local, national, and international conferences, and has local affiliates serving most areas of the country.

Thomas Buckingham (Ph.D., The Pennsylvania State University) is director of Thomas Buckingham Associates (Houston), a consultant firm specializing in English as a second language and intercultural communication and training. He has previously held academic positions at the American University of Beirut, University of Illinois, and University of Houston. He has held offices in numerous local, state, and national associations and is a former member of the executive committee of TESOL. Dr. Buckingham has published in TESOL Quarterly, English Teaching Forum, Communication Education, La Revista Bilingue, MEXTESOL Journal, and in On the Scope of Applied Linguistics (Robert B. Kaplan, ed., 1980).

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

The Language in Education series can be purchased by volume or by individual titles. The subscription rate is $32.00 per volume for Volumes 1 and 2; $37.00 for Volume 3; and $47.00 for Volume 4. Add $1.75 postage and handling charges for individual orders. D.C. residents add 6% sales tax. ALL ORDERS MUST BE PREPAID. To subscribe to the complete series of publications, write to:

Publications Department
Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street NW
Washington DC 20007

Below is a selected list of series titles:

Volume 1 (1977-78)

2. The Linguist in Speech Pathology, by Walt Wolfram. $2.95. ED 153 504
3. Graduate Theses and Dissertations in English as a Second Language: 1976-77, by Stephen Cooper. $2.95. ED 153 505
4. Code Switching and the Classroom Teacher, by Guadalupe Valdés-Fallis. $2.95. ED 153 506
5. Current Approaches to the Teaching of Grammar in ESL, by David M. Davidson. $2.95. ED 154 620
6. From the Community to the Classroom: Gathering Second-Language Speech Samples, by Barbara F. Freed. $2.95. ED 157 404
9. Teacher Talk: Language in the Classroom, by Shirley B. Heath. $2.95. ED 158 575
10. Language and Linguistics: Bases for a Curriculum, by Julia S. Falk. $2.95. ED 158 576

Volume 2 (1978-79)

14. Problems and Teaching Strategies in ESL Composition, by Ann Raimes. $2.95. ED 175 243
15. Graduate Theses and Dissertations in English as a Second Language: 1977-78, by Stephen Cooper. $2.95. ED 175 244
16. Foreign Languages, English as a Second/Foreign Language, and the U.S. Multinational Corporation, by Marianne Inman. $4.95. ED 179 089
21. Chicano English, by Allan A. Metcalf. $2.95. ED 176 591
22. Adult Vocational ESL, by Jo Ann Crandall. $5.95. ED 176 592

Volume 3 (1979-80)

23. A Linguistic Guide to English Proficiency Testing in Schools, by Thomas G. Dieterich and Cecilia Freeman. $5.95. ED 181 746

24. Testing in Foreign Languages, ESL, and Bilingual Education, 1966-1979: A Select, Annotated ERIC Bibliography, compiled by Dale L. Lange and Ray T. Clifford. $7.95. ED 183 027.

27. Graduate Theses and Dissertations in English as a Second Language: 1978-79, by Stephen Cooper. $2.95. ED 193 973

Volume 4 (1980-81)

35. ESL Theses and Dissertations: 1979-80, by Stephen Cooper. $3.25.

37. Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching, by Claire J. Kramsch. $7.00

38. Teaching Conversation Skills in ESL, by Ronald D. Eckard and Mary Ann Kearny. $4.50.

42. Indochinese Students in U.S. Schools: A Guide for Administrators. Language and Orientation Resource Center, CAL. $7.00.