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ABSTRACT

Guidelines for teaching English as a second language (ESL) are directed at teachers and teacher trainees. With an emphasis on teaching ESL quickly and efficiently to adults, the six chapters address teaching ESL to competencies, teaching ESL to nonliterate adults, vocational ESL, ESL instruction in the workplace, teaching ESL in the multilevel classroom, and coordinating and training volunteer tutors. Teaching methods, program designs, objectives, materials, and testing are among the topics considered. Each chapter includes suggested resources and reading. The appendix provides an outline of generic concerns and specific models for adult ESL. The six models presented are ESL for survival, literacy, basic skills, general vocational, occupation-specific, and home management. (RW)

From the Classroom to the Workplace:

TEACHING ESL TO ADULTS

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INTRODUCTION

Our Present

The field of adult nonacademic ESL has changed tremendously over the past ten years. Curricula, teaching methods and techniques, test materials, and assessment instruments have been developed to bring both the student and the classroom closer to the language needs of the real world. While there has been much ferment in the field, little has been written, and what has appeared has been scattered. The present volume, addressed to both teachers and teachers in training, brings together several articles on the important themes of present-day adult ESL. In their original form, these articles were part of CAL's Refugee Education Guide Series. They have been modified and edited to include the concerns of adult ESL for *all* non- and limited English speakers, not only refugees. They also reflect experience and thinking from all parts of the United States, and indeed the English-speaking world. The influx of refugees into the U.S., guest workers into England, and immigrants into Canada and Australia has forced us all to focus on the task of teaching ESL quickly and efficiently to those who need it to live and work in English-speaking societies.

This volume comprises six chapters, all of which deal with concerns of real English for the real world:

1. Teaching ESL to Competencies
2. Teaching ESL to Nonliterate Adults
3. Vocational ESL
4. ESL in the Workplace
5. Teaching ESL in the Multilevel Classroom
6. Coordinating and Training Volunteer Tutors

In addition, each chapter includes suggestions for further reading, and the appendix contains an outline of generic concerns and some specific models for adult ESL.

The chapter on teaching to competencies is placed first, because the incorporation of insights from competency-based instruction into the ESL curriculum is perhaps the most important recent breakthrough in adult ESL. Teaching to competencies involves teaching *by* and *to*

goals and objectives and calls for a demonstrated mastery of a task—in our case, a linguistic task. By teaching to competencies, language learning is broken down into manageable and immediately meaningful chunks, making the learning/teaching task easier for both student and teacher. Chapter One provides details about the efficacies of such a curriculum and the ways in which one goes about developing and teaching it.

Chapter Two addresses one of the major classroom problems in adult ESL: the non- or limited English-speaking student who is also non- or semiliterate. As teachers, we have learned to rely on the chalkboard and texts (even beginning texts) as essential teaching tools. With the nonliterate student, these tools are of little use. We have probably had nonliterates in our adult ESL classes for many years, but only recently have we designed any LSL programs specifically for them. These programs also teach survival skills language, but with an important distinction: they first address what it means to be a student, (e.g., sitting in a classroom, holding a pencil) and what it means to read and write and compute. Chapter Two provides some solutions to the teaching of ESL and literacy in the same environment and details steps that lead to successful literacy and language learning.

Chapters Three and Four both deal with English for earning a living; Chapter Three with training *for* a job and Chapter Four for training *on* the job. They are both relatively new phenomena in ESL, though they do share commonalities with university English-for-special-purposes courses in science and technology. Included in these chapters is a discussion of the type of English people need to get a job and to advance in a job. These may be generalizable skills, e.g., being able to read want ads, to understand signs on windows that say help wanted, to ask and answer basic questions about a job, to identify one's qualifications, to fill out a job application form, and to understand such things as fringe benefits, time clocks, and work and safety rules. Or they may be job-specific skills, e.g., the English of such occupations as electronic assembly, welding, carpentry, auto body repair, upholstery, clerical work, cosmetology, and paraprofessional health care. Both vocational and workplace ESL courses attempt to do two things: (1) to teach English that is needed to train for and do the job, and (2) to provide an introduction to the world of work and American work values. These two chapters provide insights into language teaching that are targeted toward the work needs of the learner; at the same time they help the teacher to be more effective and the employer to be part of the learning process.

Chapter Five looks at the problems of the multilevel classroom and presents some solutions to them. In adopting a competency-based cur-

riculum, teachers attempt to make all learning student centered. This becomes a difficult task when students with differing language abilities and different life goals are grouped in the same class. This chapter attempts to help teachers cope with this situation and use it creatively.

The last chapter addresses another real-world concern for adult ESL: the coordinating and training of volunteer tutors. Because of the continuing need for such tutors, many experienced ESL teachers are called upon to organize a volunteer program and even to take on the instruction of the tutors. Chapter Six looks at the steps involved in coordinating volunteers and offers suggestions for training volunteer instructors to plan and teach lessons.

The program design considerations presented in the Appendix are the results of a small national working conference, held in 1980, that brought together adult and ESL teachers and program administrators who had grappled with the problem of curriculum development for nonacademic second language students. All agreed that the profile of the adult student was not an easy one to draw. Adult ESL programs included a heterogeneous group of students with a variety of goals and objectives, who had very different educational backgrounds, cultural patterns, learning styles, and reasons for learning English. Few of them were on a straight vertical path to institutions of higher education, and many were likely to int rrupt their education. The participants identified some commonalities of effective adult program designs, including addressing such adult concerns as housing, basic subsistence, health, transportation, day care, food and nutrition, parental responsibilities, and education for children. Other needs of an adult ESL program were also addressed: intake and assessment issues, the previous education of the student, literacy versus nonliteracy, teaching in a formal versus nonformal situation, single class versus multilevel class, etc. More important than identifying the commonalities of effective adult program design, the participants specified six distinctive models of adult ESL programs:

- ESL/Survival
- ESL/Literacy
- ESL/Basic Skills
- ESL/General Vocational
- ESL/Occupation-Specific
- ESL/Home Management

All these models are treated in detail in this volume, either in the chapters themselves or in the suggested readings.

Our Past

The papers in this volume represent the cutting edge of adult ESL. They reflect insights gained from the field of language teaching as well as that of adult education. We have come a long way in the United States from the days of the night school citizenship class, and—before that—the practice of benign neglect of non- and limited English-speaking adults. England passed on to us the assumption that any non English-speaking adult found in an English-speaking milieu would sooner or later somehow become a fluent speaker of English. Little attention was paid here to the non-English speaker until after 1850 when the large-scale immigration from southern and eastern European countries took place. The immigrants brought with them linguistic and cultural diversity, which often meant their own neighborhoods, their own schools, and their own newspapers. In the early 1900s a movement began to "Americanize" the foreigner, and in 1914 the U.S. Bureau of Education began to sponsor programs for the education and assimilation of the immigrant. High on the list of courses in those programs was English as a second language. The public schools, especially night school (the "Americanization" school), between 1915 and 1925 offered courses on citizenship, English language, and how to look and act like an American to those immigrants who could not speak English and had "foreign ways." It should be noted that the acquisition of English for communication was indeed secondary to citizenship training or "Americanization" or how to act like the rest of us. The learning of English was, it seems, a by-product of the desire to teach American values and customs, but it was indeed a necessary step in becoming a citizen, since the citizenship exam was given in English.

There are many books that detail the Americanization schools of the teens and the twenties, but the book that perhaps best portrays what took place in most of those classes is the semifictitious *The Education of Hyman Kaplan.*[1]

The ESL and citizenship training are graphically described in the experiences of Mr. Kaplan, a Jewish immigrant to New York City. His stories reflect the classes of those years for immigrants in every large city in the U.S. and, to some extent, small towns and rural areas in the East and Midwest. The emphasis in English language learning was on grammatical correctness, on isolated vocabulary learning, and on learning through English about American history,

[1]Leo Rosten, *The Education of H*Y*M*A*N* K*A*P*L*A*N* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1965).

geography, government, and literature. I commend this book to any ESL teacher or would-be ESL teacher of adults.

During the next two decades, the whole field of language teaching was revolutionized, and, with it, the field of ESL for adults. In 1945 Charles Fries published *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*,[2] which capitalized upon many of the findings of the spoken language courses of the war years. It was the beginning of the audiolingual era. In the early 1950s texts started to appear for foreign student ESL, and in the late 50s newer texts began to replace the citizenship/grammar type of book that had dominated adult ESL for approximately 35 years.

The training in the 50s was based on several beliefs about language and language learning: first, that language was primarily oral; second, that it was structured and could be systematically described; and third, that language was habit and that habits were established by repetition and drill. The curricula and texts reflected these beliefs, but by the early 70s, the drills tended to be more meaningful rather than mechanical, and lexical items were chosen with emphasis upon their utility. During this same period, methods that challenged the audiolingual approach—The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response—also appeared, eventually filtering down to the adult education classroom. In the mid-70s, though, it was the adult education segment of ESL that led in innovation. Recognizing that effective teaching depended to a great extent upon the degree to which the learner's needs, expectations, and orientation to learning were compatible with the training they were receiving, ESL became more student centered and more specialized.

Our Future

The decade of the 80s is sure to see both further innovations in adult ESL theory and practice, and ever-increasing numbers of adult students in all the English-speaking countries. As is evident from the papers in this volume, some trends will continue, including

- student-centered, competency-based instruction;
- attention to the language of the world of work and survival; and
- the teaching of functional language for immediate use in real situations.

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[2]Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945).

Adult ESL has begun to move away from teaching language toward teaching communication, with language being its single most important component. The challenge before the ESL professional is to refine the ways in which we help adults to make communication choices.

Aliene Guss Grognet, Associate Director
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1. TEACHING ESL TO COMPETENCIES

INTRODUCTION

Adult learning theory has taught us that adults' orientation to learning is experience centered. They do not begin by studying "subjects" that may someday prove useful; they begin by learning for and from the situations in which they find themselves. This is in direct opposition to our academic system in which "subjects" come first, and students' learning styles are secondary. Yet a look at the titles and contents of the many and varied ESL texts and materials that have been used to teach English to nonnative adult speakers would quickly reveal that the language is typically viewed as an academic subject.

These texts are classified into four basic content areas--grammar, pronunciation, reading, and writing; each one, in turn, is further broken down into its component parts. For example, grammar texts contain verb tenses sequenced by complexity; pronunciation texts contain lessons on specific consonants and vowels; reading texts contain material whose level of difficulty is determined by sentence length and grammatical complexity as well as the number of new vocabulary items; and writing texts contain instruction that runs the gamut from how to write simple sentences to full-fledged essays.

English grammatical structures have traditionally constituted the basis of a majority of ESL programs in the U.S. Thus, for example, ESL for the student whose aim is to enroll in an American university focuses on English grammar and/or writing (in addition to reading and studying skills), depending on the student's level of proficiency. Adult immigrants, on the other hand, who have a need to speak the language in order to cope in our English-speaking society, are given instruction in "conversational" English, which usually consists of grammar and pronunciation lessons.

The problem with most academic approaches to language teaching is that they may not provide a meaningful context for the use of language. Students of ESL are traditionally taught the grammatical "pieces" of the language and how to manipulate those pieces, but they

are not usually taught how to use the language for their individual communicative purposes. Although the situational approach, which gave us texts with unit titles such as "At the Doctor's Office" or "At the Post Office," was a step in the right direction, lessons were still, for the most part, grammatically based. Teachers had little more than a set of dialogues and lists of useful vocabulary from which to create the necessary context for meaningful learning to take place.

In recent years, large numbers of adult refugees and immigrants with little or no experience with classroom learning situations have enrolled in ESL programs, making us acutely aware that our materials and approaches to teaching ESL are inappropriate and inadequate These adults have an immediate need for English language survival skills as well as the minimum language skills necessary to obtain an entry-level job, they need language instruction that is both effective and time-efficient. Adult refugees and immigrants simply do not have the luxury of spending twenty, ten, or even five hours a week for one or two years in a traditional ESL program to learn the language; nor, in fact, is there any assurance that a great deal of time spent in such a program would provide these learners with what they actually need. Some adult immigrants, already schooled in grammar, who enroll in an ESL course to learn how to use the language appropriately, may suddenly stop coming to class once they recognize that their ESL class is not enabling them to improve their language skills or use the language more satisfactorily. All adult learners have work obligations and/or family and community responsibilities that must be fulfilled; therefore, they are entitled to language training that is relevant, flexible, effective, and efficient. Fortunately, two recent developments—one among language teachers in Europe, and one among adult educators in the U.S.—have helped to meet this need.

Functional language teaching, developed in Europe in the 1970s, is one attempt at making language learning more flexible, relevant, and effective. Designed for adult learners, functional language teaching identifies explicit learning objectives that consist of language functions (such as giving facts, making a request, asking permission, making a suggestion, and apologizing) and are tied to topic-related notions Students are then taught to use these language functions in various situations Grammar and vocabulary are taught, but only as they relate to the performance of these communicative functions.

At about the same time as the functional approach was developing in Europe, competency based education (CBE) was gaining popularity in the U.S. Most commonly used as the basis for Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs, over five years of successful implementation have begun to convince ESL practitioners that the principles of

competency-based education are applicable to second language teaching. After all, ESL classes account for at least one-third of all ABE courses, so it should come as no surprise that teachers of ESL to adults would eventually turn to competency-based teaching as well. Teaching to competencies can be advantageous whether the skills being taught are for a high school equivalency diploma or for coping in a new environment in a second language.

COMPETENCIES AND THE APL STUDY

"What is a competency?" you may ask. "Where did this concept come from?" "How do I teach to it?" Since teaching to competencies is relatively new in ESL, we must take a look at the recent history of Adult Basic Education, and in particular the Adult Performance Level (APL) Study that generated the competencies that became the foundation for ABE curriculum development and assessment. This will offer a better understanding of what the concepts of "competency" and "competency-based education" actually entail.

In 1971, the Department of Adult Education of the U.S. Office of Education commissioned a special study to identify the skills necessary for an adult to function successfully in today's society. This four-year study, conducted by the University of Texas at Austin, identified these skills by observing and analyzing the tasks an adult needs to perform in everyday life.

The APL Study identified 65 competencies an adult must be able to perform to function in society by integrating four basic skill areas (communication, computation, problem solving, and interpersonal relationships) with five knowledge areas (occupational, consumer, health, government and law, and community resources).

Figure 1 is an illustration of some of the types of competencies that can emerge when the skill areas are applied to the knowledge areas. The communication skill in this figure has been broken down into three subcomponents: (1) reading, (2) writing, and (3) speaking, listening, viewing. This breakdown of the communication skill is especially useful to the ESL professional, whose focus would naturally be on communication. Note that many of the tasks (for example, to "read a sale ad" or to "fill out a job application") are objectives that can and should be taught within the context of an ESL class.

For our purposes, then, a competency is a task-oriented goal written in terms of behavioral objectives, which include language behavior. Once the competency has been identified, it also serves as a means of evaluating student performance. For example, that a student "can (or will be able to) use the telephone" (in English!) is a competency that we may teach toward and/or test. Of course, in theory,

Fig. 1. *API Model of Functional Competency: Selected Examples of Tasks*[1]

General Knowledge and Content Areas

Basic Skills	Consumer Economics	Occupational Knowledge	Health	Community Resources	Government and Law
Reading	Read a sale ad	Read a job description	Read first aid directions	Read a movie schedule	Read about rights after arrest
Writing		Fill out a job application	Complete a medical history form		
Speaking, Listening, Viewing	Ask questions about buying on credit	Follow job safety rules (directions)	Follow a doctor's directions	Use the telephone	Describe an accident
Problem Solving	Decide which apartment to rent	Decide which job is suitable	Decide when to go to a hospital emergency room	Use stamp machines in the post office	Decide which candidate to vote for
Interpersonal Relations	Relate to a sales clerk	Succeed in a job interview		Ask directions	Interact with police successfully
Computation	Compute sales tax	Calculate paycheck deductions			

[1]Adapted from Kasworm, *Competency-Based Adult Education: A Challenge for the 80s.*

an ESL competency may have a purely grammatical (structural) objective: "The student will be able to use the third person present singular -s appropriately," for example. However, this is *not* what we are talking about when we speak of competencies here. This will become clearer later when we discuss writing competency statements.

CBE AND ESL

As is probably evident by now, using competencies as the basis for curriculum design is a departure from the traditional academic view that language instruction should be based on purely linguistic features. Teaching ESL to competencies requires that the instructional focus be on functional competencies and life-coping skills while developing the spoken (or written) English structures necessary to perform these skills. It is not what the students *know about* the language, but what they can *do with* the language.

Since there is no prescriptive methodology inherent in competency-based education, the instructor or program director is free to choose the most appropriate approach. This includes the possibility of narrowing or widening the scope of learning and varying the sequence of teaching. All instructors of adults should make optimal provisions for the differences in style and pace of learning that will be encountered. This freedom of choice in language-teaching methodology and the scope and sequence of learning allows instructors to take into consideration the individual differences that increase with age.

However, this is not the only advantage of using a competency-based approach to ESL; there are many more. But there are also drawbacks. A detailed list of the pros and cons of teaching ESL to competencies follows.

Advantages

Relevancy. By teaching competencies actually required for successful functioning on the job, in life, or whatever, the purpose of the learning situation is never an issue. Adults are likely to learn more easily when the usefulness for common tasks is clear.

Motivation. In order to keep motivation high, language cannot be taught in isolation. For example, teaching the present perfect tense for its own sake is rarely a motivating force. By teaching to competencies, teachers no longer have to teach English in isolation from daily experience; natural contexts are provided. When the present perfect tense is necessary to perform a certain competency, then it is taught.

Concrete goals. When the focus of an ESL lesson is a specific competency, students know what is expected of them, thus decreasing the natural feeling of anxiety when facing the unknown. After master-

ing the competency, the student is likely to feel a sense of accomplishment In a traditional beginning ESL class, students rarely feel a sense of satisfaction because they haven't learned language that is immediately useful outside the classroom.

Having concrete goals benefits not only students but also instructors Teaching to competencies decreases the chances of losing focus. It is not uncommon for an ESL teacher to be side-tracked into a pronunciation lesson while teaching a grammar point to students with poor pronunciation. However, when the purpose is a defined objective that entails a specific outcome, the chance of forsaking one skill in favor of another is greatly decreased. The teacher's focus is on the skill or skills that will enable the student to master the objective.

Flexibility. As mentioned earlier, competency-based teaching is quite flexible in terms of time. Students are not expected to learn the entire language (all the verb tenses, for example) before using it. Adult students have immediate needs, and the language needed for a specific competency can be taught and *used* immediately. Furthermore, competency-based ESL is also flexible in terms of the various means available for achieving its goals. Teachers can use their preferred methods, materials, and techniques, or any combination thereof. This also gives the student more variety, which is desirable since some learn better by one method than another.

Opportunity for individualization. Since there are no prescribed time limits, students can develop competencies at their own pace; some will master the competencies faster than others. Since many of the language skills required to perform a certain competency will be reintroduced in the learning of other competencies, the content of the lessons is naturally recycled. Moreover, students an develop competencies at their own level of language ability. For example, being able to request an item in a store may be a desirable competency both for students with 0-level proficiency and for students at a higher level. The language specified for the 0-level students may be "Matches, please," but at a higher level it may be "Do you have any matches? I need three boxes." This opportunity for individualization leads naturally to the next advantage.

No failures. All students get several chances for mastery, since teachers may use the performance of competencies as a basis for assessment If students cannot master a certain competency the first time, they will be able to in subsequent lessons. As mentioned above, some of the language will reappear in different competencies. Thus, the opportunity for review and reinforcement of language skills is great Moreover, the usually disastrous effects of absenteeism (which is always high among adults who have family and work responsibilities) can be offset; the student may miss the presentation of a

language structure taught with one competency, but may pick it up when it is reintroduced within the context of another competency. This is not true of the traditional ESL class; in that situation, if a student misses question formation, for example, he or she may not have another opportunity to learn it in the entire course.

Built-in assessment. Since teaching to competencies is performance based, assessment rests on whether the student can perform the competency or not. The only problem is to establish the *level* at which the student can perform the competency, i.e., minimally, proficiently, or maximally. Since assessment is such an important part of a competency-based approach, a later section will be entirely devoted to that topic.

Problems

Identifying competencies. So much is involved in successful performance (especially in terms of language skills) that it is difficult to define the competencies associated with "success," or even proficiency.

No guarantees. Even if a student proves competent in performing a simulated task in a classroom situation, or in a task outside the classroom, there are no guarantees that that student will be able to do so when it is necessary later on.

Assessment. Although built-in assessment has been mentioned as an advantage, it can also be a problem, because a true level of competency is difficult to assess. Moreover, valid and reliable competency-based ESL assessment instruments are only starting to become available.

DEVELOPING A COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH FOR ESL

Identifying Needs

Before deciding which competencies (and the language inherent in them) to teach, the instructor must first identify and rank the students' needs. Adults come to class with goals, and class activities should be clearly relevant to those goals to encourage the adult student to learn.

There are several ways to identify the specific competencies students need and/or want to learn. Teachers can simply ask them what they need to know or are interested in learning, or they can have the students respond to a list of prespecified competencies. Another approach may be to ask experts or providers of services (for example, employers or social workers) what students generally need to do Or

the instructor may opt to analyze what people do in relation to performing certain activities such as looking for an apartment or a job.

However, this is all very time consuming, and unless bilingual assistance is available, the teacher may not be able to ask the students directly what they want to learn; moreover, it may not be culturally appropriate. In addition, specific competencies are rarely applicable to all individuals. Location, sex, age, and ethnic background of the students will affect which competencies they need to be taught. For example, someone who lives in the city will need to be taught the public transportation system (bus or subway), whereas someone living in a more rural area must first be taught about cars and drivers' licenses. Or a person who works or intends to work has different needs from the homemaker who has to interact with the community for daily necessities.

There are some textbooks that have been specifically developed for use in CBE/ESL programs. In addition, there are others that are adaptable for use with a CBE/ESL syllabus. These are listed at the end of this guide. Rather than beginning with nothing, the instructor may want to use these as a starting point to develop the competencies that will be taught. However, it is important to keep in mind the *purpose* and *level* of the class when doing this.

Purpose. Keeping the purpose of the class in mind means asking *what are the students going to do with the language*? In an ABE or refugee ESL class, this may be divided into six possible categories: survival, literacy, basic skills, general vocational, occupation-specific, or home management.

For example, if the students are newly arrived in this country, they have immediate orientation needs. By focusing on survival ESL, the teacher can give them the knowledge and language to deal with obtaining food, clothing, housing, transportation, and health care, among other things. If they are also nonliterate, the focus should then be on giving them some basic literacy skills (such as reading signs, filling out forms), which is also an aid in learning more of the language. On the other hand, if the students are all in the job market, the instructor should be focusing on teaching them the language necessary to get and keep a job; or if the students are women or elderly people who do not work, the competency objectives should include teaching the language of cleaning, shopping, budgeting, and emergencies, for example.

Of course, all the students in one class do not have the same goal. Some may want to get a job, while others may already have one; these categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, some students may have a need for both literacy and survival skills, or both basic skills and general vocational English skills. However, the

teacher must know which areas to focus on before writing the competencies, for it would be very difficult to write competencies for all six categories at once.

Level. The purpose of a class is often (although not necessarily) tied to the *level* of the class. A good example of this is the student who wants to find a job, but, as a recent arrival with little or no knowledge of the language, needs to learn some survival English first. Similarly, a student with no knowledge of the language at all may also need literacy training. (For more information on teaching ESL/Literacy, see Chapter 2, "Teaching ESL to Nonliterate Adults.")

However, it is also quite possible to write and teach competency objectives at different levels, if the level can be identified. For example, in an ESL class preparing students for jobs, we can assume that one of the competencies is "Student will be able to follow and give directions."

At a lower level, the directions would be simple, e.g., "Open the door, Stand up, Sit down, Raise your right hand," etc. At a higher level, however, the directions could be much more complex: "Take 3 sheets of paper, staple them together, fold them in thirds, and then

Fig. 2. *Teaching the Same Competencies at Different Levels*

"Student will be able to describe symptoms"
"Student will be able to follow doctor's advice"

	Level I	Level II	Level III
Speaking	My (body part) hurts This hurts I'm / He's / She's { sick / dizzy }	I have a _____ ache. He / She } has a sore_____. My _____ aches	I have / He has / She has } a { pain / cramp in { my / his_____ / her I can't + V (bend down)
Listening	What's the matter? What's wrong? Take _____ aspirin(s) Stay { in bed / home }	How do you feel? Where does it hurt? Take (something) 4x a day Call me	Are you in pain? Can you + V? { before / after } meals
Sight Words (Reading)		Can distinguish between over the counter and prescription medicine	Can read medicine label instructions
Writing			Can write note to teacher excusing child for absence due to illness
New Structures	Present tense be (singular forms) Present tense 3rd person singular	Present tense have (singular forms) Review plural nouns (s)	Possessives: my / his / her (Neg.) modal + V

put them in an envelope." No matter what the specific content, the teacher would still be teaching to the same competency. Figure 2 illustrates this notion more clearly. Not included on this chart is the identification of body parts, which may be a prerequisite or a part of the lesson at all three levels. Arrows indicate that the content of Level I is assumed at Level II, the content of which, in turn, is assumed at Level III.

Competency-based curricula/lesson plans written for different levels of language ability are useful in multilevel classrooms, in programs that allow movement of students within and between cycles, and in programs where accurate means of placement are unavailable.

Writing Competency Statements

Writing competency statements may appear quite simple initially; however, it is important to make a distinction between the competency objective, which may be the ultimate goal, and the teaching objective. For example, the competency goal may be "Student will be able to communicate with the doctor" or "Student will be able to use the public transportation system." However, in order to be useful, these general statements should be written in terms of teaching objectives, and, as such, should be more narrowly focused.

The best way to do this is to begin with the topics that are going to be taught, that is, the topics the students need to learn about. For example, in a survival ESL class the following topics may be appropriate:

- housing
- food (includes shopping)
- clothing
- transportation
- money
- personal information
- telephone
- health
- emergencies

In a general vocational ESL class, however, the following topics may be taught:

- filling out job applications
- reading want ads
- work rules
- payroll and fringe benefits
- career exploration
- telephone
- public transportation
- appropriate work behavior
- following directions
- job interviews

"Public transportation" should be narrowed down into teachable objectives. The same is true of the other topics that are relevant to the purpose of the course. The next steps are to establish priorities among these topics, according to students' needs, and to describe *ex-*

actly what skills are going to be taught within each topic area. The topics are not necessarily mutually exclusive (transportation and telephone appear in both lists); however, the teaching objectives for those topics may differ.

The following are possible teaching objectives for some of the topics listed for survival ESL:

- Food
  Student will be able to identify common food items from each food group.
  Student will be able to ask for these items.
  Student will be able to read name and price labels.
  Student will be able to purchase these items and verify the correct change.
- Money
  Student will be able to count, read, and write numbers 1-100.
  Student will be able to identify coins by name (e.g., nickel, dime) and amount.
  Student will be able to identify bills.
  Student will be able to give the correct amount of money upon request.
  Student will be able to give correct change.
- Personal Information
  Student will be able to give name, address, telephone number, and age upon request.
  Student will be able to ask for name, address, and telephone number of other persons.
  Student will be able to identify family members by name and relationship.
  Student will be able to write name, address, telephone number, and age in appropriate place on form.

As is evident, most of these teaching objectives can be broken down further; this is desirable in order to attain, or at least introduce, each teaching objective within one class period or less. This way the students always leave class having learned *something*, and the teacher does not have to stay with the same topic (or competency objective) for so long that the students become bored and lose motivation. The instructor can then go on to a teaching objective in a different (but perhaps related) topic area and return to other objectives from the previous topic area at a later time. This builds in review and spiraling of content quite naturally. It also allows the teacher to avoid having to follow a strict sequencing that may not be appropriate to the needs of a particular group of students. Figure 3, an illustration of five competency-based modules in a possible sequence,

indicates this notion of spiraling more clearly.

The blanks in Figure 3 have been left on purpose in order to focus attention on how sequencing of competencies (which is flexible) can spiral the content of lessons, creating opportunities for review, reinforcement, and the building of "success" experiences.

As shown here, students are first taught competency skills relating to money that surface again in Food I. C. and Clothing I. C.; these skills are further extended in Food II. C. and Clothing II. C. Also note that the competencies listed in Food I and Clothing I are quite similar; the structures introduced to attain the competencies in Food I will be reinforced in the learning of competencies in Clothing I. Thus, the learning tasks become easier since much of the language is already familiar to the student.

Fig. 3. *Spiraling Content*

Topic	Competencies	Speaking	Listening	Sight Words	Writing	New Structures
Money I	A Student will be able to identify coins by name (e.g., dime) and number B Student will be able to identify bills C Student will be able to give the correct amount of money upon request					
Food I	A Student will be able to identify common food items B Student will be able to ask for and locate these food items C Student will be able to read price labels on items					
Clothing I	A Student will be able to identify common items of clothing B Student will be able to ask for and locate items C Student will be able to read price tags on items					
Food II	A Student will be able to read food name labels B Student will be able to read and use coupons for grocery items C Student will be able to make food purchases and verify correct change					
Clothing II	A Student will be able to express and ask for appropriate size B Student will be able to identify size tags C Student will be able to make clothing purchase and verify correct change					

The four skills are listed separately; some competencies involve only one skill, while others involve more than one. Anything listed in the "speaking" column is also assumed in the "listening" column. When competencies do not involve reading (sight words) and writing skills, these columns are left blank. Organizing a curriculum and/or lesson plan in this manner prevents the introduction of too many skills at once, which overloads the students, especially low-level ones. This way the students can focus their attention on individual skills as they come into play within the same topic area. (For example, note that the reading of labels is introduced separately.)

Specifying the Content of Teaching Objectives

After having identified topic areas and the teaching objectives within each area, the teacher can specify the language skills necessary for attaining these objectives, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Fig. 4. *Specifying Language Skills*
(Topic: Food)

Competencies	Speaking	Listening	Sight Words (Reading)	Writing
Student will be able to identify common food items		I want a(n)_____. I like_____. (plural) Show me / Point to / Give me the_____. / a(n)_____.		
Student will be able to ask for and locate these food items	Where {is / are} the_____? I need some_____. In aisle (3)_____ On the {top / bottom} shelf.	It's / They're {dairy / meat / vegetable} section		
Student will be able to read food name labels			tomatoes carrots lettuce apples milk eggs juice meat bread rice	
Student will be able to make shopping list				eggs sugar milk bread rice tomatoes

The teacher may also want to specify the grammatical structures introduced in each objective in order to keep an inventory of them

and to make sure that students get sufficient exposure to and practice with the same structure. In addition, the textbook and materials may be identified, and the activities needed to teach the objectives listed in the chart may also be specified. Remember, there are no limitations to any particular teaching methodology or technique. *Any* approach may be used in order to fulfill the objective. An expanded chart will include the sections illustrated in Figure 5.

Fig. 5. *Materials and Activities*[1]

New Structures	Materials and Activities
	English for Adult Competency I—pp. 36-38 (Keltner) *English for the 21st Century*—Unit 7 (Iwataki) Visuals Realia Give me_____. Total physical response activity: Point to_____. Show me_____
(Review plural s) count vs. non count nouns some, a	*English for Adult Competency I*—p. 32 (Keltner) *Notion by Notion*—p. 10 (Ferreira) Dialogue Repetition and substitution drills Role play
	Flashcards Visuals Matching exercises (word-picture) (word-word) Realia (food labels) Total physical response activity Give me_____ (the can of peas)
	Handout Vegetables _____ _____ Dairy _____ etc _____ _____

[1]All textbooks listed here are given in complete bibliographic form at the end of the chapter

The chart can be further extended with other information that the instructor may care to clarify, such as minimal vocabulary, pronunciation problems to be drilled, and even cultural considerations (which include cultural orientation information to be given to the students in their native language, if possible). All of this, of course, is optional.

ASSESSMENT

As stated earlier, among the many advantages of teaching to competencies is the fact that assessment is built in. The task of assessing what the student has learned becomes clear, since the real-life teaching objectives have been specified. Performance of the stated

competency clearly demonstrates whether the student has internalized what has been taught.

On the other hand, it will be very difficult to ask a student to perform a stated competency if the language used in writing the teaching objectives is not clearly performable. Teaching objectives must be narrowly focused. It is useless to state, "Student will *understand* spoken directions," because one cannot ask students to demonstrate or perform "understanding." By the same token, one cannot state, "Student will be familiar with the local transportation system," since "being familiar with" cannot be performed. However, it *is* possible to state, "Student will *respond appropriately* to spoken directions" or "Student will be able to *ask about* bus fares," since these tasks can be performed. Thus, it is very important to use language that is both specific and focused when writing competency-based teaching objectives.

Competency based assessment usually implies a departure from the traditional pencil and paper approach to testing in favor of performance. However, this largely depends on the nature of the competency objective. For example, in order to assess whether a student can ask or give directions, pencil and paper are quite unnecessary. On the other hand, if the teacher wants to know if a student can fill out a job application properly, pencil and paper must be used.

Competency based assessment traditionally consists of pre- and post-testing, thus, the same testing instrument can be used for diagnosis or *placement* in the program (whose levels may be determined by the various competencies that appear at different points in the curriculum) as well as *achievement* at the end of the cycle or semester. However, rather than waiting to test all the competencies taught in a semester, it may be preferable to do achievement testing periodically during the semester.

This kind of testing can be done either formally or informally through the use of a checklist (see Figure 6). It is possible to designate one day of the week or month as "Review" and then informally check off whether the students could perform the competency or not. Another possibility is to announce the testing day(s) so that students are aware that they are being assessed. Using a combination of both approaches to assessment throughout the course is probably best.

Some teachers feel very uncomfortable with this "can" or "can't" approach to assessment. What about the student who performs the competency (for example, requesting an item of food), but whose grammar is faulty? Should that student get the same check for "success" as one who also performs the competency, but with perfect grammar? The answer to that question largely depends on what the students'

Fig. 6. *Competency Checklist*

	Competency			
Student Name	Can describe own and others' feelings	Can identify and describe parts of the body	Can identify and describe symptoms	Can use phone to call doctor
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				

goals are and what the teacher defines as "successful completion."

The teacher may want to set up a rating scale as follows (perhaps in consultation with the students):

0 - could not perform
1 - performs minimally (communicates, but lacks structure)
2 - performs adequately, etc.

However, if a rating scale is used, the teacher should be careful not to set up too many distinctions, as this would result in the assessment's becoming too subjective. Obviously this type of testing is not standardized and would not meet strict testing requirements of reliability and validity. However, this type of testing does have face validity and is a good indication of the students' progress as it relates to the curriculum. Moreover, it also provides feedback on the effec-

tiveness of instruction.

Competency-based instruments can also be used to test general *proficiency*. The Center for Applied Linguistics, in conjunction with the Office of Refugee Resettlement Region I, has developed a competency-based proficiency test of survival skills. This test consists of two sections: (1) a core section that tests, via visual stimuli, only listening and speaking skills, and (2) a supplementary test of (survival) reading and writing skills, which is administered if the student attains a certain score on section (1). This test, called the Basic English Skills Test, is available from the Center for Applied Linguistics, P.O. Box 4866, Hampden Station, Baltimore, MD 21211.

CONCLUSION

It is our hope that the concept and usefulness of competency-based teaching for ESL are now evident. We have attempted to outline a step-by-step approach for implementing a competency-based curriculum in an individual program or classroom; the reader should keep in mind that all the examples presented in this chapter are only models upon which to develop his or her own competency objectives, according to the particular needs of individual students.

The mere possession of facts or information (the grammatical structures of a language, for example) does not assure the ability to function; thus, the ability to function adequately can be our only measure of success. Competency-based language instruction provides the framework for measuring this success. We must not forget that our goal for our adult students, whether they are refugees or immigrants, educated or uneducated, is to enable them to be self-sufficient and function adequately in our society.

Suggestions for Further Reading

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.

Adult Performance Level Staff. 1977. *Adult functional competency—final report.* Austin, TX: University of Texas.

Adult Literacy and Basic Education (periodical). Auburn, AL: Auburn University (203 Petrie Hall)
(Note: see especially Vol. 3, No. 3—Fall, 1979.)

Berg, Joann LaPerla and Beverly Galley Schwartz. 1980. Don't bother us . . . we can cope: CBE for ESL. In *The CB reader.* Upper Montclair, NJ: National Adult Education Clearinghouse, Montclair State College. ED 199 572.

Fisher, Joan. 1978. A review of competency-based adult education. In *Report of the USOE Invitational Workshop on Adult Competency Education.* ED 162 147.

James, Waynne B. 1980. What APL is—and is not. In *The CB reader.* Upper Montclair, NJ: National Adult Education Clearinghouse, Montclair State College. ED 199 572.

Kasworm, Carol. 1980. *Competency-based adult education: A challenge of the 80's.* Information Series No. 208. Columbus, OH: ERIC/ACVE. ED 193 528.

———— and Buddy Lyle. 1979. *Proceedings of a national invitational workshop on competency-based adult education.* Austin, TX: University of Texas.

Keltner, Autumn A. and Leann B. Howard. 1979. The integration of competency-based education into an adult English as a second language program. In *Proceedings of a national invitational workshop on competency-based education.* Austin, TX: University of Texas.

Knowles, Malcolm. 1973. *The adult learner: A neglected species.* Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Co.

Parker, James T. and Paul G. Taylor, eds. 1980. *The CB reader.* Upper Montclair NJ: National Adult Education Clearinghouse, Montclair State College. ED 199 572.

Resource Materials

Ferreira, Linda. *Notion by notion.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

A beginning ESL practice book, organized into 40 units that treat such notions as remembering, suggesting, and describing things, as well as such survival topics as health, food, directions, and shopping for clothes. Each unit also focuses on the language structures and patterns needed to express the particular notion; many exercises and activities for speaking, reading, and writing are included. A useful review of survival English; however, it is not meant to be used as an introduction to survival ESL for the lowest-level refugee student.

Iwataki, Sadae et al. 1975/76. *English as a second language: A new approach for the twenty-first century.* Arlington Heights, IL: Delta Systems.

Vol. I	Teacher's manual, Lessons 1-40
Vol. II	A—Student's book, Lessons 1-20
	B—Student's book, Lessons 21-40
Vol. III	Visuals for Lessons 1-40

Vol. IV	(Transparencies no longer available)
Vol. V	Supplement for Chinese students
*Vol. VI	Intermediate course
*Vol. VII	Visuals for intermediate course
*Vol. VIII	Pronunciation lessons
	Visuals for pronunciation lessons
*Vol. IX	Bridging the Asian language and cultural gap
Vol. X	Supplement for Vietnamese students
Vol. XI	Supplement for Cambodian students
Vol. XII	Supplement for Spanish students
Vol. XIII	Supplement for Laotian students

Cassettes for Lessons 1-40
Worksheets for Lessons 1-40

(* Not available from Delta. Originally published by Modulearn, these materials are now available from Bilingual Educational Services, Inc., South Pasadena, CA.)

A survival course developed for Asian adult students on the West Coast, and for that reason particularly appropriate for refugee students, especially those with little or no educational background. The series has been widely and successfully used with refugees since 1975, both in survival classes and as the first lap of extensive programs. (Caution: Vol. VI, the intermediate course, does *not* take up where Vol. II ends!) The supplements for Chinese, Vietnamese, and Cambodian students are translations of the dialogue and model sentences of Lessons 1-40 into the different languages. The teacher's manual is explicit, and written with the inexperienced ESL teacher in mind. The pronunciation lessons are aimed at Spanish, Chinese, Korean, and Tagalog speakers, and do not tackle the particular problems of the Vietnamese, Lao, Hmong, and Cambodian refugees; the visuals are useful in refugee classes, however. The worksheets were designed to be used with the cassettes but can be used independently as well. A separate literacy component was published by Modulearn in 1980, and another new literacy component from Delta Systems has come out recently. Both are designed to accompany the earlier lessons and are described in this bibliography's section on literacy. Modulearn's literacy program is presently being distributed by Bilingual Education Services, Inc.

Keltner, Autumn. 1980. *English for adult competency, Books I and II.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

A language survival skills text that focuses on the following situations: personal identification, food and money, health, transporta-

tion, housing, clothing, looking for a job, banking and postal services, and community resources. The text is nonsequential and employs a minimum of structures. It emphasizes the oral language patterns and vocabulary needed in daily life. There are pre- and post-tests for each unit with functional/competency objectives; particular language structures are not tested. Book II expands the concepts of each unit found in Book I and includes more difficult structures. The text is designed to give the adult student as much practice as possible. The only drawback to this text is the lack of a teacher's manual, making it an impractical choice for an inexperienced teacher or tutor.

Nelson, Gayle and Thomas Winters. 1980. *ESL operations: techniques for learning while doing.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

This book, aimed at upper beginning and above, combines language with real actions in over 40 situations. In each section, the operations are sequenced according to difficulty; students must comprehend, say, and do basic simple operations (such as set an alarm clock, pound a nail, write a check). Useful for teaching comprehension of the basic command verbs (e.g., put, set, fold, raise, take, etc.) that a student would encounter in an employment situation. Also prepares students to give and follow directions.

Oxford University Press. 1979. *Oxford picture dictionary of American English: Wall charts.* New York: Oxford University Press.

A set of twenty-five 16" x 20" full-color vocabulary charts that are enlargements of particular illustrations from the Oxford Picture Dictionary. Pictures are on one side and the keyed vocabulary words are listed on the other. The emphasis is on high-frequency vocabulary; these charts are excellent for class use at almost any level.

Parnwell, E. C. 1978. *Oxford picture dictionary of American English.* New York: Oxford University Press.

A delightful picture dictionary for adults that has proved to be very popular with refugees of all ages and levels of English. The pictures are either scenes (e.g., a depiction of a downtown area) with the various elements labeled, or pictures of individual objects (e.g., animals, vegetables). The pictures are line drawings with colors, simple enough to be clear but detailed enough to be explicit. All in all, about 2,000 words are illustrated. There is an index of all the words in back, with a guide to pronunciation. The dictionary is available in English only, in English and Spanish, or in English with a French index.

Romijn, Elizabeth and Contee Seely. 1979. *Live action English for foreign students.* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Although not a complete course, this book is a useful supplement to other materials aimed at beginning and intermediate students. One of the first books based on total physical response, it consists of 66 series of commands to be acted out and produced by the students. These commands are based on survival situations (e.g., grocery shopping, using a pay phone) and survival vocabulary (e.g., washing your hands, changing a light bulb) and vary in level of difficulty. Detailed directions for instructors and suggestions for adaptation are included.

Savage, K. Lynn et al. 1982. *English that works.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co. (Lifelong Learning Division).

Books 1-2
Instructor's guides
Cassettes 1-2 (set of 6 tapes)
Flashcards (set of 150)
Cultural notes 1-2

Although designed for a prevocational or vocational ESL course, this text can definitely be used as a course text. Described as an integrated, competency-based, bilingual, vocational ESL program, this new series combines low-level ESL skills with task-oriented objectives, giving adult students the English they need to get and keep a job. Each book is accompanied by a separate (optional) cultural notes booklet that gives essential information about cultural values, customs, vocabulary, etc. in Spanish, Chinese, or Vietnamese. The instructor's guide is complete and very useful. Although newly arrived refugees may find this series fast paced, many ESL teachers find that this is the answer for students who, after a basic survival ESL course, want to ready themselves for the job market.

Schurer, Linda, ed. *Everyday English.* 1979. San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Cycle I—Student book
Teacher's manual
Cycle II—Student book A
Student book B
Teacher's manual

Designed as an introductory oral English program for recently arrived adult immigrants with little or no previous knowledge of English, these ESL teaching materials have been quite suc-

cessful with the refugee adult of low educational background. The goal is survival English for immediate use. Based on a cyclical curricular design, Cycle I consists of 10 independent units, each with a different community setting (food, clothes, transporation, housing, school, health, post office, telephone, banking, employment). Each unit introduces and practices the same set of basic grammatical structures. Cycle II repeats the same 10 community settings, but presents a more difficult set of structures. No fixed order is inherent in these materials, since the structures and vocabulary are introduced as new information in each unit, which makes the text ideal for adult education programs with open enrollment or sporadic attendance. The teacher's manual is good, with many useful suggestions. However, inexperienced teachers will have to spend some time in preparation.

In addition to the materials listed above, the companies listed below are publishers known for their adult education materials, many of which are based on the Adult Performance Level competencies. Although these materials are not specifically designed for ESL students, they are written at lower-grade reading levels and are often quite adaptable for use in the ESL classroom.

Follett Publishing Co.
P.O. Box 5705
Chicago, IL 60680
312/666-5858

Hopewell Books, Inc.
1670 Sturbridge Drive
R.D. #1
Sewickley, PA 15143
412/366-3287

Janus Book Publishers
3541 Investment Blvd., Suite 5
Hayward, CA 94545
415/785-9625
800/227-2375

New Readers Press
Box 131
Syracuse, NY 13210
315/679-7300

P.A.R. Incorporated
Abbott Park Place
Providence, RI 02903
401/331-0130
800/556-7277

Frank E. Richards Publishing Co.
P.O. Box 66
Phoenix, NY 13135
315/695-7261

Steck-Vaughn Co.
P.O. Box 2028
Austin, TX 78768
512/476-6721

2. TEACHING ESL TO NONLITERATE ADULTS

INTRODUCTION

The vast majority of the incoming Hmong, Lao, Khmer, Haitian, Ethiopian, and Afghan refugees in the 1980s are quite different from the refugees who first came to this country in 1975. Whereas many of the refugees of the first wave were highly-educated urban professionals who had had some exposure to English and/or French, the most recent refugees are for the most part uneducated rural villagers who have had very little—if any—contact with Western civilization. Indeed, many have never even been inside a classroom. However, before undertaking the task of teaching literacy to these adults, there are certain things that we should consider.

Within the large group of immigrant adults that may be in need of literacy training, at least three distinct categories can be identified. The prospective student may be nonliterate, semiliterate, or non-Roman alphabetic literate. The *nonliterates* are those who possess no reading and writing skills in any language. Many of the Hmong, Mien, and Haitians fall into this category since they come from preliterate societies in which their own languages were not written until very recently. These refugees, of course, will need the most intensive and carefully sequenced training. The *semiliterates* are those who have the equivalent of three or four years of formal education and/ or possess minimal literacy skills. The *non-Roman alphabetic literates* are those who are fully literate in their own language (e.g., Khmer, Lao, Chinese, Farsi, Dari), but who need to learn the formation of the Roman alphabet. Of course, these two last groups are aware of a sound-symbol correspondence (i.e., that a letter represents a spoken sound), but they need to learn and practice the special sound-symbol relationships of English. Therefore, they usually require less intensive literacy-training.

When dealing with nonliterates, the question often arises whether

or not to teach native-language literacy first, rather than to start with second language (English) literacy. This decision depends on many factors, all of which must be carefully weighed. The first to consider is the native language alphabet. Is it a Roman alphabet like English, and therefore easily transferable? The second factor could be the preservation of cultural identity. Native-language literacy will enable refugees to carry on their cultural traditions and relate more closely to their cultural heritage, especially where there is a rich literary tradition, such as in Vietnamese and Chinese. A third factor, and perhaps the most important of all, is that native-language literacy would enable refugees to keep in contact (via letter writing) with friends and relatives in the U.S. and abroad.

However, there are many problems involved in the teaching of native-language literacy, not the least of which is locating a qualified teacher and acceptable teaching materials. Moreover, the cost and time involved are difficult to justify when seeking government funding. Unfortunately, there are no hard statistics to prove that teaching native-language literacy first enables students to become literate more quickly in English, although there is some evidence that it is a good motivating force. It is a difficult decision to make, and certainly time, resources, and the desires and abilities of the refugees themselves are all important considerations.

At some point, English language literacy will have to be taught, and it is important to remember that the refugees are also limited or non-speakers of English. Thus, teaching literacy to them is very different from teaching literacy to a native English speaker. Native English speakers have complete control over the four systems of the language; that is, they are familiar with the sounds of English that combine to make words; they control the words, or vocabulary, that combine to form sentences; they can form sentences correctly, and thus have a knowledge of English structure, or grammar; and they can use these sentences appropriately in a given situation, which means they control the social usage of English. In addition, native English-speaking illiterates already can speak and understand English; it is only reading and writing that they must be taught.

On the other hand, a non-English speaker has none of these skills. Thus, it should be clear that materials and methods designed for teaching literacy to native English speakers are generally not appropriate for limited or non-English speakers. Unfortunately, there are very few materials commercially available for teaching literacy to the refugee population; teachers must therefore be resourceful and not resort to materials designed for native English speakers, such as remedial reading texts or first language literacy materials, without adequately adapting those materials first.

Before beginning any kind of literacy training, students must have some instruction in the spoken language so as to be able to associate the sounds with the written symbols. Students must have some basic control over spoken English, even if it is just a simple conversational exchange. Without this knowledge, the letters or words being taught will have no context or meaning. Moreover, the spoken English that is taught may serve as a basis for the choice of "key words," or which words (and letters) to teach first. It would make no sense to teach and practice the alphabet from A to Z, since the students do not know words or sentences that contain all these letters. While teaching some spoken English, it may be useful to introduce and practice some pre-reading skills. (By prereading skills, we mean a left-to-right orientation, matching shapes, differentiating shapes, or even something as basic as the correct way to hold a pencil.)

Two major approaches to the teaching of literacy are the "whole word" method and the phonics method. In the "whole word" approach (this is also sometimes referred to as the "sight word" approach), students are taught and drilled to recognize the words as a whole, on sight; it is necessary, of course, to begin with common, one-syllable words that the students already recognize aurally. With the phonics method, students are taught and drilled on the specific sound values of letters in order to "sound out" words. Native English-speaking illiterates are often taught to read by the phonics method, building from the small (sounds, letters) to the large (words, phrases). However, ESL students are presented with large chunks of language (sentences, phrases) during their aural/oral ESL classes; this seems to suggest that perhaps a "sight word" approach, at the start, may be more useful for them. In actual practice, though, a combination of both approaches (limiting the phonics part to the practice of sounds with *consistent* sound-letter correspondence) has appeared to work quite successfully with the adult ESL population.

Another concern of literacy trainers is which writing system to teach, i.e., block, manuscript, cursive, or a combination of the three. When considering writing systems, a distinction must be made between *reading* and actually *writing* in a given system. Some teachers introduce initially only block letters for *reading*, since block letters are the most frequently encountered when filling out forms. The refugees have an immediate need to be able to recognize block letters in order to read signs (e.g., WOMEN, MEN, NO SMOKING, DANGER) and understand social security and job applications. However, an adult who only knows how to *write* in block letters is at a disadvantage in our society; only small children write in block letters. Thus, when teaching the adult refugee to write, perhaps manuscript and/or cursive would be more appropriate. Knowing how

to write one's signature, for example, is a necessity for signing checks and official documents. As such, it should be taught as soon as possible. The decision as to which writing system to introduce, and when, must be made on the basis of the goals of the class and the students' needs and abilities.

But no matter what the materials or methods used, it is important to keep in mind the difficulty of the task for the limited English-speaking adult, and to set one's expectations accordingly. Even though some materials may be designed to teach basic literacy in a relatively short amount of time, students often progress at different rates, and some may require a considerable amount of additional practice. "Survival literacy," the ability to read and write for minimal functioning in our society (e.g., signs, labels, announcements, forms), should be the immediate goal.

The following article, "Teaching Literacy to Adult Nonnative Speakers of English," was written by Donald Ranard, an experienced teacher in Arlington County, Virginia, who has successfully trained refugee adults in literacy skills. Although the examples are drawn specifically from his work with Indochinese refugees, these techniques are equally applicable for use with other nonliterate adults, such as Afghans or Haitians. (An additional publication on teaching survival ESL literacy is also available from the Center for Applied Linguistics: *ESL/Literacy for Adult Learners,* by Wayne Haverson. See reading list at the end of this chapter for details.)

"Teaching Literacy to Adult Nonnative Speakers of English"

SOME PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

The setting up of a literacy class and the development of literacy materials and methods presuppose that the following questions about the subject have been answered or at least considered:

- Is a special class for nonliterate ESL students necessary?
- Who belongs in a literacy class?
- Should native literacy rather than literacy in English be taught?
- Can the three skills of speaking, reading, and writing be taught concurrently?
- What is known about the reading process and how can we apply this knowledge to the ESL literacy class?
- What should the objectives of a literacy class be?

Is a special class necessary?

A special class is necessary because the nonliterate student has

problems that require special attention. Typically the nonliterate student is placed in a beginning-level ESL class—a poor solution, since in almost every beginning ESL class a basic ability to read and write is already assumed.

Not only will the nonliterate student in a beginning-level class not be taught to read, there is a good chance that such a student will fall behind in the oral work as well. Since even the most dedicated practitioner of the audiolingual method uses written material, if only to reinforce orally introduced and practiced structures and vocabulary, the student who can neither read nor record this material is at a serious disadvantage.

Who belongs in a literacy class?

Literacy is the ability to read and write any language, not just English. By this definition a student who is literate in any language does not belong in a literacy class.

In the practical terms of learning to read a second language, however, the language background of the student plays an important role. For example, a Vietnamese who can read no English but is functionally literate in Vietnamese will in almost all cases belong in a beginning rather than a literacy class. This is because Vietnamese, like English, uses a Roman alphabet, and the student who can read and write Vietnamese has learned many of the skills and concepts that are taught in a literacy class.

On the other hand a Lao, Cambodian, or Chinese student who has basic native literacy may well profit from literacy instruction. This is because neither Lao nor Cambodian uses a Roman alphabet, and Chinese does not use an alphabet at all. Of the sixty students who have studied in my class, more than one-third have been functionally literate in either Lao, Cambodian, or Chinese—that is, they had had one or two years of instruction in these languages. My impression is that while functional literacy in these languages is an aid in learning to read and write English, in most cases, it is not enough to justify immediate placement in a beginning-level class. What is really needed is an advanced literacy class (for students functionally literate in a language that does not use a Roman alphabet), a luxury that few programs can afford.

The Center for Applied Linguistics has developed a procedure that gives a rough but adequate measure of native literacy. The student reads a simple text in the native language while the teacher follows with a phonetically written version of the same text. If the student appears to be "sounding out" the text correctly, the student is considered literate in that language. If that language uses a Roman alphabet, the student should be placed in the regular ESL program,

not in the literacy class. However, if the student's native language does not use a Roman alphabet, an additional test should be given, since literacy in such a language does not automatically mean the student is ready for a regular ESL class. I usually give the students ten sentences in English, from the first chapter of a beginning ESL text. The student who cannot read or write these sentences is placed in the literacy class.

Should native literacy rather than literacy in English be taught?

Since it is clearly easier to learn to read and write one's own language than a second language, it has been suggested that the best approach to teaching literacy is to teach literacy in the native language rather than in English. This approach makes good linguistic sense when the native language uses a Roman alphabet, since literacy in such a language automatically places the student in the beginning level class. It makes less sense when the native language does not use a Roman alphabet, since literacy in such a language does not mean the student is ready for a beginning-level ESL class. In most cases such a student would still need literacy instruction in English.

Even when the student's native language uses a Roman alphabet, there are problems with this approach, problems that are not linguistic but practical.

The first problem is finding qualified teachers—no small problem, since teaching literacy takes special skill and training. In the case of less commonly known languages, this problem is not easily solved. Hmong, for example, has a Roman alphabet-based written language, developed by missionaries in the early 50s, but does not appear to be well known, even among the Hmong.

A second problem is cost. In programs that serve more than one language community—as most programs do—this approach would require the addition of at least one more class, if not several more. To those who argue that literacy should always be taught in the native language, whether that language uses a Roman alphabet or not, it should be pointed out that such an approach would mean at least four —and possibly five—classes.

A third problem is justifying this approach to the American public. Programs that are federally, state, or locally funded should be prepared to answer the argument that it is not the responsibility of American citizens to subsidize literacy in foreign languages.

Can the skills of speaking, reading, and writing be taught concurrently?

The conventional wisdom in ESL has been that reading instruction

should be delayed until the student has gained a fairly high degree of oral proficiency. (The fact that in most ESL classes reading is not taught at all—the assumption apparently being that the ability to read naturally follows from an ability to speak—will not concern me here.) Yet common experience and research indicate that it is not necessary to speak a language well—or at all, in fact—in order to read it. The deaf learn to read languages they do not hear, and brain-damaged children are taught to read languages they cannot speak—as have generations of language students who have learned to read but not to speak foreign languages. Studies in the field of early reading indicate that preschool children can learn to read first and second languages they are still learning to speak.

It is true, of course, that an oral knowledge of a language is an aid in learning to read that language, but that is not the question here. Rather, the question is, Who will learn to read and write better in the same amount of time, the student who first gains oral proficiency and then learns to read and write, or the student who learns the three skills concurrently? To my knowledge there is no empirical data that clearly supports one approach over the other. In the absence of such data, literacy instructors will have to choose the approach that makes the most sense to them linguistically and pedagogically.

I teach all three skills concurrently for three reasons. First of all it works, and works well (but only, I should add, if the lessons are tightly structured and teach the skills in a careful progression from listening to speaking to reading to writing). Second, teaching oral proficiency to students who cannot read or record what is being taught is a tortuously slow process; such students are at the mercy of short-term aural memory and will retain only a fraction of the material from one class to the next. My guess is that if you were to use the purely audiolingual method (that is, no written material) you would find that after six months, which is the length of time is takes an average student to achieve literacy in my class, that student would not only be unable to read or write but probably would not be any better at speaking the language than the student who has studied the three skills concurrently. After all, the use of reading and writing has been shown to have a positive influence on the acquisition of oral skills.

Finally, my impression is that most students want to study reading and writing right away and will become impatient with any other approach. Teachers might feel that this impatience is based on a mistaken notion of how a language should be learned, but in many cases this impatience comes from the fact that for the student, knowing how to read and write seems as important as knowing how to speak. After all, there is much that can be accomplished by the sim-

ple use of gestures, but if one cannot write one's name, address, or telephone number, fill out simple application forms, and read public signs, one is at a serious and embarrassing disadvantage. Many adult students, faced with the problems of working and living in a highly sophisticated, literate society feel they cannot afford to wait six months to a year before learning the basic skills of reading and writing.

What is known about the reading process and how can we apply this knowledge to the ESL literacy class?

The relationship between written language, sound, and meaning is the subject of a lively debate within the field of reading. The conventional view of the reading process argues that sound is a necessary intermediary between written symbol and meaning, a view that is used to justify the practice of delaying reading instruction until oral proficiency has been achieved. A more recent model has the reader going directly from written symbol to meaning, with sound added either overtly or covertly, and a third model argues that sound and meaning occur simultaneously. As mentioned earlier, more recent views imply that it is not necessary to speak a language in order to read it, and, in fact, have been offered to justify the practice of teaching preschool children to read while they are still learning to speak.

It may be that each model has a measure of validity, depending on the ability of the reader and the difficulty of the text. We know that poor readers tend to sound out each word, while good readers do not. (Studies show that good readers read too quickly to make the sound/symbol connections; rather they seem to grasp meaning directly from the text.) One of the chores of the reading teacher should be to aid the shift from reading out loud to reading quickly and silently, grasping meaning directly from the text. Materials that encourage the student to read silently and to process written language in logical word clusters should be developed.

What should the objectives of a literacy class be?

Since literacy is a relative concept, it involves the question of degree. Is literacy the bare ability to write one's name, address, and telephone number? Or is it more, and if so, how much more? Should it include other basic skills—the ability to tell time, for example, or use money?

For a literacy class that is part of a larger ESL program, the principal objective should be to prepare the student for entry into the beginning-level class. In this case the definition is program-specific: literacy is the ability to read and write the material used in the first part of a beginning class. In fact this is a fairly good objective for all literacy classes, since it can be assumed that most students will want

to continue to study English after they have mastered basic literacy.

Finally, it should be kept in mind that most beginning ESL students bring to their first class more than just a basic ability to read and write. They can tell time, do simple arithmetic, and use money. These skills should also be taught at the literacy level.

A METHODOLOGY FOR TEACHING LITERACY

A Whole Word Method

The core of the reading program I have developed uses a whole word method. My program makes use of techniques developed by Glenn Doman and Robert Lado, specialists in the field of early reading.

The Doman technique takes the child from reading (1) oversized words, printed in red, at the rate of one or two a day, to (2) sentences, printed in black and composed of the old vocabulary, to (3) stories. (Presumably large letters in red are used for their psychological impact.) At each stage, the size of the letters is reduced until the child is reading print-sized words.

Lado has written a reading program, consisting of a series of readers, that uses the Doman technique, but with several differences. While Lado, like Doman, begins with single, oversized words, his material is presented in book format, with detachable pages that are used in matching exercises and games. With Lado's materials the progression is from single words to phrases to sentences, a progression that Lado believes naturally follows the child's intellectual development. Lado, like Doman, has selected words for their familiarity to children, but unlike Doman, he has paid attention to their graphemic content. In his first book, which consists of 33 words, every letter of the alphabet occurs at least once in initial position. Another difference is that Lado includes an alphabet book in his program, since he believes that learning the names and sounds of the letters is an aid to learning.

While the material I have developed makes use of some of the techniques of Lado and Doman, it differs from theirs in several ways, taking into account the different needs and cognitive abilities of the adult ESL student.

- Lado and Doman are concerned with teaching reading *only*. In my program the three skills of speaking, reading, and writing are taught concurrently but in a careful progression: everything that is written is first read, and everything that is read is first practiced orally.
- In Lado's and Doman's programs the progression from single words to phrases to sentences and the progression from over-

to normal-sized print occurs over a period of several months. In my program this progression occurs within each class.

- Pictures are an important part of my program. Doman apparently does not use them at all, and Lado uses them sparsely in his books, since there is evidence to suggest that too many illustrations distract the attention of the child from written material.
- Unlike Lado, I have made no attempt to control the phonemic or graphemic content of the material. For the most part material has been chosen for its practical value in preparing the student for entry into the beginning-level class.
- Lado and Doman recommend teaching the child no more than two or three new words a lesson. I teach five to ten in each two-hour lesson.

The Role of Phonics

The extensive use of phonics instruction as a tool within the ESL literacy class is questionable. Phonics instruction teaches the student to sound out new words. For nonliterate students with little or no oral knowledge of English, this skill is of limited value. Reading, it must be remembered, is not merely to sound out written material. Reading is the ability to make the correct connections between written symbol and meaning.

Still, phonics instruction is not without value. English, after all, uses an alphabet, which means its symbols stand for sounds, and there are studies to show that at least with beginning native English readers, a knowledge of phonics is positively correlated with reading achievement. Moreover, while phonics instruction may be of limited value in teaching non-English speakers to read new words, it can help them to visualize the written forms of words they learn to speak outside the classroom. I teach phonics in the form of short drills and exercises, lasting about 15 minutes, but not until some of the words used as examples of the generalizations being taught are words that the students already recognize.

DESCRIPTION OF A LITERACY PROGRAM

This is a description of a three-part literacy program in which the skills of speaking, reading, and writing are taught concurrently. The three components of the program are (1) reading and writing readiness, (2) speaking, reading, and writing I, and (3) speaking, reading, and writing II.

Here the student learns those skills that a basic ability to read and write presupposes. Upon completion of this unit, the student should be able to name and write the letters of the alphabet and the numbers 1-10. Directionality in reading and writing is also taught.

Knowledge of the alphabet (which appears to be an aid in learning to read) presupposes an ability to discriminate between the shapes of the letters. The first task of the teacher, then, is to focus the attention of the student on the shapes of the letters.

To do this, first write the letters in lower case in a line on the blackboard, naming each letter as it is written. With the students repeating, go through the alphabet several times. Then beneath the line of letters write a column of five or six letters, choosing letters with obvious differences in form, e.g., f, b, m, i. To the right of this column write a second column of the same letters but in a different order. Join the same letters in the two columns. Repeat this exercise until all the letters have been practiced, then practice matching letters that are similar in form. Prepare handouts of these exercises for the students.

The variation of the card game "Concentration" can be used as a supplementary matching exercise. Spread two sets of letters written on small flash cards face down on a desk. Students take turns turning over two cards, naming the cards as they turn them, looking for matching cards. When all the pairs have been found, the student with the most cards wins.

By this time, the students should be able to recognize most of the letters of the alphabet. To test this ability, give each student a handout on which the letters are written. Name a letter at random and have the students circle the correct symbol. Continue until all the letters have been circled.

In teaching the students to write the alphabet, demonstrate the stroke order on the blackboard. Insist that the correct stroke order be followed. (Wallcharts with arrows to show stroke direction and order are commercially available and a help for constant reference.) For students with particular difficulty in writing, prepare handouts of letters made up of broken lines. Have the students trace over the letters, joining the broken lines.

At this point, teach the upper-case letters, which the students will need to know to write their names. Use the same matching exercises that are used to teach lower-case letters, but here the students must not only match upper case with upper case, but upper case with their lower-case variations.

Teach the numbers 1-10, using the same methods used to teach the alphabet.

As their final skill in this unit, the students learn to write their names. To accomplish this, first give your own name, then, in an order that corresponds to the seating order, ask the students one by one, "What is your name?" (It may take several repetitions before the intent of the question is understood.) Have the class repeat each name as it is given. Do this several times—always in the same order—until the students recognize their classmates' names.

Next, write a column of numbers corresponding to the number of students. Again, ask the students their names, but this time after each name is given, write it on the blackboard. Indicating the student, say the name; have students repeat. Once all the numbers are on the blackboard, go through them again, identifying the number preceding the name: "Number 1, Lee Nao Pou; number 2, Souvanny Siharat," etc.

Go through the list of names several times, first in order and then at random, having the students respond to each name with the corresponding number. Then give the numbers—in order and then at random—eliciting the names from the students. Finally, erase the names and numbers, then rewrite the names—but in random order—and see if the students can read them.

Have the students write their names in their notebooks. From this time on, have them write their names on all exercises. Each following week ask for a new piece of information (address, telephone number, social security number, etc.).

Speaking, Reading, and Writing I

Here the students learn to speak, read, and write single words, two- and three-word phrases, and simple sentences. These skills are taught in a sequence that invariably progresses from listening to speaking to reading to writing. In other words, as mentioned earlier, nothing is written that has not first been read, and nothing is read that has not first been practiced orally. This sequence occurs within each two-hour lesson.

The materials and methodology reflect a belief that a speaking, reading, and writing knowledge of a relatively large number of vocabulary items within the context of a few grammatical patterns is the best way to achieve the objective of the program: to prepare the student for entry into a beginning-level ESL class. Studies indicate that recognition of individual lexical items is a more crucial factor in reading achievement than is a knowledge of grammar, speaking fluency, or any other linguistic skill.

Fries has classified vocabulary items as function words, substitute words, words that are distributed grammatically, or content words. *Function words*—those words that operate largely to express grammatical relations—are represented here by a small number of prepositions; the modals can and will; be as an auxiliary in the present continuous verb tense; the conjunction and; the articles a/an, the; and to as an infinitive marker after the verb want. *Substitute words*—those words that function as substitutes for whole form-classes of words—are represented by the subject pronouns I, you, he, she, it, we, they, and the possessive pronoun my. The overwhelming majority of the words belong to the category of *content words,* those words that stand for "things" (nouns), "actions" (verbs), and "qualities" (adjectives). Of these three classes of content words, Class I words (nouns) are presented and taught within semantic categories. These are classroom objects, professions, modes of transportation, clothing, places in the city, members of the family, nouns denoting gender and age, rooms of a house, household furniture and items, parts of the body, and countries.

The Class II words (verbs) taught here are be, have, eat, drink, go, sleep, study, teach, get up, play, work.

The Class III words (adjectives) are represented by tall/short, fat/thin, big/small, happy/sad, old/young, old/new, hungry, thirsty, tired, hot/cold, pretty, and adjectives denoting color.

Fries' fourth category of words, those that are distributed grammatically, are not represented.

Since this is a vocabulary-based curriculum, grammatical patterns are controlled by the category of vocabulary items being presented. The few structures introduced are drilled intensively, with the more important ones repeated in almost every lesson. The following patterns of word order and inflectional forms are practiced:

Word order: Subject-Verb-Object/Complement, nouns with articles and adjectives, nouns with first person possessive pronoun, question and negative with be, be + -ing, infinitive as object after verbs want and like.

Inflectional forms: Subject forms of personal pronouns, gender in third person pronoun, first person possessive pronoun, present tense forms, regular plural of nouns, present tense forms of be and have, demonstrative forms (this, that).

In addition, students are taught to answer, and sometimes ask, questions whose structures are not formally taught: "Where are you from?" "Where do you come from?" "What is your name?" "Where do you live?" "Where do you work?" This is the only part of my program that requires either a knowledge of the students' native

languages or the services of a bilingual aide.

The following lesson illustrates the procedure used in Speaking, Reading, and Writing I. This procedure involves a progression from listening to speaking to writing and from single words to phrases to sentences.

Lesson I[1]

Vocabulary:	Classroom objects (book, pen, pencil, notebook, desk, chair, table)
Structure:	Demonstrative + be, present tense This ... is Third person singular + possessive pronoun + noun my ... book[2]
Materials:	Large cardboard illustrations of the classroom objects Oversized flash cards of phrases ("my book") and sentences ("This is my book.") Regular sized word flash cards of vocabulary items

Procedure for teaching vocabulary

1. Place pictures on the blackboard ledge. Have students match these pictures with objects in the classroom.
2. Above the pictures on the blackboard, number the pictures 1-7. Pointing to the first picture, name the object represented by the picture. Go through all the pictures in this manner.
3. Repeat the procedure in step 2, but this time with students repeating. Do several times. Precede the name of the object with its number.
4. Name the objects in order and have the students give the correct numbers (e.g., T: book, S: one).

[1] At this point the students have learned to read and write the alphabet, the numbers 1-10, and their names.

[2] I begin with the sentence "This is my book," rather than the usual "This is a book," for two reasons. First, "This is a book" is the kind of sentence that seldom occurs outside of a language-learning situation. Second, the more meaningful "This is my book" is probably no more difficult for the student to understand than "This is a book." In fact it could be argued that for Indochinese refugees it is easier, since none of their languages has an equivalent of our indefinite article, but all of them have pronouns that express possession.

5. Name the objects, but this time in random order; have the students give the correct numbers.
6. Repeat step 5 with individual students.
7. Give the numbers, first in order, then at random; have the students give the names of the objects.
8. Repeat step 7 with individual students.
9. Print the name of each object in large letters on the blackboard over the numbers. Point to the picture, then the word, and give the name.
10. Repeat step 9, with students repeating.
11. With students repeating, spell each word. After the word has been spelled, say the word, eliciting repetition.
12. From the stack of word cards hold up the first card, which corresponds to the first numbered picture on the blackboard ledge. Read the word; have the students supply the correct number.
13. Repeat step 12, but now present the words in random order.
14. Repeat step 13 with individual students.
15. Erase the words on the blackboard, but not the numbers. Have students match word cards with pictures.
16. Place the word cards against the corresponding picture cards so that the pictures are not visible. Indicating the card and the number, read each word.
17. Read the words in order, with the students giving the correct number each time.
18. Repeat step 17, but now read the words in random order.
19. Repeat step 18 with individual students.
20. Give the numbers, first in order then at random; have students give the word.
21. Repeat step 20 with individual students.
22. Have the students match the smaller-sized word cards with the word cards on the blackboard ledge.
23. Write the words in a single column on the blackboard. Repeat the column on the right, but in a different order; have the students join matching words.
24. Repeat the exercise in step 23 on handouts to the students. Encourage students to match words quickly and silently.
25. Erase the column of words on the right. In place draw simple pictures illustrating each word. Have students join the word to the corresponding picture.
26. Repeat the exercise in step 25 on handouts to the students. Encourage the students to do the exercise quickly and silently.
27. Flash the oversized word cards, and have students circle the correct word on a handout. Repeat exercise, this time flashing

picture cards.

28. Have the students copy the words from the blackboard.

Procedure for teaching two-word phrases

1. Place the set of picture cards in a stack on the blackboard ledge. Point to the first card, say "book," then point to yourself and say "my." Then pointing first to yourself and then to the book, say, "my book." Repeat several times, each time making a clear gesture of possession. Go through all the picture cards in this way.
2. Say "my," then point to the first picture, eliciting the response "my book." Go through all the pictures in this way.
3. Repeat the substitution drill in step 2, but now without use of pictures.
4. Point to objects on the students' desks, eliciting the appropriate response: "my book, my pen," etc. Encourage students to make gestures of possession when they say the word "my."
5. Place the set of word cards in a stack on the blackboard ledge. Point to yourself and say "my." then point to the first word, eliciting the response "my book." Repeat with all the words.
6. Place the "my" card on the blackboard ledge to the left of the stack of cards of classroom objects, then read the phrase "my book." Replace "book" with the second word; have the students read the new phrase. Go through all the cards in this way.
7. Repeat step 6 with individual students.
8. Write the phrases in a column on the blackboard. Number the phrases 1-7. Read the phrases, first in order and then at random; have the students give the correct number.
9. Giving the numbers, first in order and then at random, have the students read the phrases.
10. Repeat step 9 with individual students.
11. Have students match phrases formed with the smaller flash cards with phrases formed with the large cards on the blackboard ledge.
12. On handouts, have students match two columns of phrases in different order.
13. On handouts, have students match phrases with corresponding pictures.
14. Flash phrase cards; have students circle correct phrase on handout. Repeat exercise, this time flashing picture cards.
15. Say a phrase and have the students form the phrase from the smaller cards spread out on a desk.

16. Have the students copy the phrases from the blackboard.

Procedure for teaching sentences

Use the same series of steps used to teach two-word phrases. For more advanced students, conclude this section with the following exercises. Have the students form sentences, first written on the blackboard and then given orally, using the regular sized word cards. On a handout, write the seven sentences the students have learned ("This is my book," "This is my pen," etc.) in a single column but with the words in each sentence scrambled (e.g., "is/book/my/This"). Have students rewrite the sentences in correct order.

Speaking, Reading, and Writing II

Here the student is presented with familiar material but in a different and expanded context. The vocabulary is not controlled by semantic categories so much as by the nature of a situation, event, or condition being described. The progression from listening to speaking to reading to writing still obtains, but here the students learn to speak, read, and write a sequence of sentences that discuss a particular subject. In their final form, these sentences become a paragraph.

The following is a sample lesson.

Materials: Six oversized cardboard pictures illustrating the following:

a man
a man getting up; a clock says 7:00
a man going into the bathroom; clock: 7:15
a man eating breakfast; clock: 7:30
a man going to work; clock: 8:00
a man getting on a bus

Procedure:

1. Place the six pictures in a row on the blackboard ledge. Number the pictures on the blackboard 1-6. Pointing to the appropriate picture, give the number and say: "This is Tom Lee. He gets up at 7:00. He goes into the bathroom at 7:15. He eats breakfast at 7:30. He goes to work at 8:00. He goes to work by bus."
2. Change the order of the pictures. Have students put them back in correct order.
3. Go through the pictures again, this time with students repeating.
4. Go through the pictures, this time in random order; have the

students give the correct number.

5. Give the numbers in order; have the students give the correct sentence.
6. Have individual students tell the whole story.
7. Make false statements about the story; have students correct.
8. Ask questions about the story.
9. Have students tell the story substituting I for Tom Lee.
10. Above each picture, write the sentence. Read the sentences, with students listening. Read the sentences in groups of 2-3 word phrases, e.g., "He is off on Monday."
11. Write the sentences numbered 1-6 on the blackboard in a column. Remove the cards from the ledge. Shuffle them, then hold them up, one at a time, asking for the corresponding number.
12. On a handout, have the students match the sentences with the corresponding pictures.
13. Give a handout of the six sentences written in a column in incorrect order. Have the students rewrite the sentences in a column, numbered 1-6, in the correct order.
14. On a handout, write a story in paragraph form with every third word omitted. Above the story, list the omitted words. Have the students fill in the words.
15. Have the students copy the story from the blackboard in paragraph form.

CONCLUSION

There is a growing interest among ESL teachers in the teaching of literacy to nonnative speakers, an interest that is in direct response to an increasing number of nonliterate ESL students. Yet publishers and writers have not met this need with suitable materials, and this lack of materials is the single greatest problem facing the literacy instructor. Faced with this situation, many teachers are developing their own materials—a difficult, time-consuming task that requires some understanding of (1) traditional and current ESL methodology, (2) the theory and practice of teaching reading to native and nonnative learners, and (3) the special problems of the nonliterate ESL student. It is only after we have given careful thought to each of these areas that we, as teachers and writers, can begin to meet this new and difficult challenge.

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

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3. VOCATIONAL ESL

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to identify and describe the characteristics of vocational ESL programs and to indicate some of the psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, or pedagogical insights they reflect.

A bewildering array of acronyms awaits anyone entering the field of English as a second language. Where once there were only ESL and EFL, there are now also EAP (English for Academic Purposes), ESP (English for Specific [or Special] Purposes), EST (English for Science and Technology), and VESL (Vocational ESL).

Over the past few years, there has been an increasing specialization in ESL language learning and learner needs. All except general ESL are often grouped under a common heading of English for Specific Purposes, since they focus on language teaching and learning as a means of achieving a specific goal. However, ESP is also used in a more restricted sense to represent the English required of doctors, lawyers, engineers, economists, and other professionals; for purposes of this chapter we will use this narrower definition of ESP.

Vocational ESL (VESL) is related to short programs leading to semi-skilled, skilled, paraprofessional, and technical employment. The growth of vocational ESL has accompanied the general growth in vocational education and the concomitant increase in the number of limited English-speaking adults (whether migrants, immigrants, refugees, or speakers of other languages who have lived in English-speaking countries for some time) who desire access to better jobs through vocational/technical education or on-the-job training programs. Vocational ESL emphasizes occupational language demands. For clerical workers, this would include taking telephone messages, writing letters, sorting mail, and requesting office supplies. Mechanics would learn to understand "customer diagnoses of auto problems, write repair orders, read repair manuals, and explain the finished repair work to the customer or the shop manager. Occupational con-

texts or situations are used to teach the English required on the job or in vocational classes that teach that job. Vocational ESL can take a variety of forms, be embedded in a variety of programs, and be directed to a wide range of English language proficiency, as the following pages will reveal. VESL includes both job specific English classes (for example, the English of auto mechanics, clerical workers, paraprofessionals, technicians, welders, computer programmers, machinists, electronic assemblers, and food service personnel) and a more general occupational knowledge based ESL component, which is often referred to as prevocational (or pre employment) ESL, the specific English language skills required to obtain and function on any job. (Prevocational ESL will be discussed in detail in a later section of this chapter).

Vocational ESL programs have evolved quite differently from English for special purposes (ESP) programs. ESP is an outgrowth of foreign student enrollment in American universities or foreign academic programs that require EFL for access to either English language instruction or English language tests and professional/scientific papers. VESL has developed through adult basic education programs, vocational technical education programs in community colleges, vocational institutes, community centers, CETA programs, and on the job training programs. If ESP was designed for the educated elite, VESL meets the needs of the disadvantaged, the undereducated, the school dropout, the immigrant, the unemployed, and the underemployed. The ESP student has usually studied General ESL or Academic ESL in secondary school, continued in his or her study of English for Academic Purposes in college, and then taken ESP. A student in a VESL program may follow the same course, but more likely has never studied English before.

VOCATIONAL ESL: GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Vocational ESL requires the integration of vocational and linguistic objectives. It analyzes the linguistic skills necessary for getting a job, keeping it, and advancing in it. These linguistic skills are taught in the context of the vocational skills necessary for successful functioning on the job.

VESL begins with a review of the contexts and tasks of the job and assesses the appropriate linguistic skills–listening, speaking, reading, writing, and cultural–needed to function in that job. Performance objectives are determined by reviewing vocational training texts, interviewing vocational trainers and supervisors, and gathering on the-job language data. The most important structures and vocabulary that must be understood or actively used in that job are identified. Addi

tional insight comes from interviewing limited English speakers currently working in that field.

These vocational linguistic skills provide the structure for the vocational ESL program. However, their identification is mostly intuitive or the result of trial and error, although we now have some research identifying the linguistic skills necessary for successful job functioning. Undoubtedly some features are more salient than others; for example, in informal interviews, supervisors have stressed the need for understanding and using clarification questions, and for being able to make small talk. It has not been documented, however, whether these are critical for successful job performance.

LANGUAGE CONTENT IN VOCATIONAL ESL

Learning a second language, for whatever purpose, requires that a person master its sound system, its grammar, and a portion of its vocabulary. The learner must also be able to use that language appropriately and be able to understand others who use it. A general command of the language may be even less important, though, than a knowledge of the differences in "acceptability" or "appropriateness" for different situations, with different participants, topics, settings, and goals. It is being able to interact in English that is essential. Those people whose pronunication is obviously "foreign" and who make occasional grammatical errors will have fewer problems than those who do not know the rules of interaction and cannot use the language for different purposes and situations. The goal is not native-like control, but being able to understand and use the language to get information, to express one's feelings, thoughts, and wishes; to socialize; and to perform in English on the job.

Pronunciation, Structure, and Vocabulary

The question of accuracy of pronunciation (or of grammatical structures, for that matter) is really a relative one, largely determined by the vocational goals of the adult and the level of the vocation the adult is seeking. An adult desiring an entry-level job in a kitchen or as a maintenance person may be able to survive without very accurate pronunciation, but one who desires a job as a receptionist or a paraprofessional may be expected to acquire a higher level of proficiency

Adults must also acquire a basic command of the structures or sentence patterns of English. Again, it is difficult to determine a specific level of proficiency, since this will vary with the type of job. Moreover, there will be a difference in what the learners are expected to be able to understand and what they will have to be able to pro-

duce. At a minimum, they will need to be able to produce the basic function words (articles, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries, demonstratives, and prepositions) so as to know the difference between on, in, and under or before and after. They will need to understand the difference between "Don't keep doing that" and "Don't stop doing that" or "Turn on the switch" and "Turn off the switch."

A well-sequenced ESL text can identify the basic structures and provide an outline of the order in which these might be presented—at least at beginning levels. At a minimum, the program should enable adults to do the following:

- Ask and follow directions and commands
- Discuss work with fellow workers, customers, and employers
- Talk about the tools and materials used in learning the job or on the job
- Understand and be able to talk about some of the various methods and procedures required by the job
- Use technical manuals, textbooks, catalogues, and other reading material used to study the job or get the job
- Explain what they have done or are going to do
- Complete order forms, bills, time cards, health and insurance forms
- Understand and talk about safety and health
- Request help when needed
- Seek clarification
- Socialize with fellow workers and employers

In order to be able to perform these actions, learners will have to acquire the specific vocabulary used on the job: the names of tools, instruments, procedures, processes; requirements and duties; health and safety terms; and general terms of measurement. They will need to learn the vocabulary required for their vocational training program, which is being taught (at least partially) in English, and they must also acquire a general core or "survival" vocabulary.

Style and Conversational Strategies

The VESL class must also teach the different registers or styles that a worker might use with employers, fellow employees, and customers. In addition, learners should become aware of the differences in talking with the boss on the job and in socializing with that same boss during lunch or at a party. Being able to socialize with one's fellow workers and superiors is very important, since the ability to get along on a job may be correlated somewhat with how well a worker can engage in brief, casual talk with others before work, during coffee

breaks or at lunch, after work, and during the times of silence that are traditionally filled by an exchange of pleasantries. Though talk of the weather, rush hour traffic, one's family, vacations, and sports events may seem "meaningless," it functions to create a sense of social communion among fellow employees, and a person who does not know how to make small talk is viewed as an oddity who "just doesn't fit in." Adults need to know some set phrases for opening and closing conversations. As they acquire more English through study and opportunities to interact with English speakers, they will be able to use some of the following typical two- or three-line exchanges:

Boy, the weather is lousy today.
Yeah, do you think it'll ever stop raining?
I hope so.

I hate rush hour traffic.
Me, too.

Did you have a good weekend?
It was OK. How about you?
I guess it was OK.

That was some football game on Sunday, wasn't it?
Was it? I'm afraid I didn't get a chance to see it.

A VESL class must teach the strategies for beginning conversations, interrupting others, responding to others, and knowing how to end a conversation (or knowing when someone has already ended it). In the early stages, the framework for conversations can be taught; as the adults get more experience, they can learn how to take turns, to pause and still maintain their turn, and to show other speakers that they are interested.

Learning to seek clarification is important and needs to be addressed as early as possible. The vocational ESL class must enable the learner to acquire strategies to get more information, to clarify misunderstood information, or to be able to ask for repetition without losing face. Workers often have problems because they have not sufficiently understood directions, names, terms, or numbers, and thus haven't been able to perform the tasks that were expected of them. They need to learn how to use tag questions (see below), to repeat with a rising intonation (asking for confirmation), to ask for repetition with an opening that reduces potential embarrassment, or to use any of the variety of strategies that native English speakers employ.

For example, a receptionist or secretary who is not certain that he or she has correctly recorded a name might say:

Did you say Richenbacher?

That was Richenbacher, wasn't it? (tag question)
I'm afraid I didn't get that. Would you repeat it?
(using an opening that reduces or softens embarrassment)
Richenbacher? (repetition with rising intonation)
R-i-c-h-e-n . . . (leading the other person to complete the spelling)

These strategies need to be taught, since many of the adults come from cultures in which it is inappropriate to ask for repetition or to admit that one has not understood. Thus, they will rely on their first hearing and run the risk of making a serious error. Moreover, the course needs to provide at least a basic understanding of cultural expectations of American workers and employers and of the differences in nonverbal communication that are likely to cause problems. For example, the American system of time, especially the notion of being "on time" for appointments and work, and how that differs from being on time for parties or social occasions, must be explained. Moreover, greeting behavior, such as shaking hands, needs to be practiced with other adults of both sexes. Discussions of spatial relations (proxemics) should be incorporated into the class, so that those who come from cultures in which people stand much closer to each other will not cause their fellow employees to back off! They also need to understand when it is important to look someone in the eye and when it is appropriate to look away. Some consideration of the role of women in American labor might also be included, since it may be unfamiliar to the women in a variety of semiskilled and skilled jobs. Other cross-cultural communication differences, such as when touching is acceptable and when it is not, should be addressed as they become relevant in the vocational ESL class.

Literacy Training

As discussed in the previous chapter, the illiterate non- and limited English-speaking adult must be given special attention. This can be done through intensive literacy training and basic ESL before enrollment in prevocational ESL courses. If there are only a few illiterates, or students literate in another writing system, time can be set aside within the ESL class to work individually on the different reading and writing skills required.

In addition, some adults will need basic skills training in mathematics as well as in reading and writing. Adult basic education programs often try to include the limited English-speaking adult (in fact, limited English speaking adults made up half the population of the adult basic education programs in one state). It is important that these ABE programs provide ESL as well, and that the difference between limited English and limited educational experience be kept clear. An

adult may be highly educated and need beginning English courses. On the other hand, a person may not be able to read, write, or do much math in English and yet be able to understand and speak it rather well, especially if that person has acquired the language by interacting with English speakers.

Motivation

Adults who need English for access to technical texts or training for employment have a strong motivation to acquire the language. A VESL program directed to specific vocational contexts and uses of the language recognizes and utilizes that motivation. An adult language class is likely to be more successful if it is relevant to the learner and if it provides an opportunity for the learner to practice in meaningful communicative activities.

Children acquire a second language more easily than adults, because they need to and because they are more willing to take risks and make mistakes in order to fulfill their intellectual and social needs. Adults are usually more cautious, perhaps because they have more to lose. A principal obstacle that adults face in seeking to acquire a second language is the fear of humiliation or the anxiety of making fools of themselves in trying to speak that language. Moreover, adults' sense of identity and personal worth is often tied up with their first language and culture. Acquiring a second language, then, not only may lead to embarrassment or frustration, but also to fear of loss of identity. These negative feelings are made worse when there are children in the home who are rapidly acquiring English and who are acculturating more rapidly than their parents might wish.

The successful adult ESL class reduces the risks of acquiring a second language by respecting the adults as individuals and by providing a sheltered environment in which adults can practice the new language without fear of humiliation. VESL can also take away some of the potential threat of the second language classroom by focusing upon specific domains of experience—education and occupation—and leaving the other domains (home, neighborhood, church) intact for the first language and culture. An adult education program shouldn't require the adult to "integrate" with the second culture to acquire the language; adult education should make it possible to retain one's first language and culture and to add the second (English) for specific purposes such as one's job.

Moreover, vocational programs provide a common purpose or motivation for the class and encourage a prior selection process that helps keep the classes homogeneous. A general ESL class might have as students an elderly woman who just wants a chance to socialize, a

housewife who needs English to shop and talk with her children's teachers, a clerical trainee who needs English for employment, and a doctor who needs to improve his speaking proficiency. If the vocational ESL class is linguistically and culturally homogeneous, then the teacher must become aware of the basic cognitive styles and learning strategies of that culture. If the class is heterogeneous, the teacher needs to demonstrate cultural sensitivity, recognizing that appropriate behavior varies across cultures. If a culture views education in a traditional sense, with classes dominated by teachers who lecture while students sit passively and memorize what the teacher has said and take home large amounts of homework to aid in that memorization, then the VESL teacher must provide for some of those expectations, especially the homework assignments, and help the adults gradually become comfortable with the different learning environment in this country. Especially in language classes for occupational purposes, students must be given opportunities to practice using the language and to interact without the teacher in classroom activities. If students are used to teacher-dominated classes, the teacher can direct some class activities and establish authority and then shift later to student-student interaction when all the students seem ready for it.

VOCATIONAL ESL PROGRAM DESIGNS

Although successful VESL programs vary in the amount of time spent on ESL and vocational training, the order in which these are pursued, and the amount of support that is provided by the first language, they also share several characteristics.

Good VESL programs are embedded in a larger program that is equipped to deal with a learner's overall social and economic needs. Most programs provide substantial outreach services that seek to identify target populations in need of both ESL and skills training and that help to disseminate information about the VESL programs to those most in need. This outreach is accomplished through native language publications, TV and radio programs, local social service agencies, schools, employment agencies, ethnic and religious organizations, and personal contacts established by bilingual staff members. The goal is to find people who are often overlooked by other educational programs.

These programs also help meet the learner's other social, economic, and psychological needs through helping identify medical and social services, providing transportation and child care, and offering general and occupational counseling services. Many programs provide classes on weekends or at night so that those underemployed adults can still participate in the program and upgrade their skills; others provide

ESL training in the actual job setting, eliminating the need for selecting classroom sites, or providing transportation services and child care, while taking full advantage of the "relevance" of any English language training that accompanies the job.

Another integral factor in the vocational program is active job development and job placement: providing the adult with information about available jobs, setting up interviews, sensitizing the supervisor to crucial cross-cultural differences, and generally helping the refugee adult to succeed in the job acquisition process. In some programs, the job developer actually teaches in the ESL classes or talks to students about new job leads, demonstrating through his or her presence there that the entire program, including the ESL component, is directed toward helping the adults to acquire appropriate jobs.

Even after placement, the vocational programs are active, following up on recent placements, visiting the job site to discuss any problems with the new employee and the employee's supervisors and fellow workers, and keeping the employee informed of other services, including additional ESL programs or vocational programs that offer socioeconomic mobility and in which the employee might want to enroll.

PROGRAM MODELS

A number of different program models have evolved in vocational ESL to meet the different skills, educational levels, English proficiency, and vocational goals of adults. To begin with, the time spent in English classes can vary considerably, depending on the entry level of the students, the level of accuracy or fluency the adults have set for themselves, the degree of proficiency that the vocational training program or job requires, the quality of the program's materials and instruction, and the adults' language-learning abilities. In some programs, qualified students can make the transition in several months from heavy emphasis on ESL to increasing amounts of time spent in vocational instruction; other programs require as much as a year or two of ESL (whether prevocational, vocational, or general) before the vocational training is begun. However, unless there are particular reasons for increasing the total program time—e.g., to create a program with stipends that allow the adult greater time to acquire an education, not only in ESL, but also in more advanced job skills or to develop a cooperative program where the training and the work are interrelated—it is clear that the vocational program should begin as early as possible.

The degree of integration of the ESL classes and the vocational classes also varies. In some, the program is designed to be highly in-

tegrated, with vocational training reinforcing the language training, and the ESL class offering a preparation for the vocational class. In other models, the ESL class provides support for the vocational class, but often through English classes of a more general nature. In these programs, some coordination is achieved through the use of a bilingual aide, who attends the vocational class and provides explanations of unfamiliar vocabulary or practices, and helps the students interpret difficult vocational texts or lessons so that they can keep up with their vocational skills practice.

The relationship between the ESL instructor and the vocational instructor also varies. They may work together as team-teachers who meet periodically to make decisions on objectives and curriculum adaptation, to confer about the progress of students, and to make any necessary program changes. In some programs, a general curriculum design provides the coordination between the two instructors if the ESL program has been designed to supplement and meet the goals of the vocational education class; in other programs, the ESL instructor, often with the vocational instructor's assistance, develops the ESL materials from the texts used in the vocational program.

Program differences can also be attributed to the size of the program, the number of adults who share the same level of English proficiency and similar occupational goals, the availability of bilingual aides or ESL instructors who can meet regularly with vocational instructors, the financial capacity of the program, and the amount of time the program has been in existence.

Most VESL program models can be grouped under four broad headings: (1) prevocational ESL followed by job placement; (2) ESL followed by vocational training; (3) concurrent vocational ESL and vocational training; and (4) vocational ESL and bilingual vocational training.

Prevocational ESL Followed by Job Placement

Because vocational ESL courses require a sufficient number of students at similar English levels with similar occupational goals, many programs find it difficult to offer such courses as clerical ESL or auto mechanics ESL. These programs generally offer instead a prevocational ESL course that teaches basic job acquisition language skills. The goal of these programs, often directed to beginning or low-intermediate ESL, is early job placement. They often involve a substantial follow-up program consisting of additional ESL and, if the adult desires, additional vocational training, either on the job or in a night program. They may eventually lead the adult to a VESL and vocational training program. More often, however, the adults in prevocational ESL programs are more interested in immediate employ-

ment than in considering long-term occupational goals.

The program is designed to stress the English that will help these adults obtain jobs and succeed in them, while also providing survival English. The English class can help the adults assess their skills and talents, enable them to discuss their education and prior job experience, and prepare them for answering want ads and taking employment tests. Thus, while it is teaching the sound system of English, the basic grammatical structures, and a core vocabulary including general occupational vocabulary, the English class retains credibility in its relevance to the real needs of these adults. In some prevocational ESL programs, placement personnel are very visible, sometimes even teaching some of the classes.

For adults who have little education and whose economic status necessitates immediate job placement, the language taught must be kept directly relevant to their employment goals, or they may find that they do not really "need" more English, especially if they or their friends have found entry-level jobs with little or no English. For the adult seeking a job, talking about movies, meals, the body, or pets in an ESL class bears only the remotest relationship to the problem at hand. Given the amount of time and frustration inherent in adult language learning, anything that appears to increase the amount of time required to learn "enough" English to get a job may be perceived by these adults as unnecessary and a waste of their time.

The prevocational ESL class should teach at least the following:

- The language of job applications, want ads, interviews
- The language of job manuals, employment tests, and vocational texts
- Safety and health information
- Information about fringe benefits, sick leave, annual leave, time cards, and insurance
- Social security/pension information
- Information about job advancement, training, and further education
- Information about job expectations, requirements, and responsibilities
- Role relationships between workers and employers, workers and customers, and fellow workers

If the list looks as if it teaches a lot of information that is not specifically English language, that is intentional; by its very nature, a good prevocational ESL class provides a general knowledge of employment opportunities, expectations, and practices while it teaches the language for participating in that employment system. The same may be said for vocational ESL.

Prevocational ESL classes can be easily tailored to local employment conditions. They can be augmented by visits to job sites or by visits by speakers from within the occupational community. Materials can be developed from state and local employment information, federal guides and forms, local employment applications, want ads and job announcements from local papers, as well as from a wide variety of general "job-getting" texts. (See the end of this chapter for suggested materials.) A number of the materials provided by the Department of Labor or published for native speakers are written for the undereducated adult and are already somewhat "simplified"; they can be easily adapted for differing levels of English proficiency.

An added benefit of prevocational ESL programs is that they provide some measure of homogeneity or common purpose to groups that may have very different cultural and linguistic backgrounds and occupational goals. For those adults who come from cultures where male and female roles are clearly separate, where a wife will remain silent while her husband speaks if they are in the same class, and where formal education is reserved for the few members of the upper class—the common goal of acquiring enough English to obtain a job may help alleviate some of the differences. (Older people and women who are not planning to get jobs outside the home should be assigned to another ESL class, one which emphasizes the English related to such homemaking concerns as child care, shopping, or housework.)

ESL Followed by Vocational Training

Adults with both limited English proficiency and limited education may find that the amount of time it takes to acquire the English and educational skills for entry into vocational training very frustrating, especially if they must start with beginning ESL, acquire literacy training, and obtain a basic education. Realistically, the process can take two years or more of study, which may mean attending classes every night for three or four hours if they are already working. If they can obtain a basic education grant or some other stipend to attend the program full time without having to work (or at least not having to work full time), they will have a better chance of keeping motivated until they can enter the vocational program. In their eagerness to begin their vocational training, some adults enroll in the vocational program with no ESL support, before they are really ready. Adults who recognize that they may have to set aside immediate goals in order to get an adequate basic knowledge of English before they enroll in a vocational program are more likely to find success in this type of program.

Concurrent ESL and Vocational Training

In some programs, ESL classes and vocational classes run concurrently; that is, students attend ESL classes (usually intermediate or advanced), in which they review materials required in their vocational classes and acquire the English vocabulary and structures necessary for skills training. If the curriculum design is "integrated," with all instructors following a master plan that identifies competencies or skills for mastery of the vocational program and the language demands of those particular skills, the instructors will need to meet only periodically to review materials for possible revisions and to discuss particular students' progress. These programs are usually part of a vocational/technical institute, an adult vocational program, a CETA program, or an on the-job training program that has substantial resources for materials development. Adaptations in the ESL materials may be necessary to meet the linguistic and cultural differences of the students, but generally the materials are designed to fit the vocational curriculum.

In more common programs, where the ESL teacher "supports" the vocational program, he or she may have to modify more general ESL texts to meet the specific needs of the adults in the vocational program. In other words, the ESL program clarifies the vocational content. In these programs, the ESL instructor and the vocational instructor(s) have to work as a team; the ESL instructor often has to acquire a general knowledge of the vocation in order to be able to demonstrate job vocabulary and answer questions about confusing material.

Obviously, another approach that can be used is to make the vocational instructors more aware of their use of the language in the classroom and to help them find ways of meeting the needs of limited English speakers. Some techniques that may be suggested are repetition, clarification (explaining things a number of ways), paraphrasing, simplification (restricting explanations to a limited vocabulary), demonstration, and an increase in the use of visuals. An ESL instructor can also provide the vocational instructor with an overview of what structures might be difficult for the limited English-speaking adult and might even provide some additional support.

Vocational ESL and Bilingual Vocational Training

In some programs where a substantial limited English-speaking population shares the same mother tongue, bilingual vocational training programs are offered. These programs differ in the degree of "bilingual" instruction. In some, the instructor lectures in the students'

mother tongue, answers questions, and works with students in the vocational class in that language. In this type of program, the materials are either written in the first language and in English (information in the mother tongue on one page and in English on the other) or bilingual glosses are used that explain difficult concepts or define new English vocabulary. Unfortunately, these materials are usually developed by individual programs and are not readily available.

In other programs, the language of instruction is the same as that of the students, but all materials are written in English, partially because of the limited opportunity the students will have to practice that vocation in their first language and partially because materials for that vocation are not available in the other language. Moreover, terms like "carburetor" or "mimeograph machine" may not have equivalents in the students' language. Written assignments are also in English. Since the instructor discusses the concepts, processes, and skills required on the job in the students' first language, and answers questions in that language, the students have a better understanding of the vocation. The classroom instruction involves substantial code switching, with the students' language being used principally, but English being used whenever a term necessitates it.

Another variation involves the use of bilingual instructors who have been trained and have practiced their occupation in English. Although they discuss some areas with the students and socialize with them in their first language, they rely mainly on English for the vocational instruction.

In programs that lack personnel trained in the specific occupation and also competent to teach that occupation in the mother tongue, an English speaking instructor can rely on a bilingual aide to help with translation and glosses for difficult terms or concepts, or to explain confusing aspects of the English language presentation. A bilingual aide who is familiar with vocational practices in other countries or cultures can also provide valuable information on transfer of skills.

An aide can also adapt materials by providing bilingual equivalents for any difficult terms or explaining the general meaning of the English word. Although there are dangers in providing bilingual equivalents, since so few lexical items translate exactly into another language and the possibilities of a misunderstanding caused by inappropriate extension of the meaning of the word might occur, a list of bilingual glosses or definitions will often provide much needed security for an adult faced with the frustration of acquiring a second language. Moreover, when it is impossible to provide a vocational ESL program, the bilingual glosses can help the student who is attending a vocational training program and enrolled in a general ESL program

to understand more fully the demonstrations or textbooks used in the vocational classes. If the vocational institute enrolls students without consideration of their English proficiency, the bilingual glosses may be the only thing that keeps the frustrated student from giving up completely.

Where does vocational ESL fit into these bilingual programs? Obviously, it has a place in all of them, unless the students are also bilingual and in no need of English language training (a rare occurrence). Otherwise, they will need VESL to enable them to function in the occupation in English. When the instructor lectures in the first language, but uses materials written in both languages, the students will need VESL to acquire the specialized vocabulary of the job and to practice interacting in simulated job contexts in English if they will be working in settings where English is the major language. If they will be working in settings where their first language is spoken by fellow employees and supervisors, they may still need ESL to enable them to interact with English-speaking customers.

ADAPTING AND CREATING MATERIALS FOR VOCATIONAL ESL

Since vocational ESL courses are relatively new, not many materials are available that are appropriate for adults at more than one level of English proficiency and directed toward the vocations that limited English-speaking adults want to pursue. Those that are available are generally written for the most technical fields and are directed toward the intermediate or advanced ESL level. Some interesting materials are now available for beginning prevocational ESL and "survival-coping skills" ESL; however, job-specific ESL materials are still usually developed for local programs and are not commercially available for wider distribution.

Thus, most programs are forced to make a difficult decision. Should they adapt an already existing series of adult ESL materials, or should they begin again, selecting a syllabus design and creating new materials? Whichever decision they make, programs will need to do as much of the following as time and funding permit: conduct a needs assessment, develop or adapt materials, field test these materials, revise and implement them, and evaluate them as they are being used. However, even when a curriculum has been field tested and revised, the teacher cannot expect the VESL program to be fully appropriate or adequate. Most ESL teachers can attest to the need to adapt materials to make them relevant and appropriate to any particular class. For VESL teachers, the need is even greater, since so few commercially available VESL texts exist.

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The following discussion, though aimed at large-scale curriculum development, is also useful for teachers who have to do informal adaptations of materials as well.

Needs Assessment

Before adapting or creating vocational ESL materials, materials developers or program designers have to identify the needs of the users. Although the learners' needs are most important, materials must reflect the needs of teachers and program administrators as well. Important goals of the needs assessment include not only an identification of the situations learners will find themselves in and the language that they must be able to use in that situation, but also the degree of skill that they will be expected to achieve and the mode that they will use. The specification of needs must take into consideration what learners will need to produce and what they will need only to comprehend. For example, though someone may need to understand a reduced passive form in order to read the want ads or technical manuals ("experience required" or "correspondence filed under chron . . . "), he or she may never have to produce that form, either in writing or speaking. In addition, some important language may not be used frequently. Students may never need to react to "The____is in flames," but they had better know that if they *do* hear it, they had better react quickly! If the need is to request information or respond to a request for information, e.g., "Can I have the Jones file?" or "Here's the Jones file," the need to teach this early in the ESL classes is obvious.

A needs assessment should take into consideration the following questions:

- What are the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the learners?
- What are the vocational goals of these learners?
- What must they be able to do with English in order to succeed in their jobs?
- What level of proficiency will they need? How accurate must their pronunciation and use of the grammar of English be?
- What is the minimal vocabulary they will need to be able to pursue their vocational training and be successful in their job?
- What cultural preconceptions of education and language classes, in particular, should be taken into consideration in the materials?

Some answers to these questions can be obtained by talking with the adults who will be taking the English courses. Others may be

partially answered by talking with vocational instructors, employers, and other employees, including other limited English-speaking persons. Ideally, a systematic sampling and observation of texts, classes, and job sites would provide the materials developer with a good idea of the actual language demands of the vocation, the situations in which these are used, and the language modes and relative proficiency required. For example, materials developers could determine whether the employees have to be able to write orders or simply read orders provided for them, or whether they need only to be able to understand the names of foods and utensils in the kitchen, or be able to talk about them to someone else.

The amount of detail in the needs assessment may be limited by time, expense, or training. But since we don't really have a good grasp of how much English and what kind of English is required for someone to be successful on the job, any time that the teachers, materials developers, or other program administrators can provide to create appropriate materials will be well spent.

The needs assessment should also consider the needs of the teachers and the programs. Are the teachers experienced, trained ESL teachers who are familiar with the vocation? Or are they volunteers who have little understanding of second language acquisition or classroom methodology for ESL and also little direct experience with the vocation that the students are pursuing? How much vocational explanation is necessary? How much explanation must the teacher's manual provide?

Adult ESL teachers are often drawn from other fields such as reading, speech and hearing therapy, foreign languages, or English literature. These persons may need more explanation of methodology and of lesson objectives. They may want clear explanations of the goals of each exercise or activity in a teacher's manual or teacher's edition. Moreover, since many teachers work only part time, with little opportunity for adequate planning outside the classroom, the materials may need to be accompanied by ideas for individualizing the activities or making them more relevant for the local geographic area.

The needs assessment must also address programmatic needs. Does the program have a sufficient number of adults with the same linguistic and cultural background, the same proficiency level in English, who are also preparing for the same job? Or is there a wide variety of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, job aspirations, and English proficiency? If there is substantial homogeneity, the materials can reflect cross cultural differences, providing a number of bilingual components to explain difficult vocabulary or different vocational practices. Even the phonological interference that is likely to be a

problem for that group in learning English can be worked into the program as an identifiable need.

Needs assessments vary in their organization and sophistication. Most are samplings of local area needs that result in materials specifically targeted for the local population. Others are the result of a national sample and are based on a general idea of language demands of a particular job and require substantial adaptation by local teachers to account for geographic differences and cross-cultural differences in both the student and the employee population.

Few vocational ESL needs assessments have reached the level of specificity of those conducted for occupational training courses, which identify job tasks through observation, interview, and analysis; sequence these tasks; and write instructional objectives—all before beginning to develop materials. These assessments offer a model that VESL materials developers would do well to follow. For example, in preparing a new vocational course at the 916 Area Vocational/Technical Institute for Orthotics and Prosthetics, the curriculum developer took the following steps as part of the task analysis:

- Contacted a university that offers the training program
- Read their materials and texts
- Observed their lectures and demonstrations
- Gave a questionnaire to instructors to rank-order all activities they recorded
- Designed materials to provide each of the tasks/skills identified in order of importance
- Used performance objectives (competency-based) to serve as demonstration that the required skills and knowledge had been mastered
- Followed up with studies to determine how well the materials are meeting required needs
- Revised as necessary and continued to revise
- Used and continued to use an advisory committee to keep abreast of changes in the field that need to be incorporated into the vocational curriculum

The language components of each task/skill in a vocational ESL needs assessment could be identified in roughly the same way, though a great deal of audiotaping would be necessary to ensure that the curriculum is teaching the language that is actually used on the job.

Ideally, a needs assessment will provide information for the following components of the language class:

- The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with

- The language activities in which the learner will engage
- The language functions that the learner will fulfill
- What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic
- The general notions that the learner will be able to handle
- The specific (topic-related) notions that the learner will be able to handle
- The language forms that the learner will be able to use
- The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform

Adapting Materials

If a program can find a good set of adult general ESL materials that are culturally and linguistically appropriate, at the proper English level, capable of being used by the teachers in the program, and also easily available and inexpensive enough for the program, it seems natural to consider adapting or supplementing these materials for vocational purposes. Since these materials already have a syllabus design to follow, materials developers can be free to concentrate on selecting relevant job contexts or situations for teaching the vocational language, identifying important vocabulary, and providing adequate practice with that occupational language.

Adaptations or supplements offer an important advantage for programs that have several different vocational courses for limited English speakers. It is possible to create parallel materials for various vocations. These will enable instructors to teach the entire class the new English structures, using one set of materials, and then switch to various vocation-specific adaptations of those same materials for each group of students with similar occupational goals. If the program has bilingual aides as well, a number of job-specific ESL lessons can be taught simultaneously.

Materials can also be developed to supplement the English-language instruction in the ESL class such as bilingual glossaries or brief introductions to the vocational context in the adult's native language. In a project in San Francisco's Chinatown, which led to the *English That Works* series (Savage et al.), the native language was used to introduce new survival ESL lessons, to explain terms that would be difficult to define or demonstrate in English (such as zip code or social security card), and to provide such relevant cross-cultural information as differences in nonverbal behavior (for example, handshaking and greeting behavior) and differences in values and thinking patterns. The introductory sheets are published separately from the lesson. (Program officials report that interested adults often stopped by the office to pick up the Chinese "pink sheets," even though they

were not enrolled in the program, simply because the information was relevant and readily accessible in their own language.) However, any program with a competent bilingual aide could provide these kinds of supplementary sheets to accompany the prevocational or vocational ESL materials.

Another approach to providing relevant ESL materials starts with the vocational text as the primary source. This makes the most sense when vocational training and ESL are occurring simultaneously. Either the text that is being used in the course or a simplified text on the same subject can be used as the adaptation source. ESL lessons, oral or written, can be based on each chapter of the vocational text. In adapting or supplementing ESL materials, the context and vocabulary must be provided. In adapting or supplementing the vocational text, the language structures and functions must be worked into the context provided. It is essential that the ESL teacher coordinate lessons with the vocational instructor so that the adaptation makes sense in terms of the vocational needs of the student.

Creating Materials

If no ESL or vocational materials are available for adapting or supplementing for vocational ESL, it may be necessary to create materials, specifying the syllabus design (structural, situational, or functional) and then creating classroom activities to fulfill the objectives of that design.

Syllabus Design

Structural. In ESL and EFL, the focus in syllabus design has traditionally been on the forms of the language to be mastered and the rules for combining these (that is, on the sounds, structures, and words of the language and the patterns in which these are combined for speaking, listening, reading, and writing). A syllabus designer selects from these forms and sequences them on the basis of simplicity, importance, frequency of use, and the order in which children first acquire them in their first language.

Students are provided with practice in repeating and manipulating the language patterns in order to make these habitual. The teacher controls the amount of vocabulary in order to focus on the grammar of the language. Reading and writing are also delayed to allow sufficient time for development of listening and speaking skills. It is this syllabus design that still dominates in ESL, even in more "communicative" approaches that add a number of interactive or communicative activities.

With this approach, however, students can leave a class, having practiced repeating and manipulating a pattern, only to find that when they need to use it they are unable to respond. Their attention in class has been focused on the language, not on their ability to *use* that language, and when any of the cues are missing, they cannot perform.

Situational. In a situational syllabus, it is possible to teach the same structures as in a structural syllabus, but the basis for organizing the language content is the set of situations in which someone might have to use that language (at the bank, in a hotel, on the train, etc.). For example, if the ESL materials included a scene in which an adult is cashing a traveler's check at a bank or opening a checking account, it is possible to write dialogues, create drills, and provide a number of other activities that would still teach need, or want or have + infinitive, or Yes/No, or Wh-questions:

Customer:	I need to open a checking account. (or cash a traveler's check)
Bank Employee:	Fine. You'll have to endorse the check. Do you need a pen?
Customer:	No, thanks. I have one.
Bank Employee:	Do you want any small bills?
Customer:	No. I need some quarters, though.

The situational syllabus represents an attempt to make the language class more relevant to the learner and to provide simulated activities in which the learner can practice the language. The goal of language classes based on a situational syllabus is a mastery of the ability to use the language (communicative competence) rather than a mastery of the structures and sounds of the language (grammatical competence).

Notional/Functional. The notional/functional syllabus represents another attempt to make language classes more meaningful and relevant. It uses speech acts (the things we do with language such as offer, request, refuse, warn, threaten, express opinions or emotions, etc.) and general semantic notions (time, space, quantity, frequency, duration, etc.) as its basis for organizing language. Here, however, the focus is not on the language units or on the methodology of the classroom, but rather the learner's needs for that language. It begins by making an inventory of all the possible purposes a learner might have for using that language and then organizing these into a syllabus for presenting language activities. For example, the following functions of language have been identified: imparting and seeking factual information, expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes,

expressing and finding out moral attitudes, getting things done, and socializing.

A functional syllabus can retain grammatical sequencing, teaching simpler structures before more complex ones (for example, holding conditionals and passive voice until after present and simple past are taught). When teaching students to express their likes and dislikes (the function), it is possible to teach the grammatical structures necessary to fulfill that function: for example, to teach the difference between such verbs as like (which can take either -ing forms or infinitives—"I like singing" or "I like to sing") and such verbs as enjoy (which take only the -ing form—"I enjoy singing," but not "I enjoy to sing").

Functional approaches recognize that a person can use a variety of sentences for the same function, depending upon the situation, the participants, the degree of intimacy or formality, etc. One might say, "Give me that" to a child, but would rarely be so direct in requesting something from one's boss. Instead, "Could I have that?" or "Do you think I could borrow that?" might be more appropriate. To a fellow worker, the request might be "I need that" or "Do you need to use that right now?" Not only can different sentences be used for the same function, but the same sentence can be used for different functions. For example, "The phone's ringing" may mean "Will you answer it?" "Excuse me, I have to answer that," or "It's not busy any more. Maybe we'll get through now."

A notional/functional syllabus might identify the following basic language goals for learners: the ability to request or give information, to ask others to do something or respond to their requests, to explain how to do something or how it was done, to ask for clarification, to offer help, and to socialize with peers, boss, and customers. Curriculum developers would create activities to enable learners to acquire the ability to use the language for these functions.

If the function being taught is making and answering requests, activities might include (1) short dialogues, in which a worker asks a colleague for help and is refused; (2) role plays, in which people take turns making and responding to requests; and (3) dialogue cues, in which the content of the interaction is provided, but the adult must create the appropriate utterances. (E.g., one student is told to say that he needs help and is very busy today. The other student is told to respond that she can help, but not until later.)

Curriculum Development

After the needs assessment and the choice of syllabus design have been completed and the functions, structures, and situations specified

and identified in their order of importance, the materials or curriculum developer must take that syllabus or skeleton of the language course and "flesh out" the syllabus. This involves determining the classroom activities and any supplementary materials (visuals, audiotapes, videotapes, etc.).

The kinds of activities appropriate to VESL are those appropriate for general adult ESL, but with the context or function directed toward general occupational knowledge or a specific job. These activities must provide learners with opportunities to listen to the language they will be expected to understand and to respond appropriately to it. It will involve knowing how to say something when one has been given cues about what to say. (Call the personnel director who interviewed you last week. Greet him. Tell him you're calling about the interview. Find out whether he has made a decision.) It will involve being prepared for various answers. (If the personnel director says, "Oh, I don't know yet," the response will be different from that to "I've decided to hire someone else" or "I've decided to give you a chance at the job.") It will also involve providing learners with a number of routine interactions expected of them when socializing on the job or during routine tasks:

How's the weather out?
Oh, it's getting better.
It's still lousy.
It's pouring.
It's beautiful.

I need to speak with Mr. Jones.
May I tell him who's calling, please?
I'm sorry, he's in a meeting. Can I take a message?
Just a minute, please. I'll see if he's in.
He's on another line. Do you want to hold?

The activities need to be as functional and communicative as possible, providing learners with opportunities to interact in English as they will have to interact on the job. The VESL class will also have to help adults learn to read and write the specialized English for their vocations: filling out forms, making reports or writing memos, writing orders, and reading texts, manuals, and correspondence.

The written texts should be as close as possible to those that the adult will have to use in vocational training or on the job. A controversy exists over whether to use "authentic" or "simplified" texts: should the student be helped to read through the original text, with all its difficult vocabulary and sentence structure, or should the text be rewritten in a more "simplified" manner? The answer to that ques-

tion is not validated by any research; in fact, there is still very little solid evidence about what makes some texts more "difficult" than others. Moreover, simplifying one level—syntactic, semantic, or discourse—may result in increasing the complexity of other levels. The answer to that will have to wait for further research. However, if the manual is going to be used in its original form, the curriculum developer will have to provide glosses or explanations—in the adults' first language, if possible—to clarify the more difficult parts. Since few vocational ESL classes are of long duration and lack the luxury of having students for several hours a day for one to two years, it may be necessary to use "authentic" texts very early, so that learners can become acquainted with the difficulties. A "simplified" section could be used as an introduction to the more difficult, authentic text.

Fieldtesting and Evaluation

After the curriculum has been developed, it should be tested on several sites and revisions made accordingly. Evaluation is always a problem in adult ESL materials, since programs are rarely funded for sufficient time to allow materials to be adequately fieldtested, revised, and retested. However, some evaluation of the success of the materials should be done to assess:

- How appropriate were the materials?
- How easy were the materials to use?
- Did learners using them do well in their vocational courses or on the job, or were there language-related reasons for their failure?
- What skills were not adequately focused on?
- What situations, vocabulary, or other language items were omitted?
- How clear were the instructions and the teacher's manual?

Teachers, supervisors, and the learners (successfully and unsuccessfully employed or in training) need to be contacted. Evaluation and revision should be continuous in order to keep abreast of new vocational developments.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL VOCATIONAL ESL PROGRAMS: A SUMMARY

Although successful VESL programs vary considerably—depending on size, location, program model, quality of the teachers, and backgrounds and goals of the students—they share at least a number of the following characteristics:

1. The successful VESL program is learner-centered. All learner

needs—educational, social, economic, and psychological—are considered when the program is designed and the curriculum determined. The fact that the adult has different roles and responsibilities from younger learners is recognized, and planners work with the adults to identify needs and set objectives. They create an ESL program that serves those needs and that is viewed as practical and relevant by the adults. The program not only provides prevocational or vocational ESL and often vocational training, but the ESL is part of a coordinated manpower effort that helps adults find jobs and continues to offer services, both counseling and educational, after placement.

2. The successful VESL program takes into consideration the fact that English can and should be learned for specific functions and domains. It offers vocational or prevocational ESL courses for those adults who see English as a key to a job or a better job. It offers other ESL courses for those people who are not seeking jobs. It groups adults with similar goals and needs into the same ESL courses so that the common goal of achieving ESL proficiency for particular objectives is met. It avoids lumping together a variety of adults with differing needs and ESL levels into the same course.

3. The successful VESL program specifies behavioral or performance objectives that are job-related and uses appropriate materials to achieve these. These behavioral objectives result from a needs assessment, whether formal or informal, and are kept relevant through continual program evaluation. The materials are designed with specific job contexts or tasks in mind or are appropriate adaptations of general ESL materials. They are clearly relevant to general job demands and the specific language demands of the adults' vocation.

4. The successful VESL program is an integral part of a good manpower or vocational program. It provides job counseling, placement, and vocational training, and helps the limited English-speaking adult to obtain entry into the vocational program as soon as possible; if the adult needs a job as well, arrangements are made for the adult's training to continue, in both the vocation and ESL, while he or she is working.

5. The successful VESL program is as functional as possible. Activities are communicative and relevant, and adults are given ample opportunity to practice using the language in a variety of ways.

6. The successful VESL program builds upon the language and vocational skills the adult already possesses and addresses adult needs.

7. The successful VESL program recognizes cross-cultural differences, especially those related to education and language learning.

This list of characteristics is by no means exhaustive, nor are these objectives always possible to achieve. Since many adult vocational ESL programs rely on annual funding, it is difficult to design and

implement them as well as continually evaluate and revise them. Good teachers, here as in so many other programs, can spell the difference between success and failure, even in the most inappropriately designed programs.

Suggestions for Further Reading

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, Susan. *Bibliography of vocational education curriculum materials appropriate for utilization with limited English-speaking students or bilingual students.* Bowling Green, KY: Center for Career and Vocational Teacher Education, Western Kentucky University.

Good lists of sources—in English and other languages—in various vocations. Some of the English materials would need adaptation for use in the classroom. Useful for curriculum developers.

Bilingual Vocational Education Project. *Vocational education for limited English-speaking populations in Michigan: An assessment of needs.* Lansing: Eastern Michigan University.

Bodman, Jean and Susan Lanzano. 1978. *What ESL students want: A report of their opinions on coping skills in the classroom.* Available through Adult Education Resource Center, Jersey City, NJ 07305.

Results of survey by language and culture groups. Survey is available, translated into 18 languages, for other programs to do needs assessment.

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.

Drobnic, Karl, ed. 1979. *English for Specific Purposes Newsletter.* Issue 28, July. Oregon State University.

A special issue of the newsletter devoted entirely to vocational ESL.

Fine, Sydney A. 1973. *Functional job analysis scales.* Methods for manpower analysis, No. 7. Kalamazoo, MI: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.

_____ and Wretha W. Wiley. 1971. *An introduction to functional job analysis.* Methods for manpower analysis, No. 4. Kalamazoo, MI: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.

Holden, Susan, ed. 1977. *English for specific purposes.* London: Modern English Publications.

Collection of short articles on current work in ESP, including program descriptions, materials development and testing, and classroom practices. Excellent introduction to ESP.

Ilyin, Donna and Thomas Tragardh, eds. 1978. *Classroom practices in adult ESL.* Washington, DC: TESOL.

Collection of articles on adult ESL, with two of particular relevance to vocational ESL: Jan Laylin, "ESL on the job: The Jantzen experience," and Joanne Dresner, "Teaching through recorded natural conversations."

Rezabek, Dale J. 1981. *Horizon.* Sacramento: California Advisory Council on Vocational Education.

Robles, Gabriel, ed. 1971. *ESL—MESL: Problems and position papers on manpower English as a second language.* UCLA: Southwest Area Manpower Ins itute for Development and Staff.

Savage, K. Lynn et al. 1978. *Vocational master plan for ESL.* San Francisco Community College District.

Good example of curriculum guide for prevocational ESL, with language objectives and nonverbal/cultural objectives provided for getting a job, holding a job, and moving ahead.

Savage, K. Lynn et al. 1982. *English that works.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co. (Lifelong Learning Division)

Books 1-2
Instructor's guides
Cassettes 1-2 (set of 6 tapes)
Flashcards (set of 150)
Cultural notes 1-2

Designed for a prevocational or vocational ESL course, this text can also be used as a course text. Described as an integrated, competency-based, bilingual vocational ESL program, this new series combines low-level ESL skills with task-oriented objectives, giving adult students the English they need to get and keep a job.

Each book is accompanied by a separate (optional) cultural notes booklet that gives essential information about cultural values, customs, vocabulary, etc. in Spanish, Chinese, or Vietnamese. The instructor's guide is complete and very useful. Although newly-arrived refugees may find this series fast paced, many ESL teachers find that this is the answer for students who, after a basic survival ESL course, want to ready themselves for the job market.

U S Department of Education. 1982. Program Improvement Systems Branch, Division of National Vocational Programs, Office of Vocational and Adult Education. *Curriculum coordination centers impact report for 1981.* Washington, DC: USDE.

''ESL Staff Development Project. 1981. *California VESL resource directory.* San Francisco: Chinatown Resources Development Center.

4. ESL IN THE WORKPLACE

INTRODUCTION

For a number of reasons, the refugee's place of work provides an advantageous environment for teaching English language courses. It offers opportunities to provide functional, clearly focused language instruction that can benefit the employer as well as the employee, and it enables the ESL teacher to have access to all the equipment and materials necessary to present a relevant, job related English program.

In this chapter, we take a look at the role that the employer can play in facilitating English language instruction for limited English speaking employees. However, since programs of this nature are not widely known in the business community, it becomes the responsibility of the ESL instructor to suggest this alternative and to work with employers and supervisors in developing specialized ESL programs in the workplace. Our more specific purpose, then, becomes one of examining the nature of the partnership among the ESL teacher, private industry, and the worker with a limited knowledge of English. We will also discuss how a teacher prepares a course that responds to the expectations and requirements of industry and the needs of the learner/worker.

THE PARTNERSHIP: ESL AND THE EMPLOYER

Over the past decade, English language programs have become increasingly specialized. One of these areas of specialization is the teaching of linguistic skills in the context of a job. What is new about this approach is that it looks at the learner and the purposes for which the target language is required. It is on this assessment of purposes and needs that the entire program of ESL in the workplace is built.

This specialized approach is part of a larger movement within the language-teaching profession away from a concentration on structures to an emphasis on language in context or use. In emphasizing func-

tional language, a variety of programs have been developed that move the English language program away from the classroom and into the work site. These vocational English as a second language (VESL) courses may be offered as individual programs, on an as-needed basis, or as part of a larger vocational training program. It is possible to develop an integrated program that teaches job skills and the language skills one needs to function on that job.

While the advantages of such a program may seem apparent to an ESL instructor, they will need to be presented clearly to employers, to businesses, and to industry. Industry may be reluctant to engage in a project that seems vague, inappropriate, or beyond the company's normal range of training.

A proposal for a vocational ESL program, therefore, must do the following:

- Describe precisely the concrete objectives that would be achieved in a VESL course
- Show that the course is specific to the company's needs
- Illustrate that this kind of language training can be offered concurrently with other employee training
- Explain how a VESL program is a valuable training course in that it not only enables employees to expand their skills, but also enhances their productivity

Very broadly, employers offer two types of response to suggestions that VESL courses should be taught to their employees. The first response is a denial of any need for English courses. Either the employer believes that English is not necessary for the job ("You don't need English to make beds") or believes that if English is necessary, other employees can be found who already speak English.

The second type of response indicates an interest in offering English classes. These employers view VESL courses as opening employment opportunities for workers who are good employees (that is, reliable and careful in their jobs) and providing them with opportunities to continue learning on their job, thus becoming more flexible and promotable workers.

While it will be difficult to sell ESL courses to employers who maintain the first attitude, these attitudes may be changed by stressing the positive economic benefits of English language instruction. We hope, however, that the second attitude will be more common. The VESL teacher will find that many businesses have had their own training departments for years and are accustomed to thinking in these terms. In addition, their experience outside the U.S. will have brought them into contact with training programs in other countries.

Some large companies have financed English language-training centers overseas as part of their pursuit of sales and markets. Such companies, well aware of the link between communication and productivity, call on the ESP expert when faced with problems arising from the employment of limited English-speaking workers. Companies operating solely within the U.S. may also be concerned enough with similar problems to contact teachers for help.

It is important to note that ESL programs in the workplace can be designed to be cost-conscious and cost-effective; moreover, they can be specific to the needs of the employer. To do so requires three major steps: (1) needs analysis, (2) program design, and (3) course instruction. Step (3) will be most effective if Steps (1) and (2) are a collaborative effort between the employers and the ESL instructors.

A PLAN OF ACTION

The initial contacts must be at the managerial level. The teacher will want to talk with someone who can evaluate proposals and make decisions. It is important, though, that the discussions should broaden immediately beyond the manager's office to include someone, such as a foreman, who is in close contact with the workers whose limited English is causing concern.

Definition of Needs

Both management and supervisors will need to be consulted early in defining needs, since their involvement is essential to the success of an ESL course in the workplace. Not only will they offer insight into course design, but by being consulted, they will also have an investment in the success of the program. In addition, the consultation process will avoid the company's having to pay for courses that are inappropriate and unresponsive to its needs—a general English course with job-specific jargon simply tacked on, for instance.

In the discussion with management, the following points should be clarified before a course is designed:

- How many people will be in the program?
  This will depend on the number needing English classes and the amount of money available for the program.
- What criteria will be used to identify workers eligible for ESL?
- How many learners should be in each group?
  Although class size can vary, classes larger than 15-20 would be difficult to teach, since VESL courses involve considerable amounts of demonstration.

- How will learners be assigned to groups?
  The groups will be as homogeneous as possible in their command of English, although some multilevel classes may be necessary.
- Is it possible to group students?
  Can work schedules and shifts be accommodated?
  Can department-specific courses be offered? (If a worker is in the receiving and shipping department, it may not be useful to study English used for assembly-line tasks.)
- How long should the course last?
  It is possible to design a successful course that meets as few as 40-50 hours; these can be spread over 10-12 weeks.
- How should instruction be scheduled?
  It is possible to offer one-hour sessions, four days a week, or two-hour sessions, twice a week. If the latter schedule is adopted, it should be taken into account that these learners are also workers, and that the effectiveness of two hours' study, on top of a full day's work, may be limited.
- Will the classes meet during work hours?
  The company might offer to provide all the time or ask the workers to contribute some of the time without pay.
- When should the classes take place?
  This may depend on worker schedules. If they work in shifts, the class could meet during the last hour of one shift and the first hour of the next. If there are no shifts, the classes could take place before work, in the evening after work, or during the lunch hour.
- Where should the classes be held?
  The work site is ideal for the following reasons:
  1. No time or money is lost transporting workers to class.
  2. Attendance at classes is good, since the location is convenient, and the worker's presence is visible to all.
  3. Distraction and noise are part of the worker's daily reality, and this can be easily integrated into the VESL course.
  4. The machinery and other materials necessary for demonstration are available.
- What policy should be taken towards absences?
  Learners persistently absent should be dropped from VESL courses.
- Who should pay for the course?
  In some locations, state funds are available for this kind of course, but they come with the disadvantages of considerable paperwork and constraining regulations. In most places, the

company pays from its own funds and purchases a program that is well prepared, specific to its needs, and that can be used repeatedly.

- Who should pay for materials?
  If possible, the company should pay for the development of materials specific to its needs.

Besides interviews with management and supervisors, a good needs analysis also involves observations of the work site and consultation with coworkers. T. C. Jupp and S. Hodlin (1975) note in preparing English for special purposes courses for Asian workers in Britain:

> It is essential for the teacher to investigate and experience the social reality of a place of work before he can make choices about what language functions a learner in that situation needs, and what linguistic skills these involve. The investigator's role is not one of detached observer. He must develop a real "feel" for the workplace so that he can understand the experiences, tensions, and frustrations which affect communication there.

By observing the workplace, the ESL instructor can discover the general nature of the work process and draw the specific language and job tasks of participants in the ESP program. Some instructors may even take jobs in the factories where they intend to teach. A small factory that produces display materials and employs a total of 40 workers, with workbenches contained in one large area, will not require long hours of observation. But a large brewery or electronics factory is another matter.

During observation, the instructor needs to look at what people read and write on the job as well as what they say and must understand. Because maintaining intense levels of alertness to communication is demanding, it will help to classify these areas of communication. For example:

Language used in routine social interaction
Greetings, farewells, ways of addressing coworkers, talking with coworkers in the cafeteria, working as a part of a team

Language used for a specific job
Responding to instructions, making requests, helping others, keeping records, following safety regulations

Language for flexibility and increased responsibility
Describing the process of the whole plant, addressing a variety of people, giving messages, carrying messages, writing notes, using the telephone, initiating conversation

Language for inquiring about formal procedures

Questioning about wages, holidays, leave, fringe benefits; using the clinic and credit union; discussing grievances

A tape recorder will help provide representative samples of the language used in the workplace as well as examples of the routine noise levels. If a foreman is recorded describing a job process or giving instructions, this sample can be used in the course. Using this input will reinforce the manager's and coworkers' involvement in the English course. In the workplace, the instructor will not have the time to absorb all that is being said, but transcribing parts of the recordings will sharpen awareness of the language being used.

In observing the workplace, it will be important to talk with the coworkers of the prospective students. Obviously, this will need to be handled sensitively. A good approach is to seek out workers in informal settings such as a coffee break. Instead of inquiring directly about relations with limited English speakers, a better strategy is to ask the worker about his or her job—what's difficult about it? What's good about it? In this way the instructor will learn about the work process, and, indirectly, what workers expect of one another.

These conversations can also provide information about the following areas of concern:

- The expectations that an English-speaking worker has of coworkers. (A limited English-speaking worker may use the simple strategy of remaining silent. This silence may not be acceptable.) Coworkers expect greetings and comments on the weather or baseball results. They expect gossip and reactions to union activities. Teasing, expressed both physically and verbally, may also be common. The silence of the limited English speaker may be interpreted as unfriendliness or stupidity, and the atmosphere will cool accordingly.
- The attitudes expressed towards the limited English-speaking worker. Negative attitudes between English speakers and workers with limited English may revolve around personal habits, food, money, using language other than English, work habits, and male-female relations.
- English proficiency and problems faced by nonnative speakers of English on the job. Insights from these informal exchanges with coworkers will provide valuable course content.

Assessment of English Language Levels

Although it is possible to test learners in order to place them in the program, structured interviews might be more appropriate and

informative. Although tests have the advantage of providing a standardized measurement of progress, most standardized and validated tests measure a formal knowledge of language structures rather than the communicative abilities of the learner/worker in the workplace. Moreover, the construction of even a simple test that has to be standardized and validated takes considerable time and experience. Besides, candidates for VESL courses are not usually from sophisticated educational backgrounds, and they may feel intimidated by or resentful of testing procedures. They may also suffer some anxiety that their scores on an English test will be used as a basis for firing them.

Thus, interviews offer a better approach and provide more information upon which the course can be designed and evaluated in terms of learner success. (The criterion of success must be the learner/worker's improved ability to communicate on the job after the course.) When possible, the interview should be held in a relaxed setting and include information on (1) social contact, (2) job specifics, and (3) literacy.

The following example is for the elementary level. Other, similar tests would have to be devised for higher levels.

(1) Social Contact

Instructor	*Learner/Worker's Replies*	
	Acceptable	Unacceptable
1. Opening greetings	1	0
2. Self-identification: What's your name?	1	0
3. How do you spell your name?	1	0
4. Where do you live?	1	0
5. Which country are you from?	1	0
6. Do you have family here?	0	1
7. How long have you worked here?	1	0
8. Where did you work before?	1	0
9. What's the name of your supervisor?	0	1
10. How do you spell that name?	0	1
TOTAL SCORE:	7	3

(2) Job Specifics

A similar outline can be made for the instructor to question the learner/worker on his or her job. The questions can be as follows:

1. What's your job?
2. What do you do in your job?
   On an assembly line, for instance?

3. What happens to the product before it reaches you?
4. What do you do to it?
5. What happens to the product after it leaves you?
6. What time do you start work?
7. What's the first thing you do when you get to your work station?
8. Do you get more work done in the morning or in the afternoon?
9. What problems do you have in this job?
10. Who do you go to if you need help?

(3) Literacy

A rough assessment of reading and writing skills can be obtained by giving the learner/worker a form to fill out—name, date of birth, country of origin, occupation, place of work, etc. Or he or she could be asked to complete small tasks, such as the ones that follow:[1]

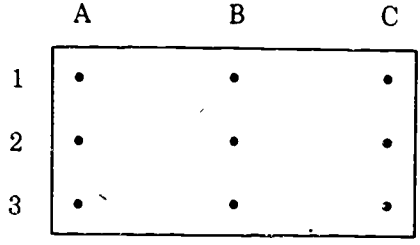
Directions: Circle the number that is the same as the first number:

1	A10109	A11009	A10109	A01019	A01010
2	06B7845 0978	06B745-0978	06B7844-0987	0B67845-097B	06B7845-0978
3	6XR12	6XR13	6X6R12	6XR12	6XRR12
4	D8A0774661	D80774616	D8A0746611	DDA0774661	D8A0774661
5	S44T533X-01	S44T35X-01	S44T533X-01	544T53X-01	S4T43551-OX

Directions: Draw a picture to match the directions.

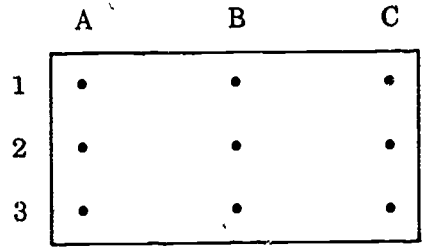
Example:

1. Draw a line from A1 to B3.

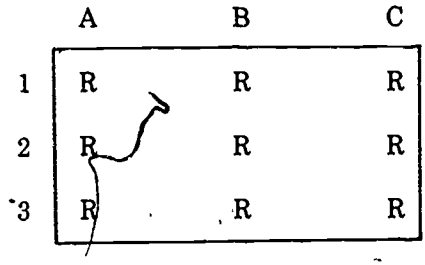


2. Draw lines from A1 to B1
   B1 to C1
   C2 to B3
   A3 to B2
   C3 to B1

[1]Developed by Autumn Keltner and Toni Thomas, San Diego Community College, San Diego, CA.



3. Remove R at B2, C1.



During this testing, it may become apparent that some of the learners have literacy problems. If this is so, the groups should be divided into those with strong literacy skills and those without. This should be done regardless of the levels of English. (Chapter 5, "Teaching ESL in the Multilevel Classroom," advises on how to deal with this problem.)

It will be helpful if the instructor can record these interviews, as this will cut down on paperwork, and the recordings made before a course can be compared with those made on completion of the course.

All of this seems like it will take a great deal of time. How much time should be spent on preparation? This depends on the following:

- The amount of money available for preparation
- The amount of experience in organizing ESP courses
- The size of the project
- The complexity of the work itself

Obviously, the amount of preparation time decreases as the instructor gains experience in assessing needs, analyzing systems and procedures in the workplace, and selecting appropriate materials.

An experienced ESL instructor, who set up a VESL program for an electronics company, calculated spending about 30 hours of preparation time as follows:

Interaction with managers, supervisors, and coworkers: 4 hours

Interaction with limited English-speaking employees:	4 hours
Observation in the workplace:	8 hours
(It should be noted that security procedures in the plant curtailed these three activities.)	
Analysis of interaction and observation:	4 hours
Testing and grouping of learner/workers:	3 hours
(This did not include the writing of a special diagnostic test.)	
Program outline, plus lesson outline for the first five lessons:	8 hours
Total Preparation time:	31 hours

Assessment of Communicative Needs

The instructor should conduct a formal interview with at least one learner per job. If learners do not have sufficient English to answer the questions, it may be possible to turn to other workers who can interpret, or to call upon a local ethnic self-help group for an interpreter. If these options don't exist, the instructor will have to ask the work supervisor to answer some of these questions.

The aim of the interview is to establish a profile of the ways in which English does—or does not—serve the learner/worker in the workplace and to target the needs he or she has to communicate in English.

The questions in this interview are adapted from Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (1978), which is part of an ambitious project for defining the content of a specific purpose language program. A full execution of the type of investigation advocated by Munby is impractical for most VESL instructors, but the present exercise is extremely useful for directing attention toward the learner/worker and for sensitizing the instructor to areas of language use that may otherwise have gone unnoticed. For instance, in the section on channels of communication, the instructor may learn that the P.A. system is an important channel of communication and, as such, needs some treatment in the course.

The interview covers eight areas:

- Personal
  Language background
  Cultural background
- Purpose
  Occupation for which English is needed
- Setting
  Physical and psychosocial setting in which English is used

- Interaction
  Role relationships
- Instrumentality
  Speaking and writing, receptive and productive
  Face-to-face, telephone
- Target level
  Level of competence required in English
- Communicative events
  What the learner/worker has to be able to do in English
- Attitudes
  Attitudinal tones the learner/worker is required to master

We have conducted an interview to cover these areas and have included the answers here. (See Figure 1.) This questionnaire is extensive, and instructors need not be overly concerned if they cannot obtain answers to all the questions; in fact, some information may have to be learned by observation in the workplace or by asking the learners' coworkers. (Remember that in some cases people will say what they think you want to hear. It takes time to develop a relaxed atmosphere that encourages candid answers.)

Fig. 1. *Sample Interview*

I PERSONAL		INTERVIEWER'S RECORD OF ANSWERS
1	What's your name? (underline family name)	Berhanu Yared
2	Male or female?	Mal.
3	How old are you?	23 years
4	Which country do you come from?	Ethiopia
5	How long have you been in the States?	1 year
6	What's your mother tongue?	Amharic
7	Do you speak any other language?	Some Italian and Arabic
8	Do you read and write in your mother tongue? not at all/sufficiently/well	Well
9	How well do you know English? not at all/sufficiently/well	Sufficiently
10	Do you read and write in English? not at all/sufficiently well	Sufficiently
II PURPOSE		
1	What's your job?	Parking attendant
2	What's your main duty?	Parking cars

3	Do you have any other duties?	Handling payment for use of the car lot

III SETTING

1	Which city or town and state do you work in?	Washington, DC
2	Which languages do you speak at work?	Engl sh
3	How many hours a day or week do you need English at work?	All the time
4	Do you require English regularly often occasionally?	Regularly
5	Underline any of the following words which describe your workplace	
	technologically sophisticated	
	technologically unsophisticated	technologically unsophisticated
	urban rural	urban
	quiet noisy	very noisy
	demanding undemanding	demanding
	hurried unhurried	hurried
	formal informal	informal
	aggressive unaggressive	aggressive
	secure insecure	insecure
	stable unstable	unstable
6	How many people work at your workplace?	4

IV INTERACTION

1	From the following list which people do you speak to in English at your workplace?	
	Individuals small groups large groups	Individuals
	Older people people of your own age younger people	All ages
	Mostly men some men no men mostly women some women no women an equal mixture of men and women	An equal mix of men and women
	Americans fellow countrymen others	All of these
	Employers managers foremen fellow workers	Fellow workers, occasionally the manager
	Office staff	No
	Public officials	No
	Customers or clients	Yes

V INSTRUMENTALITY

1	In your job do you need	
	to speak English? never sometimes often	Often
	to understand spoken English? never sometimes often	Often
	to read English? never sometimes often	Sometimes
	to write English? never sometimes often	Never

2 In your job do you need to understand and produce

unlabeled illustrations charts plans? Yes, the parking lot plan

signs gestures mimes? Yes, directing cars

mathematical symbols? Yes, times on the tickets the cash register and license plates

never sometimes often

3 Do you use English at work

face to face on the telephone in radio contact with a walkie talkie in print through a PA through television? Face to face

VI TARGET LEVELS

1 = very short very simple
2 = short simple
3 = average
4 = long difficult
5 = very long very difficult

1 Following the above scale

Are the written materials you read in English long or short? 1

Are your conversations in English long or short? 1

Are the sentences you use simple or difficult? 1

2 Do you speak about specific details in English at work? Yes makes of cars, location of cars

3 Do you speak quickly in English? Sometimes
always sometimes never

4 Do people talk quickly to you in English? At first "This refugee was frequently taken for a black American."
always sometimes never

5 Can you talk about topics other than those related to your work? Yes Housing food soccer politics

6 On a scale of 1 to 5 how tolerant are people

when you make mistakes in English? 2 "The unpredictability of attitudes is a constant source of tension."

when you ask them to repeat? 3

when you hesitate? 2

VII COMMUNICATIVE EVENTS

1 List 3 activities for which you have to be able to understand spoken English in your workplace

1 Understanding when a client will return
2 Comments on the pavement
3 What make and color of car

To speak English

1 Asking how long the car will be left
2 Asking what kind of car has been left
3 Talking to coworker about car location

To read English

1 Tickets
2 Signs

To write English

No

VII ATTITUDES

1 Which of the following words describe the attitudes at your workplace?

pleasant unpleasant	neither
exciting unexciting	unexciting
caring indifferent	indifferent
friendly unfriendly	unpredictable
polite impolite	impolite
patient impatient	impatient
praising detracting	neither

(The informant talked at length about attitudes. He said that because of his insecurities in using English, he was very alert to tone and volume, and while he did not always understand exactly what was said, he could sum up the attitudes very quickly.)

PROGRAM DESIGN

Few materials exist for VESL courses, and in most cases teachers will be obliged to adapt or write materials themselves. Indeed, if a course is being presented specifically for a company, management will expect to see materials created to meet their special needs.

There are some disadvantages for a teacher who writes a VESL course:

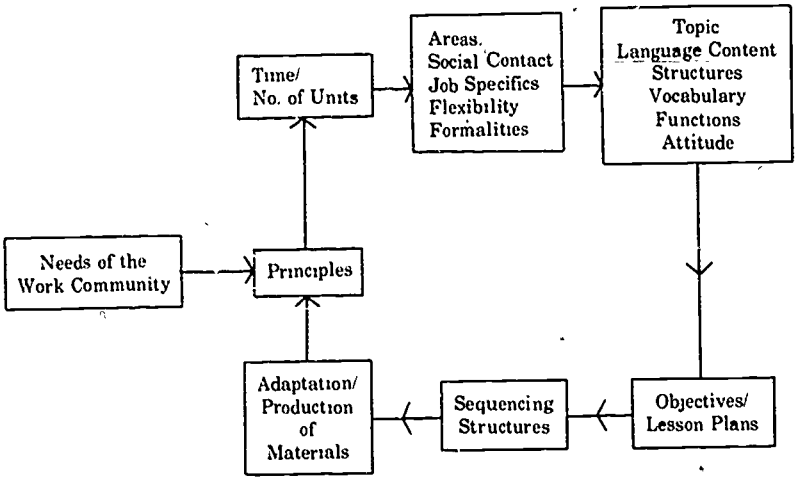
- A great deal of time is required to develop a program. When we suggested that a teacher needed 30 hours of preparation for an ESP course, we were not assuming that this would allow time for the writing of the whole course.
- Teachers may feel intimidated by the prospect of writing a curriculum and the individual lessons for a VESL course. A good way to overcome this hesitancy is to work toward precise, limited goals and to teach toward a few defined objectives.

If a 50 hour course is planned, the instructor might select 50 lesson objectives and then adapt or write material for these. They should be shown to members of the work community to verify that the objectives are appropriate and the expectations of the community are being met.

The diagram on p. 91 illustrates a step-by step process for selecting the lesson objectives that make up the VESL course. The steps are explained as follows:

1. Divide hours into units. For example, if the course is to take 40 hours:

5 units of 8 hours each = 7 lessons of one hour each
1 consolidation lesson



For a 40-hour course, 35 lesson objectives are needed, with 5 hours left for consolidation.

2. Revise the notes taken during interviews and observations of the workplace. Divide these notes into four areas:

- Routine-social interaction
- Job specifics
- Language for flexibility and increased responsibility
- Language for inquiring about formal procedures

Then break down each of the four areas, allowing approximately ten functions for each area. (See Figure 2.)

The language content should come directly from the instructor's observation notes and recordings, though for further examples, instructors may wish to consult ESL textbooks that use a functional approach.

The instructor should also know which formulas the limited English-speaking worker will need to actively use, and which ones should simply be understood. Obviously, relevant vocabulary and English structures will need to be built into these lessons.

3. Input for attitude should also come from notes and recordings made during observation of the workplace. VESL classes should acknowledge the importance of this point and should offer the learner/workers insights into why this occurs and how to prevent or lessen the friction.

4. In order to organize the lessons, the instructor should look at ESL textbooks. For instance, the series *In Touch* (Castro and Kimbrough, 1980) has a functional approach and provides an analysis of gram-

Fig. 2. ***Developing a Program Design***

AREA	TOPIC	FUNCTIONS	FORMULA	STRUCTURES	VOCABULARY	ATTITUDE
Social Interaction		Greeting Addressing coworker	Hi, Bob. Hello, Roughy. (a nickname)	Greeting Sequence		Friendly Informal
Job Specifics	Assistance	Asking for help Asking for additional instructions	Can you . . . ? But I don't see... I can't . . . How . . .?	Can (interrogative) Don't/Can't How does/can?	Gauges Wrench Bench vise Micrometer	Expectant Impartial
Flexibility Increased	Faults	Reporting a fault Discussing a fault	Adjust the . . . Check the . . . Have you . . .? No, I haven't. Not yet. Yes, I have.	Simple imperatives Present perfect Yet/already		Responsible Concerned
Procedures	Pay slips	Pressing for details	Why is it less than . . .?	More/less than Why (interrogative)	Sick leave Clinic Absence Regulation Day off	Patient/ impatient Informative

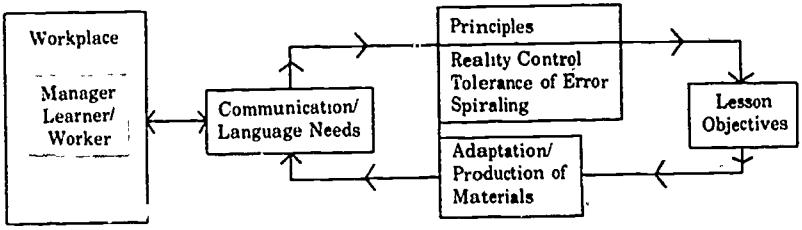
mar and sequencing of structures. At the end of each lesson is a summary of the grammar studied. By studying the patterns of sequence, the VESL teacher can see which features are suitable for the first stages of an elementary level, the second stages of this level, etc., and can select and sequence lesson objectives from the chart following similar patterns.

5. An organized and creative VESL instructor can build up a store of resources to adapt to differing needs of the workplace.

The important questions to ask when adapting or writing lesson plans are:

- What are the learner/workers learning in this lesson?
- Is what they are learning specific to their needs in the workplace?

As the diagram below indicates, there are three major principles that guide all course curricula and materials:



Reality Control

Before, during, and after the writing of a VESL lesson, the instructor must ask:

- What are the objectives of this lesson? Are they clearly defined?
- Are these objectives appropriate to the needs of the learner/worker?
- What is the language content of this lesson?
- Is this meaningful to the learner/worker?
- Is this language naturally generated in the workplace?
- What kind of attitudinal information is built into this lesson? Is it appropriate to the workplace?

Tolerance of Error

A VESL lesson is designed to help the learner/worker communicate well in the workplace. The objective is not to eliminate every error

in the employee's English, especially if these errors do not interfere with communication. If an employee is discussing a problem with the foreman, the emphasis should be on the machine that has broken down or the instructions that have been misunderstood, not on grammatical accuracy. If the foreman asks, "When did this happen?" and the learner/worker replies, "It is yesterday," and the foreman understands that it was yesterday, the communication was successful. Despite linguistic error, the learner/worker understood the question and gave the necessary information in the reply.

Spiraling

The spiral approach to organizing a course emphasizes the need to return to the same topic, but at different levels, or with different language functions in mind, during subsequent lessons.

For example, in learning numbers, students can move from simple counting to a more complex task of discussing wages.

Topic: Numbers

Lesson Number:	Language Function:
1	Counting
2	Identifying number codes
3	Measuring
4	Telling time
5	Discussing wages

With this approach, learner/workers can build on what they know and learn to use numbers in increasingly complex situations. Their confidence in using English will grow as the spiral organization of the course enhances and reinforces what they already know.

Spiraling also allows the instructor to determine that (1) topics have been mastered, (2) new learner/workers coming into classes as the course progresses will not miss out on topics, and (3) learners with problems have an opportunity to review the topic. (Spiraling is discussed more fully in Chapter 5, "Teaching ESL in the Multilevel Classroom.")

COURSE INSTRUCTION

Although the context vocabulary and other language content of a VESL program may differ from those of a general ESL course, the kinds of activities and methods used by the instructor will be similar. Role plays, drills, dialogues, games, strip stories, cloze activities, and the like can all be effectively integrated into the instruction. What makes this VESL, rather than general ESL, is that the actual lan-

guage will be drawn from the workplace and all texts, materials, and class activities will be taught within the context of the job to make it relevant and truly functional. That is, greetings will need to be taught, but the situations will be drawn from work (at the time clock, walking to the building) and the forms for the greetings will be appropriate to the workers involved. (Compare "Hi, ya, Bill!" to a coworker, and "Hello, Mr. Allen!" to a boss.)

Specialized vocabulary and jargon, clearly, will need to be taught as will the structures that are identified as most important in the observations and interviews with the work force.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

Not only do management, supervisors, and coworkers generate the language that is used in a VESL course, they should also contribute actively to the content of the course and suggest changes as the course progresses. The VESL instructor should take care to cultivate their sense of participation.

Continuing evaluation and modification are important. Periodic evaluation should be based on the following questions:

- Do these lessons reflect the workplace?
- Are the lessons appropriate to the needs of the learner/worker?
- Are they aimed primarily at effective communication on the job?
- Are the topics reviewed so that the learner/worker is given every chance to absorb what is being taught?
- As a result of these lessons, will the learner/worker communicate better in the workplace?
- Will this VESL program change the workplace by improving communication and understanding?

The evaluation that a VESL instructor looks for is a "yes" to all of these questions.

A CASE STUDY

The following case study outlines the steps taken to develop one successful VESL course. The three groups of participants in this case study are (1) a private, nonprofit community-based center that specializes in vocational training and ESL teaching; (2) a small firm that designs and assembles printing materials such as displays for advertisements; and (3) seven workers in this company who had the reputation of being good workers but spoke limited English.

The center was contacted by the office manager of the company,

who identified two workers who needed English language training. The center offered to send a representative to visit the company plant, assess the situation, and suggest a plan of action.

A meeting was set up between a representative from the center, the plant manager, and two work supervisors. The manager was aware of a communication problem on the shop floor involving the workers in the company who spoke only limited English. The two work supervisors, who had not been consulted before the center was called in, remained neutral throughout the meeting.

The representative took the initiative and made the following suggestions:

- An instructor should be allowed to spend time in the plant to look at the work process and to assess the kind of English needed in the factory.
- The management should informally find out how many of the workers would be interested in taking English classes.
- If all went well, a 12-week pilot VESL course should be offered to the workers.

In addition, a price for developing and implementing the course was negotiated and agreed upon.

As a result of this meeting, a questionnaire was developed by the center and distributed at a meeting attended by the workers with limited English and by management. (See p. 97 for a modified version.) A Spanish version of this questionnaire was also made available.

Seven workers signed up for the class. The company agreed to pay for the course, and the workers agreed to take classes on their own time. A total of 48 hours and 12 weeks was allowed for the class. The workers decided to meet one hour a day, four days a week, rather than two hours, twice a week.

Since the overall work in the plant was not complex, the instructor concentrated on obtaining the following:

- Notes on the language functions in operation on the workshop floor
- Detailed ideas of the work process
- The names of equipment pieces and the types of materials
- The names of jobs
- A sense of the atmosphere in the workplace

The difference in attitudes between management and the plant supervisors became evident. Management was enthusiastic about the course, even though at first they had been vague about the results they expected. But on the shop floor, such comments were made as

IMPROVE YOUR ENGLISH!

An intensive twelve-week course is planned, so you will learn a lot of English in a short time. In these classes, you will practice vocabulary and communication skills related to your job. You will also learn some English grammar and improve your pronunciation.

Please complete the section below:

---

1. Yes, I am interested in studying to improve my English.
2. I would like to attend classes:

   Two days a week, from 3:45 to 6:00 p.m.
   Monday and Wednesday
   Tuesday and Thursday

   Four days a week, from 3:45 to 5:00 p.m.
   (Monday through Thursday)
3. I would like to attend classes, but I can't be here at the above hours.
4. My English level is:

   Beginning
   Intermediate
   Advanced
5. I am from _____.
   (country)
6. I have been in the U.S. for _____ months/years.
7. I have studied English before.

   Where? _____
   For how long? _____
8. I have never taken classes in English. _____

"There's no need to mix or to waste time talking," and "They don't need to learn English. We manage quite well with sign language."

But upon further discussion, it became clear that a costly error had been made recently, for which the workers' limited English had been blamed. The instructor took care to explain that this was why the course was being offered and that the course was aimed at the specific needs of the workplace. Furthermore, improved communication on

the job would lessen the chance of further errors. The supervisors were reassured by the fact that they could say what they thought, and their cooperation and confidence in the project increased during this period of observation.

When the observation was completed, two weeks were left to develop the course. Fortunately, the objectives had already been defined. Learner/workers would be able to (1) describe the whole work process and their jobs; (2) contribute to the smooth running of the plant by understanding the supply system and keeping others informed on the availability of supplies; and (3) be able to discuss job related problems with the plant superintendents and to take a more active part in overall quality control.

Course materials consisted of the following:

- Specially developed cards showing workers using the machines in the factory. A series of structural and functional exercises were built up around these cards.
- Functional exercises concentrating on teaching employees to take the initiative by asking questions, giving opinions, asking for opinions, hypothesizing, or giving instructions.
- Role-plays adapted to factory situations that gave learner/workers the opportunity to use English. These were useful in allowing employees to express attitudes and practice their reactions to the attitudes of others.

As the course progressed, a problem developed: the learners recognized that because the company was small, chances for their advancement were very limited, and they wanted the English classes to go beyond job specific language. The instructor therefore expanded the course and began introducing other topics. These were principally of a survival nature:

- Trying to buy spare parts for a car
- Renting an apartment
- Paying a parking ticket

These topics were developed into lessons that were very helpful and met employees' personal needs and at the same time improved their English. Management was informed of this turn of events and agreed with the instructor that even language that was not job-specific could help improve the learners' self confidence and relations with other employees.

By the end of the course, the office manager reported that the plant superintendent felt that the learner/workers wanted to speak more English, could communicate better, and understood their supervisors' instructions better.

The VESL program was considered a success by all involved—the employees, management, and the center that developed the program.

Suggestions for Further Reading

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5. TEACHING ESL IN THE MULTILEVEL CLASSROOM

INTRODUCTION

Multilevel classes have been a reality in foreign language courses for some time. The sparse literature on the topic cites attrition, limited enrollments, and scheduling problems as the culprits responsible for such a situation. Although this may be true, many language teachers also contend that there is no such thing as a truly *homogeneous* language class: each class is made up of individuals who bring with them different backgrounds, different abilities, and different needs. Thus, in principle, we can say that all language classes are "multilevel" in one way or another.

This is probably true of all ESL classes, but particularly of adult ESL classes. Most adults have work and family obligations that take first priority in their daily schedules; consequently, the ESL class in which they enroll is often the class that best fits their time schedule or is closest to home, and it is not always the class that best suits their level of language proficiency. Moreover, adult ESL programs are often mandated to serve all students who sign up for instruction, whether or not there is a place in the appropriate class. All this results in large classes consisting of students with different ethnic backgrounds and a wide range of language needs. In other words, the multilevel classroom situation is quite typical in an adult ESL setting; the problem is further compounded by a variety of other factors that contribute to the heterogeneity of the class.

This chapter is based on information and insights gathered from the literature, interviews with teachers, and observations of classes. It is meant to serve as an aid to teachers in dealing with the problems that plague multilevel, heterogeneous classrooms. The first section contains a description and discussion of the factors that contribute to the existence of multilevel and/or heterogeneous classes, and the second outlines some practical approaches and techniques for dealing with the situations described in the first section.

FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED

A multilevel class is traditionally defined as a single class in which there are students of various levels of language proficiency. Yet, as mentioned earlier, since *no* class consists of students who all have exactly the same level of proficiency, the usual practice is to "teach toward the middle" or aim the instructional content at the largest number of students. However, if the students have an extremely wide range of language abilities or needs, or if no more than two or three students can be considered to be at roughly the same level, the usual teaching strategies will only serve to frustrate the class.

Four major factors that contribute to multilevel ESL classes are open entry–open exit programs, the grouping of literate and non literate students in the same class, wide age differences in the same class, and the mixing of different cultural groups. Each is discussed in more detail below.

Open Entry—Open Exit Programs

Nowhere are multilevel class problems more apparent than in open entry–open exit ESL programs, which are quite common in adult education centers. In its purest form, an open entry—open exit program is operated just as its name implies: students may enter the program at any time, given there is physical space in the classroom, and may leave just as suddenly. Although there are usually testing procedures to place the student according to level, there may be only a limited number of actual classes (and, therefore, "levels"). Moreover, since students may enter at any time, others who might have been at the same level as the entering student several weeks ago may now be more advanced due to several weeks of instruction. It is difficult to compensate for this "teaching effect" on the existing class when a new student enters. Even in a modified open entry—open exit program (where students can enter only at specified times) the problem exists, new students are likely to be less advanced than those already in the class.

Although this type of system offers some advantages from a programmatic point of view (e.g., no waiting list, full classes, individual or small group testing, student mobility), it is often an exasperating situation for both teachers and students. Faced with a constantly changing number of students, high rates of absenteeism (common in adult classes), and students with different abilities and different goals, teachers need to continually readjust goals and re establish group rapport, which is often bewildering and frustrating to the students.

This situation seems to call for a departure from traditional teacher

centered strategies so that teachers may be freed to concentrate their energies where they can be most beneficial. These strategies may include grouping students for peer tutoring or small-group activities, the use of independent teaching modules, or the use of specific language activities that allow students to work separately or together at their own level. Each of these will be discussed in the second part of this chapter.

Literate and Nonliterate Students

As more and more nonliterate adults enroll for ESL instruction, it has become increasingly common to place first language literate and nonliterate students in the same class. Due to the fact that in most placement procedures there is no test for native language literacy, it is not always readily apparent which students are literate, semiliterate, or nonliterate in their native language. As a result, teachers are often ill prepared to deal with the instructional problems these differences in literacy skills will create.

Differences in literacy skills often derive from differences in educational backgrounds. More educated students will possess more literacy skills, and therefore will not only feel comfortable and have strategies for learning in a classroom situation, but also will have the means (literacy skills) for learning. For example, it is much easier to remember and practice a particular language point if you can write it down for review later. Students with literacy skills can take advantage of visual cues (in addition to aural cues) for learning. Therefore, although the students may all be at the same low level of oral English proficiency initially, differences in literacy skills will yield different rates of learning, creating a multilevel situation almost spontaneously.

Even though the teacher may separate those who can read in English from those who cannot in order to teach ESL literacy skills, there will still be great differences in the progress of those who cannot read in a Roman alphabetic language and those who cannot read in *any* language. In any case, in many adult ESL programs, it is not feasible to establish a separate ESL literacy class due to such reasons as the small number of students in need of such instruction, the lack of appropriate materials, the lack of expertise, and/or the shortage of classroom space.

Yet, whether or not literacy skills are specifically taught, it is still quite possible to offer ESL instruction to these students, as long as activities and materials are employed that allow the students to use and develop the skills they already possess. More specific suggestions and descriptions will be given in the second section of this chapter

Age of Students

The factor of age also contributes to a multilevel class, especially if there is a wide age span. Although a program may be termed "adult ESL," students in one class often range from 17 to 65 years of age. The younger students, less threatened by the learning situation and less constrained by societal roles, usually progress more rapidly than the older ones.

If the younger students are allowed to dominate and set the pace of instruction for the entire class, problems of a sensitive cultural nature may arise. These problems can be especially acute if members of the same family (e.g., grandfather, father, son) are in the same classroom. The teacher must strive to preserve the natural roles in the classroom, while meeting the instructional needs of the students.

Although this is never easy, some simple classroom management techniques may suffice. For example, the teacher may assign older students the role of taking attendance, handing out papers, or collecting homework, or the teacher may give older students the opportunity to answer first. Techniques such as these, in addition to the instructional techniques discussed below, may prove quite fruitful.

Divergent Cultural Groups

A fourth factor that gives rise to multilevel classes is the presence of divergent cultural (or ethnic) groups in the same class, which is the norm for ESL classes. These group differences, which may surface as a natural antagonism between cultural groups, may also encompass geographical (urban vs. rural) and gender role differences both within and between ethnic groups. These differences can serve to compound the difficulties in managing and teaching a multilevel class.

Students from urban and rural backgrounds not only will require different contexts for learning, but will also need encouragement to become contributing members of the class, each in their own right. Experience tells us that students with urban backgrounds are generally more sophisticated and usually more educated. Thus, there is a tendency for them to be more verbal and dominating. Yet, it is the teacher's responsibility to help *all* the students to be participating members of the class. Both males and females should be encouraged to contribute equally to the benefit of the entire class. Choice of classroom activities will help in these aims.

The natural antagonism between groups will always cause some friction, but the problem will be made more acute if one specific group turns out to be more proficient in English than the other. Again, all must be encouraged to be important, contributing members of the

class, and a common ground must be found. One teacher reported that after several uncomfortable weeks, the common ground on which her students could unite was the fact that they had all fled Communist regimes. Therefore, a short anti-Communist discussion served to rid the class of many of its antagonistic feelings.

APPROACHES AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING IN A MULTILEVEL CLASS

Ice Breakers

A good class ambience is very important in helping to decrease any existing antagonism and feelings of inferiority on the part of the weaker students. Therefore, successful management of multilevel classrooms usually calls for at least initial and final whole-group activities, if not periodic whole-group sessions, in order to foster the atmosphere necessary for later small-group cooperation. In fact, many practitioners alternate individual or small-group activities (lasting from 10 to 30 minutes) throughout the class period. Other practitioners begin with the whole group (for presentation) and gradually divide the class into increasingly smaller groups as the tasks become more individualized. In order to maintain the class unit, some whole-class activities need to be interspersed with the smaller group sessions.

Review exercises, during which stronger students will automatically help the weaker ones (often in their native language), may foster class unity. In addition, initial ice breakers and games such as the following encourage students to interact and help create good class rapport.

1. The teacher cuts up paper of different colors into different shapes, making sure there are at least two of each shape in each color. The shapes are randomly distributed, and the students pin the pieces of paper to their shirts. Students must then find at least one other student who is "like" (either in shape or color) themselves, and find out their name and/or country of origin.

2. Similar to number (1) above, students are instructed to find someone like themselves in

- physical attributes (i.e., color of eyes, hair, etc.);
- dress (i.e., type of clothing and color); and
- occupation.

Students must then explain to others how they are alike.

3. Pictures of animals or common objects are pinned to each student's back. Students must then ask others for clues in order to find out "What am I?"

These are just a few of the kinds of activities or games that can be utilized with multilevel classes. Some ESL resource books devoted to these types of activities are listed at the end of this chapter.

Grouping

One often-used approach to grouping students is according to similar skill abilities. For example, students with higher reading levels are given a specific reading assignment (with questions to be checked by the teacher later), while the teacher works to develop reading or even basic literacy skills with another group. Or, students who are more fluent are assigned to interview each other (with a set of specific questions to answer), while the teacher practices a dialogue of similar content (i.e., personal information) with the less verbal students.

On the other hand, the grouping of students of different abilities can also be an effective practice, since it is then possible to emphasize each student's strengths; in this way, all feel they have something to contribute. This can be done in two ways:

Peer tutoring. By this we mean that a student who possesses a certain knowledge (e.g., of the Roman alphabet) teaches another student who needs to learn that particular item. It is particularly useful to use this type of pairing when literates and nonliterates are in the same class. The peer tutor can facilitate the learner's practice of letter formation and reading of simple sight words (in the form of a matching exercise). Especially able peer tutors may even create some of their own materials so that the tutoring session becomes a learning situation for both participants.

However, if peer tutoring is to be an effective tool, it is important that the students who are the tutors should not always have that role; the roles should occasionally be reversed. The learners can teach another student what they have just mastered. Knowing that they will soon be placed in the tutor's role, the learners will pay closer attention, which can result in faster progress. Teaching will also serve to reinforce what the students have just learned. Especially slow learners can be given the job of introducing a new student to the class and familiarizing that student with the classroom routine.

Small-group activities. A common approach to small-group work is the pairing of students. The main advantage of pairing is that it is easy to move two desks to form the pair; the main drawback is that one student of the pair will tend to dominate. Therefore, some teachers place students in odd-numbered groups of three or five to minimize the chances that a single student will dominate the group. Forming such odd-numbered groups may be noisy and initially chaotic, but once the students learn what is expected of them, groups can be

formed quite efficiently.

When forming these groups, the teacher may mix students of different abilities, giving each student a specified task to perform. For example, after having practiced a dialogue as a whole group, students can be divided into threes, and one of the group given one part of the dialogue. The first student reads it, another student (who may or may not be literate) provides the other part orally, and the third person writes down that part of the dialogue, which can later be compared with what was provided orally. Or, for example, after students have practiced a dialogue, they may be given a strip story consisting of both pictures and sentences. One student puts the sentences in sequence, another puts the pictures in sequence, and the third matches the sentences with the pictures. Again, at least one member of the group need not be literate.

Some of these activities may be repeated with the tasks rotated. By the third time, the weakest of the group may have learned to perform the harder tasks.

Aides and Volunteers

Having an aide may be a luxury most ABE/ESL teachers can only dream about. Even those who have this luxury learn that it is initially just another time-consuming task for the teacher. Aides must be given at least some training and attention by the teacher if they are to be effective, yet it can be a time investment worth making.

Aides and volunteers may be used to teach some basic literacy skills to the few who need them to catch up to the others in Book I. They may also be used to monitor group or individual reading and writing activities of the more advanced students. In addition, they may be used to fill in the forms or make the phone calls that the low-level students invariably ask the teacher to do for them. Whatever the task, it is important that aides or volunteers (like students) know exactly what is expected of them.

Teachers who wish to seek out the services of an aide have many possible sources: former students, retired people, or students in teacher-training programs. (See Chapter 6, "Coordinating and Training Volunteer Tutors".) They may wish to use a former successful student who has a few hours a week to spare. Using a former student has its advantages: such people have bilingual capacity and can empathize fully with the students. They may also wish to approach a local retired teachers' organization or other community groups. Retired teachers and older people usually have the time, patience, and skills that younger people do not possess. Still another possibility is a local institution of higher education that offers a teacher-

training program. Prospective teachers may welcome the opportunity for experience, and it might be possible to try to arrange with the director of the ESL teacher-training program for students to receive some credit (such as one credit for independent study) for their effort. Many graduates of teacher-training programs often complain that they are not adequately prepared for situations such as multilevel classes; this can be a strong selling point.

Independent Modules

Treating each class session as an independent unit is a popular practice among teachers in open entry—open exit programs; a great amount of repetition of vocabulary and structure is built into each lesson, so continuing students are given reinforcement, and entering students (or those who have been absent) do not feel lost.

The use of independent modules rather than grouping students is also popular with teachers whose students are at the lower levels. Lower-level students may have difficulty in groups because they do not yet have the confidence to be independent. This is also true of some ethnic groups who expect a teacher-dominated classroom and may not do well in self-directed groups. Two methods for developing independent modules are the use of topic or situation and specific performance objectives.

Topic. One way to present a topic or situation is through a dialogue. For example, a simple dialogue based on a phone call, a visit to the doctor, a bus ride, or a trip to the grocery store may be chosen. The teacher can then practice the dialogue material by directing questions of varying difficulty to individual students. For example, a lower-level student may be asked, "What's the man's name?" and a higher-level student may be asked an open-ended question such as "What happened?" or "What's the man's problem?"

Another way to present a situation is through pictures, which can be used to evoke language. Again, students are asked to respond at their level of ability. Higher-level students may be asked to write answers on the board. In addition, pictures on a particular topic may be used for language experience stories, which are discussed later in this chapter.

Another use of topic may be termed "theme" teaching, whereby the whole class works on a project, and each student is given a specific assignment. For example, the theme may be "Medicine: Folk vs. Modern." Some higher-level students may be assigned to read an article and give an oral report on it. Other students may be asked to bring in a traditional medicine (from their home country) and explain its application to the class; still others can be asked to make com-

parison charts of medications (using pictures and/or words) based on the information gathered by the others. The point here is to capitalize on each of the students' abilities and talents so that all are contributing to the whole class project.

Identifying performance objectives. Another way of presenting independent units is by identifying what it is that you want the class to *do* with language, and teaching toward that objective. For example, you may want the students to be able to ask for directions. Lower-level students should be able to fulfill this objective by asking, "Where is the post office?" whereas higher-level students may be expected to ask, "How do I get to the post office?" For more detailed information on how to construct this type of lesson or curriculum, see Chapter 1, "Teaching ESL to Competencies."

Resource Labs and Some Possible Activities

Another popular way of managing a multilevel class is to organize a resource lab in the classroom in order to personalize instruction. A resource lab may consist of "learning stations" where students may choose exercises and activities to practice individual skills. For example, there may be a reading table where students can choose activities that range from simple vocabulary identification and matching exercises to reading passages or stories with related questions or exercises. Other possibilities include a writing center; a listening/pronunciation table equipped with a tape recorder, earphones, and various tapes; and a grammar practice table. Following is a list of suggested materials that can be developed for each station.

Reading

- Vocabulary items written on large cards with a picture denoting the meaning on the back. Students must read the word, and then can check the meaning by looking at the picture on the back.
- Sheets of matching exercises consisting of traffic and street signs and their corresponding meanings.
- For survival reading comprehension practice, a selection of actual or adapted classified ads, numbered by difficulty, with multiple-choice questions for each ad.
- A selection of short stories, numbered by difficulty. with a set of comprehension questions for each story.
- For sequencing, a short reading selection cut up into paragraphs, and the paragraphs taped to large index cards of various colors. Students must identify the order of the paragraphs. (Answer key will be by colors.)

Writing

- For vocabulary and sentence-writing practice, single words written on index cards divided into meaning-related sets of five. Students must write a sentence with each word.
- For preliteracy skills practice, a set of alphabet cards. Nonliterate students must practice copying the letters.
- For functional communication practice, a set of one-sided dialogues. Students must write the other part.
- A folder of picture sequences (e.g., cartoons). Students choose one sequence and write a description of what is happening.
- For letter-writing practice, folders of sample business and personal letters plus a set of index cards with instructions such as "You are writing to the X Publishing Company to request a certain book." Students choose an index card and write a letter, following the directions indicated on the card. They may refer to the sample letters in the folder.

Grammar

- For practice with troublesome grammatical structures, an assortment of dittoed multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank exercises in the following areas:
  Verb tenses
  Prepositions
  Question formation
  Adjective placement
  Modals
  An answer key for self-checking should be provided.
- Index cards with sentences or questions, with each word on a separate card. On the back, each word card should be numbered in sequence. The students must put the cards in the correct word order. They can check themselves by looking at the numbers on the back. Each set of cards should be kept together with a rubber band or in an envelope.

Listening/Pronunciation

At least one cassette player should be available, with several earphone jacks. The following types of tapes can be made available:

- Dictations of letters of the alphabet (for nonliterates); survival vocabulary (for low-level students); sentences drawn from previously practiced dialogues; sound contrasts, i.e., "Are the following sounds (or words) the same or different?"
- The commercial tapes that accompany the text or workbook the class is using.
- Short stories recorded on tape. Depending on the students' level of ability, the following accompanying exercises can be

assigned:

A set of comprehension questions.

The text of the story with words missing. Students must fill in the missing words as they listen to the tape.

- Tapes of sentences or words students have had trouble pronouncing, with pauses allowing them to repeat.

Developing these various individualized learning activities will take time; a resource lab cannot be established overnight. Yet, once these activities and exercises are developed, they can be used over and over again, and the time will have been well spent. However, many teachers may not have enough time to develop all the activities and exercises needed for a resource lab. Fortunately, there are many and varied ESL materials available commercially that are devoted to review exercises, games, and learning activities. Many of the activities for a resource lab can be drawn from these sources.

The learning stations of a resource lab allow the students to work individually at their own pace in the needed skill area and free teachers to work where they are most needed. However, in order for resource labs to be most effective, they should not be overutilized. In addition, answer sheets for all exercises and activities should be provided (when possible) so students can check their own work. If there are no answer keys available for certain exercises, the teacher (or classroom aide) should plan some time to review the students' work.

Other Activities

Language experience stories. Widely used as a method for teaching children to read in their native language, language experience stories can also be quite effectively used with adults to practice not only reading skills but *all* language skills. The advantage of language experience stories is that they are student-generated materials, and, as such, hold the students' interest and are never too difficult nor too easy: students will only provide stories that are within their language capabilities. There are many variations of language experience stories: the following is one of them.

The teacher brings in a large picture that evokes a story or situation that students may find of interest.

Each student in turn gets the opportunity to contribute to the story. (Students' level of ability is not a problem; for example, if shown a picture of a refugee, one student may say, "He is a refugee," while another might say, "There are many refugees from around the world who have come to the U.S.")

On the board, or preferably on newsprint with a dark marker, the teacher records what each student dictates. The teacher does *not* correct at this point, as this would only serve to discourage and inhibit students. The students are expressing what *they* want to say in the way they know how to say it. However, it is perfectly acceptable if other students make corrections (which they are bound to do, especially in a multilevel class).

When the story is finished, the teacher reads it aloud to the students, and has them repeat it. Certain words may be pointed out for special practice and repetition.

The teacher later edits the story for corrections (perhaps at home) and types it up to make a copy for each student.

The story is distributed during the following class and reviewed in its final form.

As students keep a folder of all their language experience stories, they always have material that they are capable of reading.

Other variations include doing individual language experience stories with each student. (Aides may be very helpful in this capacity.) Language experience stories may be based on students' experiences (e.g., field trips, vacations, celebrations) rather than on a picture.

Many kinds of activities can be created from the student-generated stories. For example, sentence strips can be made, and the order of the story can be rearranged. Sentences can be cut up and rearranged to practice grammatical structures and word order. The vocabulary generated by the students can be worked into new dialogues. And the stories can be made into cloze exercises. A wonderfully versatile technique, the language experience story helps to unify a multilevel situation.

Strip stories. In general, strip stories are short stories or dialogues, cut into sentence strips. Students arrange the strips in logical order. Nonliterate students can use pictures instead of words to make a strip story. Strip stories as a teaching technique can be developed for use at all levels. As mentioned earlier, strip stories may be used in small-group activities, or they may be developed for use in the resource lab. They can even be adapted for individual use, with students working on similar versions of the same story, but at their own level of ability.

For example, the class is presented with a short dialogue about city buses. The dialogue might go like this:

> Does this bus go to the East Side Shopping Mall?
> Yes, but you have to transfer to the #20 bus at Broadway.
> How far is that?
> Five more stops.

How much is that?
Sixty cents, exact change, please.
Thank you. Can I have a transfer?

After practicing this orally, nonliterate students may be given an illustration of, for example, a woman talking to the bus driver, 60 cents change, a bus transfer, a bus with the number 20 on it, and a picture of the shopping center. They can order these pictures and repeat what they know of the dialogue. Other students can be given the dialogue in the form of sentence strips and asked to sequence them. Still others may be given a version that includes reported speech and perhaps more detail (e.g., "How much is that?" she asked, looking in her purse for money). Thus, all students are working on the same topic at their own level. However, the teacher (and/or aide) must make sure that there is time to go over the assignment with each student, or at least provide an answer key.

Cloze exercises. Cloze exercises are also a useful technique, since they help students develop several types of language skills (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, reading). In addition, similar versions of the same cloze exercise can be developed for use at different levels. Some of the exercises may even be based on dialogues or strip stories previously presented. Below is an example of three related cloze exercises, all based on an employment dialogue.

Version A (for newly-literate and semiliterate students):
_____ have a _ob interview _omorrow.
Great. What _ime?
At _____ o'clock.

Version B (based directly on dialogue previously practiced orally):
I _____ a job _____ tomorrow.
Great. What's the _____?
Receptionist.
What does _____ receptionist do?
Answer _____.
What _____?
_____ messages.

Version C (dialogue adapted to a narrative):
Mary _____ a job _____ tomorrow _____ 1 o'clock in the afternoon. She wants _____ be a receptionist. She likes _____ answer _____ and she can _____ clear messages.

In Version A, students are instructed to supply the missing letter. They have already practiced the dialogue orally and have seen it writ-

ten. Now they can concentrate on writing the individual letters that help form the shape of the word. Version B is to help literate students recall the vocabulary and structure of the dialogue. Version C is the dialogue adapted to narrative form and is for more advanced students who can handle the challenge of something new. It is a modified cloze passage, since there are more deletions than usual. However, students have practiced most of the material orally, enabling them to complete successfully what could be a very difficult task. Which students will receive which version is decided by the teacher; however, if one version is either too easy or too difficult, another version should be given instead.

CONCLUSION

As all teachers know, flexibility in the classroom is always needed, and a multilevel classroom is no exception. It is our hope that some of the suggestions made in this chapter will help teachers to provide that flexibility. The suggestions made here are not meant to be a foolproof methodology for daily use in the multilevel class. However, by choosing from a variety of activities, the severity of the multilevel "problem" can be lessened. Rather than wishing the "problem" would go away, it is only by accepting the challenge that teachers can help to reduce the feelings of frustration and failure that are inherent in the multilevel situation.

Suggestions for Further Reading

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.

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6. COORDINATING AND TRAINING VOLUNTEER TUTORS

INTRODUCTION

Since the first arrival of thousands of Indochinese refugees in the spring of 1975, there has been a pressing need to provide the adults with English language training. In addition to hiring ESL teachers, community and church groups and school officials around the country have put out urgent calls for volunteer tutors. Although English language training is not the refugees' only need, it has continued to be a critical tool for them: English is their key to survival, adjustment, and success in the U.S.

As mentioned in an earlier chapter, the later wave of refugees is different from those who came in 1975. The more recent Southeast Asian refugees and the Haitians generally do not have much education and may not be literate in their native language; on the other hand, the refugees from the Soviet Union and Poland are generally highly educated and have technical training, but they do not possess the English skills specific to their vocation. In any case, the need for volunteer tutors continues to be great for numerous reasons:

- Due to drastic cuts in government funding, there may not be any English language-training programs in many areas of the country.
- A community may be too isolated for refugees or immigrants to be able to take advantage of the ESL classes in a neighboring community.
- Due to work schedules, adults may be unable to attend regularly scheduled ESL classes.
- The lack of basic educational skills may prevent adults from entering even a beginners' English class.
- There may be long waiting lists for adult ESL programs.

Because of the ongoing need for volunteer tutors, experienced ESL

teachers are often called upon to coordinate and train volunteers, to select appropriate materials, and to design curricula. This chapter discusses organizing volunteers, coordinating a program, and training volunteers to choose materials and to plan lessons. It also includes the preparation and teaching of a sample lesson as well as an annotated list of useful textbooks.

I. COORDINATING A VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

INFORMATION GATHERING

Without a coordinated, organized network of volunteers, it is difficult to sustain any tutoring effort. A few stalwarts will tend to take on too much and "burn out" too quickly, or refugees will be exposed to too many teachers, which can cause overlaps, gaps, and confusion. However, ESL teachers interested in coordinating volunteers may also find some of the following suggestions for setting up a volunteer program quite useful.

Before making any specific suggestions, however, a word of warning to volunteer coordinators is in order. *coordinating a volunteer program of any size is a full-time job.* Volunteer coordinators should not undertake tutoring students as well: they will simply not have enough time. If they are concerned that they will not have contact with the student population they will be serving, they should not worry. A coordinated volunteer program is an ongoing effort, and they will have contact with the students through initial enrollment and follow up assessment. Moreover, they will learn a great deal about the students through their contact with caseworkers, bilingual interpreters, and the tutors themselves.

Identifying the Need for a Volunteer Program

Before expending energy on beginning a volunteer program, it is important first to verify the need for such a program. Coordinators should check out the ESL services already available and carefully consider whether or not an existing program is appropriate for the refugees' needs.

Depending upon the existing conditions in the area, one of two types of volunteer programs may be needed. An independent volunteer program may be called for if there is a growing immigrant population and no accessible ESL classes. Or, if there is a formal ongoing ESL program in the area, an adjunct volunteer program may still be helpful. What is important is that the formal program and the volunteer network work together.

Volunteers can play many roles, depending on the needs of the refugee community. In an independent volunteer program, the coordinator may want the volunteers to teach the basic content of survival English and orientation. As a supplement to a formal ESL program, volunteers may be used to give the low-level beginning students some badly needed individual attention. For example, volunteers can do the following:

- Offer make-up lessons for late registrants or irregular attenders
- Give lessons to waiting-list students
- Offer literacy instruction
- Give additional practice and individual attention to those students whose goals are quite specific
- Offer home instruction to women and elderly persons who cannot attend regular classes at a center
- Lead field trips
- Act as the contact person between community employers and service organizations

The role of a volunteer may be endless, so it is of the utmost importance that the coordinator set specific objectives for the volunteer program. These specific objectives, in turn, should be short-term in nature. Coordinators must always keep in mind that the role the volunteer plays is a *temporary* one in relation to an individual refugee. The volunteer is there to help, but the goal is decreased dependency. After the specific objectives of the volunteer program are attained, the refugee should be referred elsewhere (such as an adult education ESL or job-training program) for ongoing additional assistance and/or training.

Identifying Resources

Before beginning any volunteer operation, coordinators should identify all the local resources available to them, the volunteers, and the students. For example, voluntary agencies (volags), the social services department of the local government, church groups, and sponsors can provide a wealth of information as to what services, including ESL, are available in the community.

Since students *will* ask about housing, health, legal, and employment matters, it is important that coordinators know where to refer the students so that they are not spending their time doing someone else's job, and have the time and energy to develop their own ESL volunteer effort.

In addition, coordinators should investigate the possibility of a

liaison with a nearby ESL or related educational program such as the adult education division of the public school system or a community college. Such a liaison may offer great resources in terms of materials, bilingual aides, or even teacher training.

Identifying Students

When planning volunteer programs, coordinators will need to know the number of adults desiring these services. There are many channels through which future students can be identified, e.g., local voluntary agencies or sponsors of refugees, existing ESL programs, the local social services department, vocational training programs, and/or anyone employing limited English speakers. Of course, immigrants or refugees themselves can identify others in the area, or native language fliers can be placed in public places such as the supermarket, laundromat, etc. If the community has an active ethnic self-help group (a mutual assistance association), its members can provide vital assistance in identifying people who need ESL instruction.

At this time coordinators should also think of information that they will need from the prospective students. They will need to know not only where the students are from and what their educational backgrounds are, but also what their goals are and when they are available for tutoring. This information is best collected uniformly in the form of an "application" designed to provide the specific information desired. A sample form (Figure 1) is included as a guideline; all or perhaps only *some* of these questions may be asked. Coordinators should keep in mind that they may need an interpreter who speaks the student's language to get answers to these questions.

Fig. 1. ***Refugee Information Form***

Refugee Information

Name: _____ Nationality: _____

Address: _____ Native language: _____

_____ Age: _____

Telephone: _____ Sex: _____

Sponsor's name: _____ Marital status: _____

Sponsor's address: _____ Children: _____

_____

Sponsor's telephone: _____

Previous education: _____

Literate: Yes_____ No_____ Which language(s): _____

How long in U.S.? _____

Previous English study or contact: _____

_____

Present employment: Yes _____ No _____ Where? _____

Future goals/plans: _____

_____

_____

Time available: Day/week _____

Hours _____

Transportation available: Yes _____ No _____

Additional comments:

Arrangements Made

Tutor: _____

Address: _____

Telephone: _____

Time & place: _____

Transportation arrangements: _____

Identifying Volunteers

As coordinators get a better idea of how many students they will be serving, they will also have to line up a similar number of volunteer tutors. A wealth of possible volunteers may be identified through the resources mentioned earlier. In addition to church groups and voluntary agencies, they may also want to tap the interest of high school students, local civic organizations (e.g., Rotary, Chamber of Commerce), retired teachers' organizations, and even local businesses.

An "application" form to collect information about tutors will have to be designed as well, soliciting data on educational background and related experience, time schedules, transportation availability, and interests. A sample form (Figure 2) is included for use as a guideline. Coordinators should consider including a question about the tutor's motivation, e.g., "What are your reasons for volunteering to teach ESL?"

Fig. 2. *Tutor Information Form*

Date _____

Tutor Information

Name: _____ Age: _____

Address: _____ Sex: _____

_____

Phone: _____

Employer: _____

Address: _____

_____

Phone: _____

Educational background:

High School _____

University _____

M.A. _____

Ph.D. _____

Languages spoken or studied:

_____

_____

Teaching or related experience: _____

_____

_____

Why do you want to tutor? _____

_____

Automobile: Yes _____ No _____

Time available: Day/week _____

Hours _____

Place preferred: Home ___ Refugee home ___ Church/school ___

Other _____

Preferences for tutoring, if any (age, sex, interests, proximity, schedule, etc.) _____

_____

_____

Arrangements Made

Student(s): _____

Address: _____

Phone: _____

Time and place: _____

_____

Transportation arrangements: _____

This kind of information can be very useful when screening volunteers. It is sometimes the case that those motivated to help others may not make good tutors; they may view refugee students as helpless, without understanding that these adults have much to give and that the experience will benefit *them* as well. Sometimes it can be pointed out to these prospective tutors that both parties gain

in a tutoring relationship. However, even if prospective volunteers are not well suited to direct contact with the students, their willingness to help can be channeled into assisting with administrative duties or community relations functions.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Volunteer coordinators will also have to concern themselves with many nitty-gritty details in order to make the tutoring venture a success. Individual tutors not attached to a coordinated volunteer effort will also find some of the following logistics of the utmost importance.

Space Needs and Availability

Coordinators will have to decide on a convenient place where the tutor and student can meet on a regular basis. This meeting place may be at the home of the refugee or tutor, but it is important to remember that an uncluttered, quiet place with a table and good lighting is a necessity. A home with an unattended child, a barking dog, or a constantly ringing telephone is too distracting. For that reason, using available space at a community center, library, or local church should be considered. It may be that a local school will be able to offer an empty space.

Time Schedules

Coordinators will also have to decide on the time and day each tutor and student will meet. Of course, the schedule must be convenient for both, and punctuality should be stressed. The length and frequency of the lessons should also be determined in advance. Lessons should be long enough to accomplish an objective, but short enough to sustain interest. For example, it makes more sense for a tutor and student to meet for 1½ hours t ice a week than to meet for 3 hours only once a week.

Transportation

The availability of transportation, either public or private, must be taken into consideration when deciding where the tutor and student will meet. If the tutor has a car and will go to the student's home, there is no problem. However, if tutor and student are designated to meet at a community center or church, the coordinator must make sure that transportation is available. If the students should learn to use public transportation, they must understand the schedules and fares. If private transportation is to be used, perhaps it would be con-

venient to assign some of the volunteers the task of providing transportation rather than tutoring. In any case, transportation could determine the success or failure of a volunteer tutoring venture.

Materials

Teaching materials are another important consideration when organizing a volunteer program. Untrained volunteers cannot be expected to design their own—they may not have the time or the knowledge. In addition, if all volunteers use their own materials exclusively, there will be little uniformity to the program. Therefore, a decision will have to be made whether or not to use commercially available materials, and, if so, which ones. It might be a good idea to check to see if the voluntary agencies have any free materials available. Or perhaps materials can be borrowed from a local school, educational institution, or library. (For more information on selection of materials, see Section II of this chapter.)

Training

Coordinators of volunteers must ascertain whether their tutors need training; moreover, they are responsible for providing it. Even if tutors have some related experience, they may require some additional training. A few hours of training at the outset of the program can instill confidence in the tutors. In addition, this training lends a feeling of professionalism to the volunteers' work. Volunteers are not paid, but a sense of doing work that is important and doing it well will foster the commitment that is necessary for volunteerism. Therefore, it may be a good idea to hold continued inservice staff development sessions on a regular basis. Potential trainers of volunteer tutors can be contacted through an already existing program, a local educational institution, or a local affiliate of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the National Affiliation for Literacy Advance (NALA), or Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA). (Addresses of these organizations are listed at the end of the chapter.)

Local affiliates of TESOL often hold staff development sessions that tutors can attend free of charge. NALA and LVA were founded to provide literacy training for *native* speakers of English. However, both organizations have added an ESL training component in response to the great demand. The training consists of regularly scheduled ESL workshops for tutors that can be attended for a fee. The training is very structured and can be beneficial to the prospective tutor with no ESL experience. The materials provided, however, are general in nature and may not meet the needs of the refugee student. Coor-

dinators should feel free, then, to supplement these materials in order to best serve their particular students. Section II of this chapter addresses the training of volunteers in detail.

Costs

Although a program may be based on volunteerism, there will inevitably be some expenses. For example, gasoline must be purchased for transportation, teaching materials may have to be bought, supplies such as paper and pencils will be necessary, and there may even be postage costs. This can run into quite a bit of money and neither the coordinator, the tutors, nor the refugees should be expected to absorb *all* these costs. Coordinators might want to consider making an appeal to a local community organization (such as a Kiwanis Club) or even a local business to help pay these expenses. Such organizations often respond more favorably when presented with a specific dollar figure for a specific expense than when asked for "general donations."

Another avenue to consider is having the refugees pay a nominal fee (for example, fifty cents or one dollar) for registration or materials or some other recognizable expense. Making even such a token "investment" may give the students a feeling of legitimacy and commitment toward the program.

ORGANIZING A PROGRAM

In the previous section we discussed the basic information to be collected and the legwork to be done before starting a program. Now we turn to the responsibilities of the volunteer coordinator as the program begins.

Procedures for Hiring and Screening

The interest of possible volunteer tutors has already been tapped through local churches and community organizations, and the tutor application form has been designed. After all potential tutors fill out the form, they must be interviewed.

As mentioned earlier, the coordinator should pay attention not only to the tutors' educational background but also their reasons for volunteering. During the interview, the coordinator should try to ascertain these reasons and be on the lookout for some of the following qualities:

- Flexibility
- Cultural sensitivity and openness
- Ability to direct without being domineering

- Native English-speaking ability

The interview, however, is not only for the coordinator's benefit, but also for the benefit of the tutors. These volunteers do not always know what is expected of them, and they need to be provided with information in the form of a job description. This job description should be written (if possible) and should identify specific tasks and responsibilities, so that the volunteer can make a concrete commitment and feel that he or she is being treated like a professional by a responsible, well-organized program.

For example, some of the following information may be included:

- Expected to tutor X times/week, X hours/day for X months
- Expected to spend time in preparing lessons
- Expected to attend periodic meetings and/or training sessions
- Expected to keep student records
- Expected to arrange and plan field trips
- Expected to pay for materials and/or transportation (if relevant)

The job description is *not* a program syllabus. If desired, a syllabus or curriculum can be supplied separately.

Interviewing and screening will also be necessary for students, if possible. First of all, the student will have to fill out the "application" form. As mentioned before, an interpreter may be needed to obtain the desired information; therefore, it may be more expedient for the potential students to come to the coordinator and the interpreter (or they may bring their own interpreter) to fill out the form. At that time the coordinator may want to talk to the student (via the interpreter) to determine goals and the need for a volunteer tutor. The coordinator should make sure that the student is not getting English language instruction from many programs at once and delaying the next stage in the overall resettlement process.

Orientation

After both the volunteers and students have been interviewed and screened, and the decision made as to who will participate in the program, the coordinator needs to provide everyone with some form of orientation.

Students should be informed (preferably through an interpreter) about the concept of volunteer tutoring. Students should also be aware that tutoring is *temporary* help, and that it will end when they have reached a certain level (for example, when they can enter a regular ESL class or a vocational training program, or when they can function well in daily activities).

Volunteers also require orientation to help them understand what is involved and to enable them to better decide whether or not they can make a definite commitment to tutoring. During orientation, volunteers should be informed of the cultural (and educational) background of their students and any other pertinent data, e.g., health, goals. Volunteers should also understand that they are offering temporary help and should not foster dependency. Moreover, it should be stressed that volunteering will require a serious commitment of time.

The coordinator should also take this opportunity to remind the volunteers of their specific responsibilities as indicated in the job description. They should be informed, if applicable, that they are expected to plan lessons, attend all meetings and/or training sessions, and to keep lesson files and records on student progress. It would also be a good idea to remind them to be on the lookout for any physical and/or emotional disabilities from which the student may be suffering. They should report any such findings to the coordinator for referral. It should be made clear to the tutors that they are not responsible for other assistance to their students such as making doctor's appointments or filing for food stamps, since it is very difficult to do all these things and teach English at the same time.

A large part of orientation for volunteers, however, should consist of training. After the coordinator decides how much training can be offered, he or she must find a trainer. As mentioned earlier, coordinators can also do the training themselves, if they feel qualified, or they can go to various institutions and organizations to find someone to train the volunteers. Some qualities to look for in a tutor trainer:

- Professional ESL training
- Experience with teaching refugees or adult immigrants
- Experience in training teachers
- Some experience in writing materials or curriculum
- Knowledge about students' culture and language

One aspect of the volunteers' training, if possible, would be the observation of a regular ESL class, with time allowed for discussion with the teacher afterwards. Otherwise, the content of the training session(s) should be determined by the coordinator in consultation with the trainer, focusing on the needs expressed by most of the volunteers. Planning this kind of assistance can help foster the feeling that the coordinator has a supportive, open relationship with the volunteers.

After orientation and training, both coordinator and volunteer should decide on the suitability of a definite commitment on the part of the volunteer. Before making this final, mutual decision, it may

be worthwhile for the volunteer to tutor for a week or two, and for the coordinator to observe these sessions two or three times. If the volunteer opts not to become a tutor, or seems unable to be an effective tutor, the coordinator should then discuss the possibility of alternative service. For example, the volunteer can develop a picture file for use by tutors, provide transportation for the students, do some typing, or do public relations work in the community on behalf of the program.

Ongoing Responsibilities

The coordinator deserves much credit for matching tutors with students and getting the volunteer tutors' program into full swing; however, the job is by no means finished. The role of volunteer coordinator carries with it many responsibilities, both administrative and supervisory.

First, the coordinator should keep records of the schedules of all tutor-student pairs. He or she should also be making the following arrangements for the future:

- Accepting new students and maintaining a waiting list
- Recruiting and interviewing new volunteers in order to have a tutor bank
- Finding possible new locations for tutoring sessions to be held
- Finding out about and collecting resource materials for tutors to draw on
- Finding out about other helpful programs, vocational training, and employment opportunities for possible referral

Volunteer coordinators should also monitor and evaluate the tutors by observing a lesson every now and then and holding periodic meetings to get the necessary feedback from volunteers. At the same time, the volunteers can get necessary support from the coordinator and from each other. At these meetings the coordinator can also determine what kind of inservice training is needed, and the tutors can share both their successes and failures. At this time, it might be a good idea to consider setting up an advisory panel made up of concerned (and experienced) members of both the general and the ethnic community. This panel can provide the coordinator with invaluable information and advice, not the least of which is the indirect feedback from the students as to the effectiveness of the program.

Another important function of a volunteer coordinator, which is often overlooked, is the recognition of both the volunteers and students. Recognition of tutors can be as simple as giving praise (for a particular accomplishment) at a periodic staff meeting, or encourag-

ing tutors to share their successful techniques at meetings or at an inservice training session, or even arranging for them to attend (or speak at) a professional conference. (This may, however, require a special appeal for expenses.)

Recognition of students through a specially designed certificate or even a simple "graduation" ceremony at the end of a given level of progress can be very meaningful. It can also serve as a positive means of reinforcing the idea that the students are now ready to move on to another stage or program.

II. TRAINING VOLUNTEER TUTORS

In the previous sections we have concentrated on the organization of volunteer tutoring. It was suggested that coordinators of volunteers should seek the services of trainers through existing programs, local educational institutions, or local affiliates of national professional organizations. On the other hand, some coordinators may wish to do the training themselves, or the above sources may not be available. The section that follows will provide some useful pointers on training tutors. Although the examples are drawn from materials used for ESL teacher training, they are equally appropriate for use with volunteer tutors.

TEXTBOOK SELECTION AND EVALUATION

In teacher training workshops, a commonly requested topic is teaching materials, especially textbooks. Both volunteer teachers and teachers-in training want to know what books are available, and which ones are best for their class. Rather than lecturing on text materials, the coordinator may wish to instruct volunteers on selecting and evaluating their own texts. The following is an outline of a sample workshop presentation for volunteer tutors on this topic.

Identification of Needs of Students

Discuss with the volunteers their students' goals and language needs and record them on the blackboard, newsprint, or whatever else is available.

Identification of Potential Texts

Elicit known titles from the volunteers (adding other titles unknown to them) and list them on the blackboard.

Determination of Procedures for Review

Discuss with volunteers the essential elements in the review of a text. For example, approach (structural, situational, notional/functional, competency based), level (beginning, intermediate, advanced), number of exercises and activities, clear instructions and layout, and

cost. List on the blackboard the elements that the group comes up with.

List these elements according to priority and draft a text review form (or checklist). (For more information on text selection, see the annotated bibliography at the end of this chapter.)

Review of Texts

Choose one of the text titles discussed with the volunteers and have them review it according to the text review form (or checklist).

Selection of Text

Have volunteers individually or in groups give reasons as to why they would or would not select this text.

Application (case study)

Supply the volunteers with the characteristics (i.e., goals and language needs) of a hypothetical group of students, three potential texts, and a text review form.

Ask the volunteers, either individually or in groups, to review the texts and select one, giving appropriate reasons.

Synthesis

Have the volunteers, either individually or in groups, list the possible characteristics (goals and language needs) of the students they will be dealing with, identify potential texts for these students, establish procedures and draft their own review form, review each of the books identified by completing the form, and select an appropriate text.

Note: In all training sessions, a trainer should circulate among the groups of volunteers during "hands-on" activities in order to ensure that the task is understood and to refocus groups, if necessary. In addition, the trainer should establish an exact time frame for the task and alert participants when the time period is nearly over.

TEACHING ESL TO COMPETENCIES

The most common practice among ESL teachers has been to base and sequence their lessons on grammatical objectives. However, this does not meet the needs of the refugee adult who must function in an English-speaking environment almost immediately. As a result, competency-based (task-oriented) ESL teaching is becoming more widespread in adult ESL classes. The following is an outline of a sample workshop presentation for volunteer tutors on this topic.

Background Material

Request the volunteers to read Chapter 1, "Teaching ESL to Competencies," prior to the workshop, or at least have it available at the workshop.

Elicit the main points of the chapter.

Identification of Language Situation

Identify a language situation appropriate to the needs of a specific group of students. For example, students with basic survival needs must be able to deal with health, which may include going to a pharmacy or getting a prescription filled.

Elicit some language situations from the volunteers.

Preparation of Language Sample

Prior to the workshop, the volunteer trainer should tape a sample of natural language appropriate to needs of students (for example, an exchange with a pharmacist when getting a prescription filled), or the trainer may ask the volunteers to role-play getting a prescription filled.

Recording of Functional Language

The trainer identifies the competency and records some of the functional language from the above activity, on the blackboard or newsprint, according to the charts in the "competencies" chapter.

Provision of Functional Language

The trainer asks the volunteers to provide the remaining functional language from the above situation by providing the volunteers with handouts of an "empty" chart and having them complete it either individually or in pairs, or by asking participants to provide orally the remaining functional language to be taught, while recording it on the blackboard or newsprint.

Application

The trainer may now provide another survival situation (for example, making an appointment) in the form of a tape or dialogue and divide the volunteers into groups. Each group is given an empty competency chart. Each group then

- chooses a person to act as the recorder.
- identifies the competencies and related functional language relevant to the situation.
- reports back to the larger group (for comparison and feedback).

Synthesis

The volunteers, in different groups, provide the situation and

- role-play the situation.
- identify the competencies and related functional language.
- report back to the larger group for feedback and discussion.

Other topics that the volunteer coordinator might want to include in training sessions are approaches to teaching ESL, how to use various methodologies, how to prepare a lesson, or how to teach a vocabulary lesson.

SAMPLE LESSON

Although it is recommended that tutors make use of an appropriate textbook and teacher's manual, the volunteer coordinator may want to introduce a sample lesson during training sessions. (A textbook may not be available for the tutor's first meeting with a student, or the coordinator may wish to use the sample lesson as the first stage in training volunteers to develop their own lessons. Furthermore, the lessons in the selected textbook may include too much [or not enough] information for the student's individual needs; as a result, the volunteers should be able to adapt lessons with an understanding of what goes into planning, presenting, and practicing an ESL lesson.) The lesson presented here is only a guideline to familiarize the volunteer tutors with some of the basic procedures and principles of teaching ESL to adults. As such, it should not be taken to be the first lesson of a beginning-level course. Following the sample lesson considerations are outlines for some beginning lessons that the coordinator may wish to have tutors prepare and teach.

Preparation

The first step in teaching is the preparation of a lesson, since a tutor, just like a classroom teacher, must be prepared. This means knowing *what* is going to be taught, what materials (e.g., texts, visuals) will be needed to teach it, and *how* (e.g., drills and activities) it is going to be presented and practiced. Figure 3 represents a sample lesson planning sheet.

The focus of each lesson, or part of a lesson, must be narrowly defined so that students understand, and thus can experience success. Students may make a considerable number of errors, but they still need to feel confidence in their ability to "get it right." Consequently, too much should not be taught at one time. Lessons may consist of a series of objectives, but the instructor should focus on each point separately in order not to confuse the students. Generally speaking, the lesson should proceed from the easy to the more difficult, and from the known to the unknown. The instructor should be sure that the students understand before insisting that they produce anything orally. These principles will be illustrated throughout the sample lesson.

The following steps are helpful when preparing a lesson:

A. Set *objectives.*
   1. Competency objectives
      - Student will be able to ask for and obtain items in a supermarket.
      - Student will be able to ask for clarification (when he or she does not understand).

Fig. 3. *Lesson Planning Outline*

Date: _____

Estimated time of lesson: _____

Teaching objective: _____

_____

Materials needed: _____

_____

_____

Procedures:

1. Review:
   - to practice what was taught earlier
   - start class with a "success" experience for students

2. Presentation of new material:

   Methods and materials:
   - Translation (to be used sparingly during this phase only)
   - Tangible objects (realia)
   - Illustrations (visuals)
   - Context (dialogue)

3. Practice:
   - from more controlled to less controlled

   Methods:
   - Repetition
   - Substitution (single and multiple slot)
   - Total Physical Response (TPR)
   - Transformation
   - Chain (Question/Response)

4. Application:
   - least controlled

   Methods:
   - Role-play
   - Games/simulations
   - Problem-solving
   - Free response drills
   - Field trips (and assignments)

Homework: _____

_____

_____

2. Linguistic objectives (in context of competency objectives)
   a. Structure (grammar)
      - Count and non-count nouns

        I need some oranges. (count = plural -s)
        sugar. (non-count = no plural -s)
        Oranges are _____ in Aisle 5.
        Sugar is

      - Clarification

        Excuse me?
        What?

   b. Vocabulary
      - Count nouns

        oranges, onions, cucumbers, tomatoes, peppers

      - Non-count nouns

        sugar, milk, fish, soap, toothpaste

B. Collect *visual aids* needed for this lesson:
   - Actual items (or pictures) of all the vocabulary that will be introduced
   - Picture or poster of a supermarket with aisles and a clerk. (If this is not available, perhaps simulated supermarket aisles can be prepared; all that is needed are some cards with "Aisle 5," etc., written on them.)

Review

Review of what was previously taught (in the last lesson, or even three lessons ago) is very important and should be the first part of each lesson. It gives the student a feeling of continuity, and sets the stage for establishing the meaning of the new information to be presented.

In this case, it is assumed that the student has previously learned the following:

- Some regular nouns pertaining to food
- How to form the plurals of these nouns
- Singular and plural forms of verb be (be, are)

Some simple exercises, such as picture recognition and/or substitution drills; should be performed for review. Only *known* vocabulary and grammar should be used in these exercises, since this is for review purposes only.

Presentation of New Material

Many language teachers use *dialogues* to present the objectives of each new lesson. The following is a dialogue that may be used to present the objectives outlined under "Preparation" above:

Customer:	I need some oranges, please.
Clerk:	Aisle 5.
Customer:	Excuse me? (What?)
Clerk:	The oranges are in Aisle 5.
Customer:	Thank you.

When presenting dialogues, the teacher should use repetition drill procedures, explained under "Practice of New Material" below. In addition, the following steps should also be followed:

- Student(s) should *listen* only as the entire dialogue is repeated approximately three times.
- The dialogue should be repeated at a normal rate of speech—not too fast and not too slow.

During the presentation of a dialogue, it should be made clear to the student(s) that *two* people are speaking. Therefore, the teacher may use home-made hand puppets or pictures and point to each of the speakers in turn. If instructors wish to write their own dialogues, they must remember to keep them simple, as natural as possible, and short. (Not much more than four lines is a good rule of thumb.) However, almost all ESL textbooks contain dialogues from which an appropriate one can be chosen. It is possible to adapt them to include local names and necessary vocabulary.

It should be noted that in the above dialogue, not only are the competency objectives and grammatical points limited, but so is the vocabulary. To ensure success, the number of vocabulary items presented must be limited; after all, people can only remember a few new things at one time. Vocabulary items should be chosen according to the student's specific needs. This is the advantage of tutoring on a one-to-one or small-group basis rather than having a classroomful of students with diverse needs.

Practice of New Material

After the new material is introduced (in the form of a dialogue), it must then be broken down and practiced. Initial practice usually consists of ordered language drills, beginning with the most controlled ones and slowly letting up on the control. Five of the more commonly used drills are described below.

A. Repetition Drills

Repetition drills are just that: simple repetition of what the teacher has said. After dialogues are presented, the teacher should practice each line as a repetition drill:

- Student(s) repeat each line of the dialogue after the instructor. This should be done at least three times.
- The instructor takes the role of the customer and the student(s) respond in the role of the clerk.
- The roles are reversed.
- Students take both roles, and then reverse them also.

If the sentences of the dialogue are too long or complex for the student(s) to repeat at normal speed, "backward build-up" may be used.

	Teacher		*Student*
Say:	oranges	Repeat:	oranges
"	some oranges	"	some oranges
"	I want some oranges.	"	I want some oranges.
Say:	Aisle 5	Repeat:	Aisle 5
"	in Aisle 5	"	in Aisle 5
"	are in Aisle 5	"	are in Aisle 5
"	The oranges are in Aisle 5.	"	The oranges are in Aisle 5.

Backward build-up is used in order not to distort the intonation patterns. A normal rate of speech should always be used.

B. Substitution Drills

In this type of drill the teacher says the basic sentence (frame), and adds a word (cue) that is to be substituted in the proper place in the sentence. There are many kinds of substitution. Two are shown below:

1. Single Slot

(Teacher gives example): I want some oranges, please.

Teacher:		*Student:*
	onions	I want some onions, please
	cucumbers	I want some cucumbers, please.
	tomatoes	I want some tomatoes, please.

(Note: The teacher may use visual [picture] cues first and then go on to the spoken word.)

2. Multiple Slot

(Teacher gives example): The oranges are in Aisle 5.

Teacher:		*Student:*	
	cucumbers		The cucumbers are in Aisle 5.
	Aisle 7B		The cucumbers are in Aisle 7B.
	milk		The milk is in Aisle 7B.

In this exercise, it would be a good idea to present all the count nouns (which require are) first, and then all the non-count nouns (which require is) before giving random cues that would require the student to make the distinction between the two.

C. Total Physical Response (TPR) Drills

This type of drill is based on the theory that if students can "act out" the language, they will internalize it, and thus be able to use it appropriately. The drill begins passively, with students listening and following the teacher's commands; students may then progress to giving directions to each other. TPR drills may not be appropriate for teaching all objectives; however, in this lesson, the following procedure could be followed:

The teacher sets up rows with numbers, like aisles in a supermarket. Items or pictures of items are displayed on a separate table. The teacher then tells the students:

- Put the sugar in Aisle 4.
- Put the tomatoes in Aisle 2.

After practicing this for a while, students should give commands to each other.

D. Transformation Drills

In this type of drill, the student is asked to change the form of the sentence.

(Teacher gives example): The oranges are in Aisle 5.
Are the oranges in Aisle 5?

Teacher:		*Student:*	
	The sugar is in Aisle 2.		Is the sugar in Aisle 2?
	The tomatoes are over there.		Are the tomatoes over there?

E. Chain Drills

In this type of drill, the teacher begins by asking a question; the student answers and then asks the student next to him or her the same or a similar question. This continues around the room, so that a "chain" is formed.

(Note: The teacher sets up the items or pictures of the items in aisles with numbered cards.)

Teacher: Where are the oranges?	*Student 1:* In Aisle 5. OR The oranges are in Aisle 5.
S1: Where are the tomatoes?	*Student 2:* In Aisle 7. OR The tomatoes are in Aisle 7.
S2: Where is the sugar?	*Student 3:* In Aisle 2. OR The sugar is in Aisle 2.

This drill is similar to a Question/Response drill in which the teacher poses a question (using the structure and vocabulary to be practiced) for each student to answer.

These are just a few of the more common drills that are used to practice grammatical patterns presented in a lesson. For information on other types of drills, see Clark, *Language Teaching Techniques,* listed at the end of this chapter.

Application of New Material

The language drills described above are mechanical; they do not allow the student much freedom or creativity in responding, nor are they examples of normal verbal communication. Therefore, after students have sufficiently practiced the new language presented in the dialogue via these drills, the instructor must give them the opportunity to apply in practice what they have learned through communication activities. Such activities, which illustrate how English is used in "real life," are the real crux of the lesson. It is these activities that are sometimes not provided in textbooks; therefore it is important to use a text that provides them (see the list at the end of this chapter). Teachers may also want to develop their own meaningful activities.

There are many kinds of communication activities; a few are illustrated below.

A. Role Play

Two students (or the teacher and a student) take the roles of the dialogue and act it out. Facial and bodily expressions should be used, and allowances made for alternate answers. For example:

Customer: I need some toothpaste.
Clerk: Sorry, we're out.

OR

Customer: I want some soap.
Clerk: In the back.
Customer: What?
Clerk: In the back of the store.

B. Problem

This type of activity is usually applicable only to certain competency objectives and should not be used with beginners. If objectives are

- student will be able to read price labels,
- student will be able to budget money,

the following may be useful:

Food items (realia) or pictures of food items with price labels are set up on a table. The students are told: "You have $15.00. Which items will you buy?" This activity may also lead to a discussion of which items are the best value, and which items are taxable.

C. Field Trips

Student(s) go to the supermarket with the instructor, who gives them a specific assignment. For example:

- Find out where the eggs, tomatoes, and toothpaste are located.
- Find out what's on sale that week.

Field trip assignments should be kept simple; the teacher should also make an effort, from time to time, to require students to use spoken English.

OUTLINES FOR SOME BEGINNING LESSONS

A sample lesson has been given in detail in order to familiarize volunteer tutors with what goes into planning and teaching a lesson, and the types of drills and techniques that can be used. Following are some outlines for beginning lessons to help them get started. Although they should be encouraged to adopt an appropriate textbook, there is always a lapse of time before textbooks arrive; in addition, some of the objectives outlined below, which the students may need to learn, may not appear in the textbook.

Each of the following outlines includes a *topic*, the *objectives* of the topic, the *structures* that will be encountered in teaching those objectives, and suggestions for *materials and activities* to be used in teaching the lesson. In the "Materials and Activities" section, the materials are listed first, followed by activities in order of difficulty. Thus, mechanical drills are listed before application activities.

A. *Topic:* Numbers

Objectives:

- Student will be able to recognize (understand) numbers 1-10 (and 11-100, if possible).
- Student will be able to count from 1-10 (11-100).
- Student will be able to read numbers 1-10 (11-100).
- Student will be able to write numbers 1-10 (11-100).

Structures:

- Plural -s

  I have two books.
  I have three brothers.

  (use common vocabulary items)

Materials and Activities:

- Flashcards
- Visuals (pictures)
- Repetition drills
- Substitution drills
- Sequencing exercise (with flashcards)
- Dictation (of numbers)

B. *Topic:* Time

Objectives:

- Student will be able to tell time on the hour.
- Student will be able to tell digital time.
- Student will be able to tell time on the half hour.
- Student will be able to tell time on the quarter hour.
- Student will be able to tell time on the minute.

Structures:

- Wh-question
- Verb/be

  What time is it?
  It's _____ o'clock.
  thirty.

Materials and Activities:

- Digital clock
- Cardboard clock with movable hands
- Drawings of clocks
- Repetition drills
- Chain drills

- Question/Response drills

C. *Topic:* Personal Information

Objectives:
- Student will be able to give name and address upon request.
- Student will be able to ask name and address.
- Student will be able to give phone number upon request.

Structures:
- Personal pronouns
- Wh-questions
- Prepositions

My name is
My address is
My phone number is
What is your name?
What is your address?
(Where do you live?)
I live in Fall City.
I live at 1212 Main Street.
I live on Main Street.

Materials and Activities:
- Dialogue
- Repetition drills
- Substitution drills
- Chain drills
- Question/Response drills

D. *Topic:* Family Relationships and Greetings

Objectives:
- Student will be able to identify immediate family members (by relationship).
- Student will be able to introduce family members to others (outsiders).
- Student will be able to make appropriate greetings and goodbyes.

Structures:
- Demonstrative: this (+ be)

This is my sister.
Hello. Good morning, afternoon, evening, night
(should be linked to *time* practiced earlier)

Materials and Activities:
- Photo of family

- Dialogue
- Repetition drills
- Substitution drills
- Role-play

E. *Topic:* Money

Objectives:
- Student will be able to identify coins and bills by name (e.g., penny, dime, etc.) and amount.
- Student will be able to ask the cost of an item.
- Student will be able to give correct amount of money upon request.
- Student will be able to verify the correct change.

Structures:
- How much?
  How much is it?
  It's _____.

Materials and Activities:
- Realia (i.e., coins and bills)
- Dialogue
- Repetition drills
- Substitution drills
- Following directions (e.g., Point to ____, Give me ____)
- Role-play

F. *Topic:* Food

Objectives:
- Student will be able to identify common food items.
- Student will be able to ask and obtain items in a supermarket.
- Student will be able to read food name (generic) labels.

Structures: See sample lesson.

Materials and Activities:
See sample lesson.

G. *Topic:* Clothing

Objectives:
- Student will be able to identify common items of clothing.
- Student will be able to ask for and obtain items in a clothing (department) store.
- Student will be able to express size and

color desired.

Structures:
- Wh-question
- Present tense/want, need

  Where is _____?
  I need size _____.
  I want a red sweater.

Materials and Activities:
- Realia (items of clothing)
- Visuals
- Dialogue
- Language drills (repetition, substitution, etc.)
- TPR drill
- Role-play
- Field trip

H. *Topic:* Health

Objectives:
- Student will be able to identify body parts.
- Student will be able to describe symptoms.
- Student will be able to follow doctor's directions.

Structures:
- Possessive pronouns
- Present tense/have

  ____ ache vs. sore ____

Materials and Activities:
- Chart of body
- Dialogue
- Language drills
- Simon Says
- Role-play

I. *Topic:* Telephone

Objectives:
- Student will be able to dial phone and request to speak to someone.
- Student will be able to answer phone in an appropriate manner.
- Student will be able to make emergency call (tie in personal information).

Structures:
- Yes/No question

  Is _____ there (home)?
  Yes, he is. One minute (hold on), please.

Materials and Activities:

- Telephone
- Dialogue
- Language drills
- Role-play

J. *Topic:* Transportation

Objectives:

- Student will be able to ask fare information (for bus, subway, train, or streetcar).
- Student will be able to ask directions to area locations (using public transportation).
- Student will be able to recognize common (local) street and transportation signs.

Structures:

- Wh-question (How)
- Prepositions (to)

How much is it to _____?
How do I get to _____?

Materials and Activities:

- Visuals (of street signs)
- Dialogue
- Language drills
- Role-plays
- Field trip

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Pronunciation

Pronunciation is a very important part of learning a second language. Without good pronunciation, even the most grammatically perfect statements, requests, and questions cannot be understood. Therefore, many language teachers and methodology specialists consider the systematic teaching of the sounds of the language a high priority.

Pronunciation practice usually consists of taking the "problem" sounds of particular students (they will usually have problems with sounds that don't exist in their native language or that occur in different positions) and presenting these sounds in *minimal pairs* for drills. A minimal pair is a pair of words that are the same except for one sound. For example, fat and vat are minimal pairs, just as sit and seat and sing and thing are. The student is first asked to

recognize the difference in the sounds as the teacher says them; once the student can hear the difference in the words (and sounds), then the teacher will ask the student to produce those sounds.

This is a good and usually effective way to practice pronunciation, but can be of limited usefulness with the basic or zero-level adult language learner who has an immediate need for survival English, unless the instructor uses only words from the lessons. Too often pronunciation exercises include obscure vocabulary and the students spend much time learning to pronounce words that they don't understand or even need to use.

This does not mean to say that gross mispronunciations should be ignored and go uncorrected. However, pronunciation practice should be limited to the words mispronounced in each particular lesson. Students should listen and repeat the words as many times as necessary until they can be understood.

For more detailed information and specific drills for teaching pronunciation to speakers of specific languages, see the following publications of the Language and Orientation Resource Center (now available through the ERIC system):

Adult Education Series #7: English Pronunciation Exercises for Speakers of Vietnamese (ED 135 244)

General Information Series #18: Teaching English to Cambodian Students (ED 165 467)

General Information Series #19: Teaching English to the Lao (ED 203 698)

General Information Series #25: Teaching English to the Cubans (ED 215 581)

General Information Series #26: Teaching English to the Haitians (ED 214 406)

Gestures

The effective use of gestures is a very important part of language teaching, especially at the basic or zero level. Gestures are most usually used for giving instructions, in conjunction with the spoken directions. For example, language teachers use gestures that mean "listen," "repeat," "answer," "louder," etc.

The most important thing to remember when using gestures is that they must be clear, simple, and consistent. Any gesture that is helpful can be invented, but if gestures are not consistent, they become a source of confusion for the students.

Below is a short description of a few of the more commonly used gestures.

- *Listen* — Put index finger to the lips (as when saying "Shhh") to indicate that the student should not speak, while pointing to the ear with the other hand to indicate that the student should listen.
- *Repeat* — Extend hand, palm facing sideways, and make a short, fast motion, cupping hand slightly. If the student does not respond, repeat the gesture while mouthing the response to indicate that the student should repeat it.
- *Louder* — Cup the hand around the ear, while putting on an intense expression indicating great difficulty in hearing.

It is important to make gestures as open and broad as possible, using arms and hands, so as to avoid any specific positions or actions with fingers that may be interpreted as threatening or offensive. Direct pointing with the finger, often used by teachers to call on an individual student, is considered a sign of contempt in many cultures. A hand pointed with open palm can accomplish the same purpose. Moreover, touching, as a sign of encouragement or approval, is unacceptable in many cultures; teachers should refrain from giving students a pat on the head, for example. They should also try to be sensitive to their students' reactions at all times.

CONCLUSION

Although tutoring ESL can be a very rewarding experience, tutors, like their students, may sometimes experience frustration and impatience with the language-learning process. It is not uncommon for ESL tutors to ask themselves, "Why isn't my student learning? I've been teaching him for three months; how come he can't speak yet?"

The coordinator can only tell tutors that language learning is a little-understood process, and that every individual learns at a different rate. Tutors should not expect a student who is studying only four hours a week to be fluent in six months. Four hours a week is not very much, especially if the student does not have occasion to use English frequently. However, students who work in an English-speaking environment should progress more rapidly. Tutors can avoid unnecessary feelings of frustration by having realistic expectations.

Tutors should be reminded that a positive attitude and patience help to promote a good learning atmosphere. Teaching practical, high-interest, high-priority language will keep the students coming back for more. In addition, clarity of instruction for language activities, a variety of drills and activities, opportunity for student participa-

tion, and the correct amount of feedback/correction will encourage student interest and motivation.

Tutors should keep in mind that the goal is communication, *not* perfection. If the student can understand and be understood, that may be all the progress necessary for the moment. Tutors should try at all times to tailor their goals to those of their students, not vice versa. In most cases this will mean that the content of the lessons should be useful and meaningful (to the student), and the lessons should be presented in an organized, well-planned manner.

Selected Annotated Bibliography of ESL Textbooks

The sample lesson in this chapter was aimed at familiarizing volunteers with the procedures and organization involved in teaching ESL. However, it is strongly recommended that the coordinator select a textbook around which the tutors can center their lessons. If funds are not available for a textbook, or they are still on order, lessons can be created from everyday objects: a clock, calendar, magazine pictures, etc. You may find the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Service's manual (listed under "Further Readings") quite helpful in this regard (call 800-223-7656 for further information).

We have included this short bibliography of textbooks, which may be useful in helping tutors to choose texts. All the texts listed in the first section have been used with wide success with refugees and immigrants. In addition, all of them have good, clear teacher's guides available for purchase. The books listed in the "Supplemental" section can be of value in adapting, varying, and supplementing the drills and activities provided in a core text.

Core Texts

Iwataki, Sadae et al. 1975/76. *English as a second language: A new approach for the twenty-first century.* Arlington Heights, IL: Delta Systems.

Vol. I	Teacher's manual, Lessons 1-40
Vol. II	A—Student's book, Lessons 1-20
	B—Student's book, Lessons 21-40
Vol. III	Visuals for Lessons 1-40
Vol. IV	(Transparencies no longer available)
Vol. V	Supplement for Chinese students
*Vol. VI	Intermediate course
*Vol. VII	Visuals for intermediate course
*Vol. VIII	Pronunciation lessons
	Visuals for pronunciation lessons

*Vol. IX	Bridging the Asian language and cultural gap
Vol. X	Supplement for Vietnamese students
Vol. XI	Supplement for Cambodian students
Vol. XII	Supplement for Spanish students
Vol. XIII	Supplement for Laotian students

Cassettes for Lessons 1-40
Worksheets for Lessons 1-40
(* Not available from Delta. Originally published by Modulearn, these materials are now available from Bilingual Educational Services, Inc., South Pasadena, CA.)

A survival course developed for Asian adult students on the West Coast, and for that reason particularly appropriate for refugee students, especially those with little or no educational background. The series has been widely and successfully used with refugees since 1975, both in survival classes and as the first lap of extensive programs. (Caution: Vol. VI, the intermediate course, does *not* take up where Vol. II ends!) The supplements for Chinese, Vietnamese, and Cambodian students are translations of the dialogue and model sentences of Lessons 1-40 into different languages. The teacher's manual is explicit and written with the inexperienced ESL teacher in mind. The pronunciation lessons are aimed at Spanish, Chinese, Korean, and Tagalog speakers, and do not tackle the particular problems of the Vietnamese, Lao, Hmong, and Cambodian refugees; the visuals are useful in refugee classes, however. The worksheets were designed to be used with the cassettes but can be used independently as well. A separate literacy component from Delta Systems has come out recently. Both are designed to accompany the earlier lessons. Modulearn's literacy program is presently being distributed by Bilingual Educational Services, Inc.

Mackey, Ilonka Schmidt. 1972. *English I: A basic course for adults.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House. Student's book, teacher's manual.

A survival text, suited especially for tutoring situations. The aim of the text is to provide newcomers with the English they need immediately on arrival. A feature of the text is its focus on vocabulary relevant to the needs of adults in getting around an English-speaking community. The teacher's manual is explicit and was written with the inexperienced teacher or tutor in mind.

Savage, K. Lynn et al. 1982. *English that works.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co. (Lifelong Learning Division)

Books 1-2

Instructor's guides
Cassettes 1-2 (set of 6 tapes)
Flashcards (set of 150)
Cultural notes 1-2

Although designed for a prevocational or vocational ESL course, this text can definitely be used as a course text. Described as an integrated, competency-based, bilingual vocational ESL program, this new series combines low-level ESL skills with task-oriented objectives, giving adult students the English they need to get and keep a job. Each book is accompanied by a separate (optional) cultural notes booklet that gives essential information about cultural values, customs, vocabulary, etc. in Spanish, Chinese, or Vietnamese. The instructor's guide is complete and very useful. Although newly-arrived refugees may find this series fast paced, many ESL teachers find that this is the answer for students who, after a basic survival ESL course, want to ready themselves for the job market.

Schurer, Linda, ed. 1979. *Everyday English.* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Cycle I —Student book
Teacher's manual
Cycle II —Student book A
Student book B
Teacher's manual

Designed as an introductory oral English program for recently arrived adult immigrants with little or no previous knowledge of English, these ESL teaching materials have been quite successful with the refugee adult of low educational background. The goal is survival English for immediate use. Based on a cyclical curricular design, Cycle I consists of 10 independent units, each with a different community setting (food, clothes, transportation, housing, school, health, post office, telephone, banking, employment). Each unit introduces and practices the same set of basic grammatical structures. Cycle II repeats the same 10 community settings, but presents a more difficult set of structures. No fixed order is inherent in these materials, since the structures and vocabulary are introduced as new information in each unit, which makes the text ideal for adult education programs with open enrollment or sporadic attendance. The teacher's manual is good, with many useful suggestions. However, inexperienced teachers will have to spend some time in preparation.

Supplemental Texts

Ferreira, Linda. 1981. *Notion by notion.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

A beginning ESL practice book, organized into 40 units that treat such notions as remembering, suggestions, and describing things, as well as such survival topics as health, food, directions, and shopping for clothes. Each unit also focuses on the language structures and patterns needed to express the particular notion; includes many exercises and activities for speaking, reading, and writing. A useful review of survival English; however, not meant to be used as an introduction to survival ESL for the lowest-level refugee student.

Graham, Carolyn. 1978. *Jazz chants: Rhythms of American English for students of English as a second language.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Book and cassette of chants, designed to heighten students' awareness of the intonation patterns of English. Simple dialogues and poems, many of them overtly intended to practice specific structures of English, are recorded with emphasis on the rhythm of the sentences and phrases. The chants are startling and infectious; after an initial period of dismay, refugee adults find them delightful.

Heaton, J. B. 1975. *Practice through pictures.* New York: Longman. Student's book and teacher's book.

Each two-page lesson has one page of drills cued by 12 pictures. The drills are usually written for more than one structure so that at least one is appropriate for beginning-level students and one for more advanced students. Following the drills is a dialogue that reinforces the vocabulary and structures practiced on the previous page. Useful as a review/supplement or in a tutoring situation.

Husak, Glen, Patricia Pahre and Jane Stewart. 1977. *The money series.* Sewickley, PA: Hopewell Books, Inc. Set of eight books, teacher's manual.

A series parallel to *The work series* designed to teach basic consumer skills to adults with very low reading levels. The text in each book is carefully controlled for concept, with the result that the sentences are short, vocabulary is illustrated with line drawings or photographs, and tenses are limited to simple present, past, future, and modals. Like *The work series,* these books can be used

in beginning ESL classes and are particularly suited to refugees in content and tone. Separate titles are listed below.

How to buy food. Presents basic information on the four food groups and the necessity of eating properly; discusses budgeting money for food, watching out for waste and spoilage, and choosing less expensive alternatives to meat; explains specials, newpaper coupons, and food stamps. Text is in present, past, and future tenses, with modals like can and should used extensively. All vocabulary is amply illustrated.

How to buy clothes. Information on planning a wardrobe, buying in department stores, discount houses, thrift shops, and secondhand stores; discussions of sizes, different kinds of fabric and their care; winter coats, shoes, laundromats, dry-cleaning, and mending. The discussion is primarily aimed at women's clothes. Text uses some relative clauses ("I should think about the shoes I need"), some relatively complex sentences with infinitives ("When I shop for clothes, I should check to see if the clothes are a good fit"), but for the most part is restricted to simple sentences.

Buying furniture for your home. Discusses furniture for living rooms, dining rooms, bedrooms, and kitchens; good buys in used furniture, curtains, rugs, and appliances; places to buy used furniture; classified ads; newspaper sales; warranties; ways of saving money on furniture (e.g., using a bed as a couch); the necessity of small items like cleaning equipment; do-it-yourself ideas for carpeting, curtains, and bookshelves; redoing old furniture; and ideas for decorating (painting, posters, etc.). Text is mainly photographs and exercises for comprehension, mostly in simple present tense or with modals can and should.

Finding a place to live. Narrative in past tense about Pam's efforts to find an apartment. Discusses the "Y," furnished rooms, one-bedroom apartments, unfurnished apartments, and efficiencies (Pam rents the efficiency). Covers leases, tenant duties, landlord duties, security deposits, and eviction possibility. Some clauses with if and present tenses, e.g., "If there is no damage, the landlord gives the security deposit back to you," and some infinitives, but otherwise the language is very simple.

Where to get medical help. Combination of information presented in simple present tense, and narrative in past tense, discussing places to go for medical help (doctor's offices, hospital emergency rooms, different kinds of clinics) and the kinds of fees each requires. Discusses maternity services like prenatal and well-baby clinics, TB control clinics, VD and drug abuse clinics, etc. Sources of financial assistance are mentioned (MEDICARE, MED-

ICAID, Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation for handicapped people).

Banking. Banking services (checking accounts, savings accounts, and loans) are explained, with many exercises and examples. Such matters as overdrawing one's account and endorsing checks are discussed, and ancillary services like traveler's checks and safety deposit boxes are described. Text is a bit more complex in language than other books in the series, but there are ample illustrations and examples.

Insurance. Comprehensive automobile insurance, homeowners' and tenants' insurance, different health insurance plans, and various types of life insurance) are described in some detail through narrative in past tense, or straight description in simple present. Many pictures, photographs, and illustrative examples.

Buying a house. The Jacks family looks for a house, deals with a realtor, gets a mortgage, buys a house, and gets insurance, all in simple present tense, and in a fair amount of detail. Abundant pictures and photographs, and examples of different procedures and mortgages.

Husak, Glen, Patricia Pahre and Jane Stewart. *The work series.* 1976. Sewickley, PA: Hopewell Books. Set of eight books, teacher's manual.

A series of readers and workbooks, presenting in very simple language the basic facts about getting and keeping a job. The series was intended for handicapped students, but there is no outward indication of this except for an occasional reference to a handicapped person in the texts. The language in each book consists for the most part of simple sentences in the present tense or with modals; the only complex sentences are clauses with when and real conditionals. An ESL class that has covered simple present, past, and future tenses can handle these readers with very little adaptation.

Vocabulary is illustrated with line drawings or photographs and is repeated several times in a section. There are comprehension questions (usually fill-in-the-blank) and open-ended conversation questions at strategic points in the readings. These books are of great value as sources of information for students on their own or as class readers in beginning ESL classes. The separate titles are listed below.

Work rules. Discusses caring for equipment, wearing uniforms, obeying safety regulations, being punctual, being honest, and keeping one's temper. Text is restricted to present tense, modals, and past tense. Discussion is straightforward and nonmoralistic in tone.

Payroll deductions and company benefits. Explains such paycheck deductions as F.I.C.A., federal withholding tax, and insurance. Company plans, e.g., life insurance, disability insurance, pension plans, and days off with pay, are also explained. Text is almost entirely in simple present tense.

Where to get help. Explains social security deductions and benefits, MEDICARE, unemployment insurance and compensation, welfare, and food stamps. Text includes present and past tenses and modals. The application form for a social security card and a card itself are reproduced in the text.

Taxes. Explains federal, state, and local taxes, and how they are spent to provide community services. The 1040 and W2 forms are described. Text is in present tense, and relevant parts of various forms are reproduced.

Getting to work. Explains that the only acceptable reason for missing work is illness, and that one is expected to show up in spite of difficulties like fatigue or car failure. Points out the necessity of allowing extra time to get to work if the weather is bad, or if traffic is bad, or if the roads are being worked on. Various means of transportation are discussed—riding to work with a friend, walking, riding a bike, driving one's own car, and taking the bus; the advantages and disadvantages of each are explained. Text is mostly in present tense. Tone is straightforward and nonmoralistic.

How to find a job. Follows Mike and Steve through getting work experience, then utilizing various sources (want ads, help from parents and friends, employment services, etc.) in finding a full-time job. Mike does everything right; Steve doesn't. Aimed at high school students.

How to act at work. "Rules" for success on the job are discussed, one at a time, with narrative about successful and unsuccessful people. "Rules" range from "I must be clean and neat" to "I should not lose my temper at work" to "If I don't understand the work rules, I should talk to my boss." Text utilizes present and past tenses, modals; presentation is matter-of-fact with a minimum of moralizing.

Ideal. *How do I fill out a form?* Oak Lawn, IL: Ideal School Supply Company. (Catalog No. ID 2990)

A book of 32 duplicator masters of exact replicas of various forms, e.g., applications for social security number, driver's license, public assistance, retail credit account, employment, etc.; forms relevant to personal checking accounts, money orders, bank deposits, and so on.

Nelson, Gayle and Thomas Winters. 1980. *ESL operations: Techniques for learning while doing.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

This book, aimed at upper-beginning and above, combines language with real actions in over 40 situations. In each section, the operations are sequenced according to difficulty; students must comprehend, say, and do basic simple operations (such as set an alarm clock, pound a nail, write a check). Useful for teaching comprehension of the basic command verbs (e.g., put, set, fold, raise, take, etc.) that a student would encounter in an employment situation. Also prepares students to give and follow directions.

Oxford University Press. 1979. *Oxford picture dictionary of American English: Wall charts.* New York: Oxford University Press.

A set of twenty-five 16" x 20" full-color vocabulary charts that are enlargements of particular illustrations from the Oxford Picture Dictionary. Pictures are on one side and the keyed vocabulary is listed on the other. The emphasis is on high-frequency words; these charts are excellent for class use at almost any level.

Parnwell, E. C. 1978. *Oxford picture dictionary of American English.* New York: Oxford University Press.

A delightful picture dictionary for adults that has proved to be very popular with refugees of all ages and levels of English. The pictures are either scenes (e.g., a depiction of a downtown area) with the various elements labelled or pictures of individual objects (e.g., animals, vegetables). The pictures are line drawings with colors, simple enough to be clear but detailed enough to be explicit. All in all, about 2,000 words are illustrated. There is an index of all the words in back, with a guide to pronunciation. The dictionary is available in English only; in English and Spanish; or in English with a French index.

Romijn, Elizabeth and Contee Seely. 1979. *Live action English for foreign students.* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Although not a complete course, this book is a useful supplement to other materials aimed at beginning and intermediate students. One of the first books based on Total Physical Response, it consists of 66 series of commands to be acted out and produced by the students. These commands are based on survival situations (e.g., grocery shopping, using a pay phone) and survival vocabulary (e.g., washing your hands, changing a light bulb) and vary in level of difficulty. Detailed directions for instructors and suggestions for adaptation are included.

Somer, David J. 1977. *Learning functional words and phrases for everyday living.* Books I and II. Phoenix, NY: Frank E. Richards Publishing Co.

A workbook listing common and crucial vocabulary like flammable, hot, fire escape, do not walk, etc. Each word or phrase is printed at the top of a page, then illustrated, then listed again with room for the student to rewrite it (in block letters). Excellent as is for teaching sight-word vocabulary in ESL/literacy classes, or as individual work for literate students on any ESL level.

Wool, John D. 1973. *Using money series, Book I: Counting my money.* Phoenix, NY: Frank E. Richards Publishing Co.

Workbook teaching recognition of American coins and providing practice in counting change. Pictures of various combinations are given, and the student figures out the value of the combination. Very little text; can be used with beginning ESL students, and most valuable in ESL/literacy situations.

Suggestions for Further Reading

Appelson, Marilyn. 1980. An ESL instructional supplement: The volunteer. *TESOL Newsletter* (August).

Clark, Raymond C. 1980. *Language teaching techniques.* Brattleboro, VT: Pro Lingua Associates.

Colvin, Ruth J. 1976. *I speak English.* Syracuse, NY: Literacy Volunteers of America.

D'Arcy Maculaitis, Jean and Mona Scheraga. 1981. *What to do before the books arrive (and after).* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Finocchiaro, Mary. 1974. *English as a second language: From theory to practice.* New York: Regents.

Haendle, Connie. *Organizational management handbook.* Syracuse, NY: Literacy Volunteers of America.

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Useful Addresses

Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA)
700 East Water St., Sixth Floor
Syracuse, NY 13210

National Affiliation for Literacy Advance
1320 Jamesville Ave.
P.O. Box 131
Syracuse, NY 13210

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
202 D.C. Transit Building
Georgetown University
Washington, DC 20007

APPENDIX

Teaching ESL to Adults: An Outline of Program Considerations

ESSENTIALS FOR ESL TO SUCCEED

Before ESL is begun, certain other needs must be addressed:

Adult Concerns

- Housing: adults must have a place to live.
- Basic subsistence: adults must have a way of obtaining essentials for living.
- Health: adults must receive treatment for any health problems.
- Transportation: adults must have a way to get to the ESL class.
- Day care: mothers may need day care services to enable them to attend ESL classes.

Native Language Orientation

To settle and begin to function in the community, adult students will need to be provided information in their native language in such areas as:

- Rights and responsibilities
- Food and nutrition
- American customs and manners
- Religions and ethnic groups and practices in the U.S.
- Parental responsibilities
- Education for children

Coordinated Effort

Resettlement is a collaborative and cooperative effort. An ESL program should be coordinated with other available resources, e.g.,

- Federal and local agencies offering technical assistance

- Voluntary agencies (volags) or their local affiliates
- Local sponsoring agencies
- Local sponsor (e.g., church, relatives)
- Social services
- Existing community groups and services (e.g., local church, ethnic self-help groups)
- Programs offered by other groups (e.g., local university/community college, community groups)
- Vocational training
- Referral networks

Special Considerations

There are many areas where ESL programs do not exist but are needed. Even in areas where there are ESL programs, the refugees and adult immigrants present a challenge, because the American education system has never dealt with large numbers of students from the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of many of the refugee and immigrant groups.

There is a need for student input so that programs will meet the requirements of the adult student populations as well as those of the community agencies.

Those working with refugees should understand the particular problems and special needs of the refugees and be sensitive to them.

Teachers should be aware of the difference between the educational needs of the immigrant adult and those of students who have come to the U.S. to study at a university and then return to their own countries.

MINIMUM ESL PROGRAM CONSIDERATIONS

Intake and Assessment

The ESL needs of the adults should be determined by considering the following factors:

1. *Ethnic background.* Many different ethnic groups are found in each of the countries from which the refugees and immigrants come, for example:
   - Vietnam—Vietnamese, Ethnic Chinese, etc.
   - Cambodia—Cambodians, Ethnic Chinese, etc.
   - Laos—Lao, Hmong, Mien (Yao), Ethnic Chinese, Khmu', Lue, etc.
   - Soviet Union—Soviet Jews, Ukrainians, Armenians, etc.

2. *Education*
   - No formal education
   - Some formal education
   - Extensive formal education
3. *Literacy*
   - Nonliterate
   - Literate in native language
     Non-Roman alphabet
     Roman alphabet
4. *English language proficiency*
5. *Goals*
   - Orientation information
   - Survival/coping
   - Initial employment
   - Formal skills training
   - Upgrading employment

Program Goals

- A *clear definition* of program goals
- A *logical system* to meet the goals
- A reasonable *time frame* for meeting the goals

Capacity to Perform Proposed Activities

- Adequate and appropriate *staff*
- Adequate and appropriate student and teacher *materials*
- Adequate *space*

Program Evaluation

A periodic evaluation component should be part of each program design.

DELIVERY SETTING

The setting in which ESL instruction is given will vary in consideration of such factors as the number and geographic distribution of the students, the needs of the students, the type of ESL offered, and the capacity of the community provider.

The delivery/instructional settings discussed below all assume an instructor (that is, books, audiolingual tapes, and other materials are supplemental).

The delivery settings are not mutually exclusive. They can be com-

bined and or overlapped, depending upon the needs of the students and the ability of the service provider.

Within a program, there should be coordination of the delivery settings.

Nonformal Situation

A nonformal situation such as tutoring or home instruction may be the most flexible type of instruction setting.

In a nonformal tutoring system used in a wide geographic area, the provision of materials and coordination of program activities should be centralized.

Single Multilevel Class

In areas where there is an insufficient number of students to form more than one class, a single multilevel class may be used.

Whenever possible, however, students should be grouped for ESL instruction according to (1) level of competency in English and (2) needs.

Center

A center would provide many classes and different levels of instruction and is appropriate for areas with large numbers of clients in need of ESL.

On-the-Job

This setting is appropriate for, but not restricted to, ESL offered in conjunction with employment or job training.

ESL INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS

Experience has shown that adults' goals will be better realized if the ESL program is carefully focused. The types of ESL approaches outlined on the following pages have proven successful for refugees and immigrants. Each outline can serve as a framework for an ESL program or as a component of a total program.

These frameworks focus on ESL with specific goals. They are not mutually exclusive, but are overlapping and can be supportive of each other. A framework may be separated into subareas selected to meet the needs of the adult students.

ESL/Survival

1. *Definition.* Provides the language necessary for minimum func

tioning in the specific community in which the student is settled.

2. *Students to be served.* Can be used with all adults.
3. *Delivery.* Any of the delivery settings outlined (nonformal, single multilevel class, center, job site) may be used, but the system chosen should be suited to the numbers to be served and their geographical distribution.
4. *Intensity:*
   - Recommended 6 to 15 hours per week, no fewer than 3 days per week
   - Best offered on a basis of 5 days per week, with a maximum of 3 hours per day
5. *Content.* May include but not be limited to simple statements, questions, and vocabulary relating to the following areas:
   - Consumer/environmental concerns, e.g.,
     Personal information
     Money/credit
     Housing
     Health
     Communications
     Shopping (food/clothing, nonessentials)
     Community resources
     Insurance
     Taxes
     Emergency measures
   - American conventions, e.g.,
     Social customs and manners
     Classroom procedures
6. *Outcome.* Adults who complete ESL/Survival should be able to do the following:
   - Ask and answer questions related to daily living and other familiar subjects
   - Understand simple statements and questions addressed to them within their limited language scope and be able to ask for clarification when necessary
   - Make themselves understood by native speakers paying close attention, after repetition and clarification, since errors in pronunciation and grammar will probably be frequent
   - Control vocabulary adequate for daily living needs, but probably inadequate for complex situations or ideas
   - Read essential forms, numbers, labels, signs, and simple written survival information
   - Fill out essential forms and write name, address, phone

number; make emergency requests

7. *Special Considerations:*
   - ESL/Survival is the most generally applicable of all frameworks.
   - ESL/Survival overlaps all the other frameworks.
   - The use of native language aides is highly recommended.

ESL/Literacy

1. *Definition.* Differs substantively from literacy programs for native speakers of English. In ESL/Literacy, the learner reads and writes initially only the carefully controlled patterns that have been practiced in listening and speaking.
2. *Students to be served.* Can be grouped into three general categories:
   - Nonliterate. Those who have no reading and writing skills in any language.
   - Semiliterate. Those who have the equivalent of three to four years of formal education and/or possess minimal literacy skills in any language.
   - Non-Roman alphabetic. Those who are literate in their own language (e.g., Khmer, Lao, Farsi, etc.) but need to learn the formation of the Roman alphabet and the sound-symbol relationships of English.
3. *Delivery:*
   - Students who are nonliterate will need to spend more time than semiliterate and non-Roman alphabetic with prereading skills.
   - Semiliterate and non-Roman alphabetic students may enter other types of ESL.
   - Depending on their literacy needs, students may also be in a special literacy class and/or receive intensive tutorial instruction.
4. *Intensity.* Recommended 5 days per week, maximum 1 to 2 hours per day.
5. *Content.* ESL/Literacy training involves the following:
   - Prereading skills
   - Basic vocabulary and grammar suited to the needs of adults until control in listening and speaking is established
   - Identification of symbols (letters and numbers)
   - Associating the spoken forms with the written forms (e.g., a spoken sentence with the way it is written)
   - Reading basic words and sentences
   - Writing basic words and sentences

6. *Outcome.* Students who complete ESL/Literacy should be able to do the following:
   - Recognize and match similarities and differences in letters and words
   - Arrange letters and words in appropriate sequence
   - Recognize the words and sentences already practiced in listening and speaking
   - Distinguish differences in sounds
   - Produce the sounds
   - Recognize the written form of the sounds
   - Produce the written form of the sounds
   - Show an understanding of word-order
7. *Special considerations:*
   - Mastery of basic literacy concepts is necessary for progress in ESL/Survival, ESL/Basic Skills, ESL/General Vocation, ESL/Occupation-Specific, and ESL/Home Management.
   - The content material in ESL/Literacy needs to be presented in sequence.
   - The ideal situation for literacy training is a one-to-one tutorial.
   - The use of native language aides to clarify basic concepts and skills may be an important part of ESL/Literacy.

ESL/Basic Skills

1. *Definition.* Helps the adult to develop the abilities needed to meet requirements for *normal* (as opposed to minimal) daily living in the United States. Is more comprehensive that ESL/Survival.
2. *Students to be served.* Can be used with all students.
3. *Delivery.* Any of the delivery settings outlined (nonformal, single multilevel class, center, job site) may be used, but the system chosen should be suited to the number of clients to be served and their geographical distribution.
4. *Intensity.* Will vary greatly depending upon the local situation and the basic skills level of the adults to be served.
5. *Content.* May include but not be limited to the following:
   - Communication skills required in normal daily interaction in the United States, e.g.,

     Conversing with friends, coworkers, sales and service people, physician, teacher

     Reading labels, prices, bus schedules, signs, directions

     Making requests, expressing intent, giving and taking instruction

Writing letters, completing forms

- Mathematics skills required in normal daily interaction in the United States, e.g.,

  Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division

  Using a ruler or yardstick, measuring cup, scale, and other instruments of measure

  Understanding distances, weight, prices, time telling
- Being a "good citizen"
- Consumer/environmental skills for normal daily living in the U.S., relative to the following areas:
  Personal information
  Money/credit
  Housing
  Health
  Communications
  Transportation
  Shopping (essentials, nonessentials)
  Community resources
  Insurance
  Taxes
  Emergency measures
- Becoming a U.S. citizen
- Skills needed to satisfy state/local requirements for education/employment, such as GED.

6. *Outcome.* In normal daily interaction, students who complete ESL/Basic Skills should be able to do the following:
   - Understand nontechnical spoken and written English
   - Speak in nontechnical English with acceptable pronunciation and grammar
   - Write nontechnical English with acceptable spelling and grammar
   - Perform the four basic math functions and use fractions, decimals, percentage, and measurements

   and/or

   - Satisfy state or local language and math functional requirements, such as grade level equivalency or GED

   If necessary, they should also be able to meet language requirements for driver's license and citizenship.
7. *Special considerations:*
   - Where small numbers are to be served, ESL/Basic Skills may include survival and/or literacy through the outcomes listed above.

- Where larger numbers are to be served, ESL/Basic Skills can be used as the next higher level for those who have completed survival and/or literacy components.
- ESL/Basic Skills is especially appropriate for those adults whose education has been limited or interrupted.

ESL/General Vocation

1. *Definition.* Provides students with language and skills necessary for getting and keeping a job, an orientation to the American job market, expectations about work in the U.S., and the ability to deal with (a) the application and interview process without extensive assistance, and (b) work-related interpersonal interactions.
2. *Students to be served.* For those who wish and have the ability to get, keep, or advance in a job.
3. *Delivery.* Any of the delivery settings outlined (nonformal, single multilevel class, center, job site) may be used, but the system chosen should be suited to the number of students to be served and their geographical distribution.
4. *Intensity.* Will vary according to the local situation and needs.
5. *Content.* May include but not be limited to the following:
   - Language skills with an emphasis on
     - Pronunciation
     - Aural (listening) understanding
     - American idioms
     - Informal language use
   - Other skills and information with an emphasis on
     - Job finding/seeking
     - Interviewing
     - Filling out applications and forms
     - Career exploration
     - Employer expectations
     - Employee rights and responsibilities
     - Salaries and fringe benefits
     - Assessing marketable skills
     - Interpersonal relationships in a work setting
     - Giving and taking instructions
     - Cultural work norms
     - Test-taking skills
6. *Outcome.* Students who complete ESL/General Vocation should be able to demonstrate the skills necessary to acquire, maintain, and advance on the job, such as the ability to do the following:
   - Complete forms

- Give and take instructions
- Interpret a paycheck stub

7. *Special considerations:*
   - ESL/General Vocation is particularly applicable to evening programs.
   - A successful outcome may include placement in a vocational training program.
   - ESL/General Vocation is appropriate for those students who want to work but who do not want to go into skills training.
   - The materials used should reflect the emphasis placed on idioms and on the language and customs of the workplace.
   - The use of native language aides may be very helpful in explaining American customs and practices in terms the students can understand, especially those with low-level English skills.

ESL/Occupation-Specific

1. *Definition.* Provides the specific English necessary for success in training and/or on the job in a particular occupation. Differs from ESL/General Vocation in that students are prepared for a specific occupation such as electronics assembly, auto mechanics, food services, clerical work, dental hygiene.
2. *Students to be served:*
   - Those who want vocational training programs
   - Adults on the job who need English skills relevant to that job
3. *Delivery:*
   - One-to-one teaching or tutoring situations
   - ESL center or combinations of ESL and vocational training programs/technical education centers
   - Work sites employing numbers of limited English speakers
4. *Intensity.* The intensity will vary depending upon the type of vocational training or job requirements.
5. *Content.* May include but not be limited to specific understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills needed to succeed in a particular job. The following areas are typically covered:
   - Safety language
   - Asking and answering work-related questions
   - Explaining problems with work or machinery
   - Reporting on work done
   - Understanding and giving instructions
   - Making requests
   - Informal conversation on the job
   - Occupation-specific vocabulary

6. *Outcome.* Students who complete ESL/Occupation-Specific should be able to communicate on the job in the specified occupation.
7. *Special considerations:*
   - ESL/Occupation-Specific works best when offered in conjunction with occupational training or employment.
   - Institutions should be ready to adapt vocational instruction to limited English speakers.
   - Because there is a general lack of occupation-specific ESL materials, institutions should be prepared to do extensive analyses of the language used in each occupation.
   - ESL/Occupation-Specific requires extensive coordination and contact among vocational instructors, ESL instructors, job counselors, and employers.

ESL/Home Management

1. *Definition.* Provides English as related to the skills of running a household, caring for families, and living safely in a technological environment.
2. *Students to be served:*
   - Women
     - With infants and small children for whom day care is not a feasible option
     - With special learning problems due to handicap, nonliteracy or lack of formal educational experiences
     - Who are unable to utilize public transportation
   - Homebound elderly
3. *Delivery.* Either a home or a formal/nonformal class setting
4. *Intensity.* Recommended 6 to 15 hours per week, at least twice a week
5. *Content.* May include but not be limited to the following home management areas:
   - Cooking
   - Cleaning and home maintenance
   - Use of energy
   - Shopping for food and clothing
   - Nutrition
   - Safety (including appliance use)
   - Emergency needs
   - Money management
   - Family health care
   - Parental responsibilities

- Transportation
- Telephoning
- Awareness of social services
- Effective use of time
- American social customs, manners, and practices

6. *Outcome.* Adults who complete ESL/Home Management should be able to do the following:
   - Satisfy routine daily living needs related to household management and minimum courtesy requirements
   - Ask or answer questions on topics relating to daily family living and other familiar subjects
   - Understand simple statements and questions, ask simple questions, and ask for clarification when necessary, within their limited language scope
   - Possess vocabulary adequate for homemaking and family care needs, but probably inadequate for complex situations or ideas
   - Be understood by native speakers paying close attention after repetition and clarification, since errors in pronunciation and grammar will probably be frequent
   - Read essential forms, numbers, labels, signs
   - Fill out forms and written survival information
   - Write name, address, phone number, and make emergency requests
7. *Special considerations:*
   - ESL/Home Management ideally will include both instruction in English and cultural presentations in the native language(s). Field trips into the community will be useful.
   - The use of native language aides will contribute to the success of this type of program.
   - Special transportation to and from class may have to be provided for some students.
   - Provisions may be needed at the learning site for students' infants and small (preschool) children. Personnel involved with the care of children should include members of the students' ethnic groups, if possible.
   - It is necessary to be especially sensitive to the adjustment considerations of the elderly.
   - Literacy training may be necessary.