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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the 1988 conference on foreign language issues for the future include: "Articulation for Elementary School Foreign Language Programs: Challenges and Opportunities" (Carol Ann Pesola); "Articulation: A Resolvable Problem?" (Dale L. Lange); "Profiles of Frustration: Second Language Learners with Specific Learning Disabilities" (Bettye J. Myer, Leonore Ganschow); "Improving Foreign Language Teaching through Innovative Recruiting and Training" (Mary E. Apodaca, Kathleen Y. Ensz, Jan C. Herrera, Lynn A. Sandstedt); "Urban FLES Models: Progress and Promise" (Carolyn Andrade, Diane Ging); "Rural FLES Models: Teachers and Students Learning a Foreign Language" (Patricia Davis Wiley); "Language Learning through Science Activities: Grade School (F.L.A.G.) and Immersion Settings" (Elvina L. Palma, Bettye J. Myer); "Hispanic-American Songs and Poems for the Classroom" (Cida S. Chase); "Strategies for the Teaching of Vocabulary Based on Oral Frequency Counts" (T. Wendell Jackson, J. Halvor Clegg); "Proficiency Orientation, Vocabulary, and Selected First-Year College German Textbooks" (Sibylle Bolton); and "Activities for Building Students' Proficiency in Spanish Classes" (Carmen Garcia, Odette Scott, William Bruhn). (MSE)

Shaping the Future of Foreign Language Education:

FLES, Articulation, and Proficiency

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CENTRAL STATES

CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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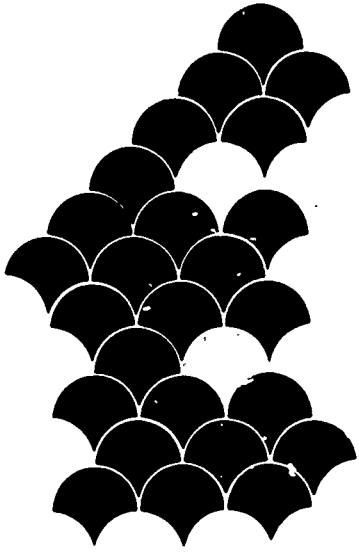
Shaping the Future of Foreign Language Education: FLES, Articulation, and Proficiency

Selected Papers from the 1988 Central States Conference



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Preface

The theme of the 1988 Central States, Southwest Conference, Colorado Congress Joint Conference—"Foreign Languages: Focus on the Future"—represents a look at foreign language issues for tomorrow's world and at the growing unity in our profession today. This conference marks the twentieth anniversary of the Central States Conference and the fifth anniversary of the Southwest Conference on Language Teaching.

In celebration of our past and in preparation for the future, the conference theme focuses on current developments in foreign language education that will affect the future of foreign language teaching. Topics of special significance to the profession have been highlighted as focal points throughout the program. These topics are articulation, teacher training, legislation, language for specific purposes, and the latest in technology.

The conference was especially designed to update and inform foreign language educators about current trends in foreign language teaching, while at the same time demonstrating the importance of the study of foreign languages and cultures for the general well-being of our country in an increasingly interdependent world.

Elizabeth Hoffman
1988 Program Chair

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Introduction

John F. Lalande II
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In recent years our profession has realized a remarkable turnabout. We have solicited and won the support of important allies in business, government, and education. The quantity and quality of professional literature, teacher-training programs, language instruction, and research have improved appreciably. And yet for all our advances, much remains to be done. Numerous challenges continue to await the commitment of our time, energy, talents, and resources.

This volume of the Report of the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages reminds us that as we focus on the future needs of the profession and opt for courses of action that will shape the future of foreign language education in the United States, it behooves us to consider the diversity of those needs. Because of space limitations, the contributions contained herein examine not all, but only *some*, of these needs.

Carol Ann Pesola and Dale L. Lange highlight the importance of articulation between foreign language programs at various levels. Pesola focuses on articulation between elementary and middle/secondary school levels. Indeed, if elementary school foreign language programs continue to proliferate as rapidly as they have in the 1980s, then the profession must consider seriously the impact of such programs upon postelementary curricula in foreign languages. Failure to address this issue in a timely and substantive manner may well result in a professional debacle similar to that witnessed two decades ago, when experiments with FLES programs proved unsuccessful. Dale L. Lange addresses the issue of articulation also, but in a more general way. He proposes three elements that may help resolve the problem of articulation.

An indication of our increased professionalism during the past decade seems also to be our increased sensitivity to, and understanding of,

different learner styles and needs. One group of learners often overlooked and neglected is the second language learner with learning disabilities. Bettye J. Myer and Leonore Ganschow's article represents a truly outstanding contribution in this field. Not only do they remind us of the importance of catering to the needs of students with specific learning disabilities, but they provide information how we might identify such students and deal effectively with them.

Teacher recruitment represents the next focus of the volume. Indeed, since some states have already begun to experience the teacher shortages projected for the early 1990s—particularly as new and reinstituted foreign language requirements begin to take effect—it seems that more attention must be given to innovative teacher recruitment and training. Mary E. Apodaca, Kathleen Y. Ensz, Jan C. Herrera, and Lynn A. Sandstedt share the description of a new collaborative partnership model being used to recruit and train new teachers. Efforts of this sort will certainly play a significant role in shaping the future of foreign language teaching.

Foreign language teaching at the elementary school level represents another major focus of this volume. No segment of the foreign language student enrollment seems to have realized more dramatic gains in recent years than that of the elementary school. The articles presented here suggest that FLES-related concerns will certainly occupy much of the professional and public limelight into and through the 1990s.

Carolyn Andrade and Diane Ging's contribution marks the beginning of a trilogy of FLES articles. They describe two model programs created to meet the needs of urban school districts. Patricia Davis Wiley, writing also on the basis of experiential evidence, presents a model for rural districts. Finally, Elvina L. Palma and Bettye J. Myer share specific ideas about integrating foreign language study with other facets of the elementary school curriculum, specifically science. As the foreign language community—and in particular proponents of "the natural approach"—considers more and more seriously (and favorably) the linking of foreign language study with other disciplines, Palma and Myer's article serves both as an inspiration and as a reminder that efforts toward meaningful foreign language study should be renewed and more vigorously pursued.

Diversity in foreign language instruction calls not only for attention

to various professional needs but also for greater variety and creativity within the classroom. As such, the article by Cida S. Chase serves well to remind us how songs and poems might be used to enrich the foreign language learning experience of our students.

The next two articles focus upon vocabulary-related concerns. The first, by T. Wendell Jackson and J. Halvor Clegg, suggests strategies for the teaching of vocabulary based upon oral frequency counts. The second, by Sibylle Bolton, examines the vocabulary contained in selected first-year college texts and discusses the appropriateness of those entries on the basis of what we have learned from the proficiency movement. Indeed, as the implications of proficiency-oriented approaches begin to affect curriculum and instruction, we can certainly expect to encounter reappraisals of traditionally espoused vocabulary, linguistic, cultural, and communicative goals. Each of these vocabulary-oriented articles points to the necessity of such reevaluations, which we as a profession can and should encourage in the immediate future.

Carmen García, Odette Scott, and William Bruhn's article on activities for building students' proficiency concludes the volume. Their article dealing with the proficiency of students studying Spanish underscores the importance of continuing our efforts toward improving students' proficiency no matter what the target language. As this volume's only article devoted strictly to proficiency, it represents an important reminder that in order to deal effectively with the future shaping of our profession, we will need to continue to consider a variety of well-conceived methods, techniques, and organizing principles, such as proficiency.

In conclusion, as we direct our efforts toward shaping the future, let us be reminded both of the diversity of future needs and challenges and of the enrichment that we can expect to realize from meeting the challenges of diverse learners and learning styles. In growing to meet the needs of the diverse and total learner, we will have begun to shape ourselves—and thus the future, for we are the future.

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Articulation for Elementary School Foreign Language Programs: Challenges and Opportunities

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Foreign language instruction for elementary school children is making news. Publishers are considering initiatives in foreign languages for children, and some have actually published new materials. National groups are making declarations of support for early foreign language programs. The Center for Applied Linguistics has issued a new national profile of elementary school programs (Rhodes and Oxford, 5). Networking sessions for elementary school foreign languages fill conference rooms to overflowing, and the National Network for Early Language Learning provides new opportunities for communication among all those interested in foreign languages for children. The first issue of *FLES News*, the newsletter for this interest group, had to be reprinted after its initial 2,000 copies were exhausted. Language-specific professional organizations such as AATF, AATG, and AATSP acknowledge the new interest in languages at the elementary school level by means of special committees, programs, and articles in journals.

Many foreign language teachers who experienced the comparable national enthusiasm for FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary

School) in the 1960s regard the boom times which seem to be approaching with mixed feelings. On the one hand, there is every reason to believe that elementary school foreign language programs of the 1980s and 1990s can benefit from insights about second language instruction that have revitalized the profession and contributed to a communicative surge in the classroom. The resources for developing strong programs that provide meaningful language experiences for children have never been more abundant or more promising. Yet there also seems to be a disturbing potential for making some of the same mistakes that led to general dissatisfaction with the FLES programs of the 1960s and to their subsequent rapid decline. Insufficient planning, inappropriate goals, unrealistic promises, lack of materials, unqualified teachers, and inadequate time allotments will all prevent an elementary school program from achieving lasting success. Even with other factors well in place, the issue of articulation, particularly the continuity with language programs beyond the elementary school, stands as one of the most important challenges for planners who are committed to quality programs and significant outcomes for elementary school children.

Horror stories about poor articulation abound. Children who have spent several years learning subject content by means of a foreign language may be placed into a beginning class in grade 7 and drilled on colors, numbers, and subject-verb agreement until they decide their time is better spent in study hall or in another elective. Children who can communicate successfully with a native speaker or plan fluent skits expressing wry insights about the school environment may be "unacceptable" in a second-year high school language program because they have little experience in grammar analysis; they are then placed into a first-year class and provided with few opportunities for creative language use. At times secondary school teachers give students the impression that their language learning in the elementary school was somehow frivolous and deficient and that serious language learning is approached so differently as to require starting over and ignoring or correcting the language already acquired. Poor articulation not only deprives students of many of the benefits of long-term language study, it may even discourage them to

the point where they discontinue language study entirely. Lack of articulation undermines confidence in the elementary school foreign language program, and if uncorrected, often leads to loss of the program itself.

Elementary School Foreign Language Program Models

The articulation challenge, already a problem in the 1960s, has become more complex because of the variety of foreign language program models currently being developed in American elementary schools. Five main program types are now reported in schools across the country, each resulting in different levels of language achievement and requiring different considerations in the development of continuation programs. The first of these, *total immersion*, is both the newest and the most intensive option for elementary school foreign language learning. Children who are native speakers of English learn all school subject content in a foreign language, usually beginning in kindergarten or grade 1; initial reading instruction takes place in the foreign language. Limited instruction in English usually begins in grade 2 or 3, increasing gradually until by grade 6 as much as 50 percent of the school day may be taught in the English language. Many immersion programs continue to spend 60 percent or more of the day in the foreign language through grade 6. Children who have completed an immersion program attain functional fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing the foreign language. In addition, their achievement in all subject areas, including English language arts, is as good as or better than that of children in English-only programs. First developed for French in St. Lambert, Quebec, in 1965, the immersion model was adopted for a Spanish program in Culver City, California, in 1971. Since that time full or partial immersion has spread to thirty locations in the United States, enrolling approximately 10,000 students.

Partial immersion, a variation of the immersion model found in both United States and Canada, is similar to total immersion in that a portion of the curriculum is taught exclusively in the target language, usually no less than half the school day. Initial reading instruction takes place either in English or simultaneously in English and the foreign language. Students in partial immersion programs also achieve functional proficiency

in the foreign language, although to a lesser extent than is possible in total immersion, and they master subject content and English language arts skills as well.

FLES programs, the most common elementary school program in the 1960s, currently represent nearly half of all U.S. foreign language programs at this level (Rhodes and Oxford, 5). Classes meet for an hour or less per day, typically twenty to thirty minutes, and usually focus on developing listening and speaking proficiency, understanding and appreciation of the foreign culture, and, to a limited degree, reading and writing skills. The degree of proficiency attained is directly proportional to the amount of time available and the intensity of the language experience. While total and partial immersion students achieve a much higher degree of functional fluency, children who have had several years of a carefully designed FLES program that allows for at least thirty minutes daily of meaningful language experience often acquire good communication skills and can use the language to express their own ideas.

Some FLES programs are augmented with one or more subject content classes taught in the target language, thus increasing the child's daily exposure to the target language. This model, known as *content-enriched FLES*, provides children with additional communication opportunities and results in improved fluency and greater overall foreign language proficiency. Typical subjects for content-enriched FLES include physical education, music, art, mathematics, social studies, and science.

Of all the program models currently being used in American schools, the *FLEX program* (Foreign Language Experience or Foreign Language Exploratory) has the most limited goals. Primarily designed to be an introduction to the learning of languages and to foreign cultures, FLEX programs typically last from six weeks to a year. They often give children exposure to the languages available to them in the secondary school, so that they can make decisions based on experience when choosing electives in grade 7 or later. In a FLEX classroom more time may be spent learning about languages and cultures than learning the language. Sometimes English is the primary language of instruction, although a few FLEX programs are intended to give a short-term, intensive foreign language experience.

Implications of Program Model for Articulation Design

As different as each of the above models may be from one another, one principle clearly applies to all: *No graduate of an elementary school foreign language program should be placed with beginners in the middle or junior high school.* Even children with experience in a FLEX program, especially one that emphasizes development of language skills, have a background to build on and will not be well served by a program that fails to take earlier experiences into account. Each of the program models has different implications for the programs that follow it in the curriculum, however.

Full and partial immersion programs produce students with the most advanced language skills, and these students bring both the greatest resources and the highest expectations to the secondary school. The most successful programs for immersion students will continue to provide subject content courses taught in the target language, together with language arts classes designed to help students extend and refine their foreign language fluency.

FLES students can arrive in the secondary school with a wide range of language skills, depending on the duration and intensity of their elementary school program and the total number of hours they have spent in a foreign language classroom. The child who has German instruction for thirty to forty minutes per day, five days per week beginning in kindergarten will clearly enter junior high school with language skills that are far superior to those of a child who has had German FLES for fifteen minutes per day, four days per week beginning in grade 4. A successful secondary school foreign language program will begin at the language level FLES students have attained and build toward increasing proficiency in both oral and written communication.

Children who have had several years of experience with content-enriched FLES will profit from continued opportunity to learn subject content in the foreign language at the secondary school level, in addition to foreign language classes that help them build on the language proficiency attained in the elementary school.

FLEX students will be able to make the most of their elementary school experience if they have the opportunity to choose a foreign language immediately upon entry into the middle school or junior high

school and then to continue it throughout their secondary school program. Their first course should build on concepts already introduced in the FLEX program, reviewing them but not introducing them as if they were entirely new material.

Resources Available for Achieving Articulation

Successful articulation between elementary and secondary schools requires ongoing communication and close cooperation among all foreign language teachers at all levels. Elementary school foreign languages must be regarded as a part of the total foreign language program, not as a mere "prelude" that is so different in character as to be unrelated to the goals and activities of the subsequent curriculum. Several developments in foreign language teaching in the past ten years encourage the belief that it is more likely for students to attain the required levels of communication and cooperation now than it was in the 1960s.

First, the growing emphasis on communication as an organizing principle for curriculum is much more compatible with the goals and outcomes of elementary school foreign language programs than was the earlier grammar emphasis, evident even in the audio-lingual method. Such popular classroom strategies as Total Physical Response (Asher, 2) and Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 4) incorporate ideas and activities that have long been standard practice in elementary school foreign language teaching. Elementary school teachers have always found ways to incorporate physical involvement, use concrete objects and visuals, encourage personal associations, and set language learning in a meaningful here-and-now context. As all foreign language teachers continue to develop programs that are more communicative, secondary school teachers will find it easier to value the skills of elementary school graduates and to build on them, rather than seeking to replace them with skills of grammatical analysis. Teachers at all levels may be learning to communicate in the same professional language and to work with similar professional values.

In the movement toward greater communication among school levels, the elementary school foreign language teacher will be required to

describe both the communicative and the cultural outcomes of instruction in very specific terms. A useful tool for developing these descriptions may be found in the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* (1), developed in part to provide a common vocabulary for student performance of language skills. These scales were adapted for secondary school students from standards originally designed to measure the proficiency of motivated adults preparing for government service in intensive language programs. Many elementary school teachers have found that the guidelines, in their present form, are difficult to apply directly to their programs. Yet the guidelines have considerable value as a starting point for dialogue with teachers at other levels. The principle of purposeful language use is applicable to all levels of teaching, even if many of the functions and much of the content described in the guidelines are not well matched with the interests and needs of children. Teachers in districts that have established good articulation between elementary and secondary school foreign language programs may be able to provide leadership in developing an adaptation of the proficiency guidelines for the elementary and middle school levels.

One more development that may have considerable implications for foreign language program articulation is a growing appreciation for the power of subject-content instruction. The results evident in immersion programs provide reassurance that information can be successfully taught in a foreign language, to the benefit of foreign language proficiency and with no sacrifice of the subject matter. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (3) cite research that supports the teaching of subject content in the target language at every academic level. Graduates of FLES programs in which adequate levels of language proficiency are achieved, as well as students from content-enriched FLES programs, could clearly benefit from subject-content instruction at the middle school level, in addition to their more traditional foreign language courses. A program incorporating subject-content instruction would increase student contact with the target language, provide students with additional opportunities for communicative use of language, and significantly extend student vocabulary and language experience. Perhaps of even greater importance, the introduction of subject-content instruction at the middle school for students with adequate preparation could alleviate severe

scheduling problems that disrupt foreign language sequences for many students in middle and junior high school.

Horizontal Articulation

Articulation from elementary to secondary school foreign language classrooms can take pla e smoothly only if children moving through the elementary school programs are achieving predictable outcomes that are consistent across grade levels. The larger the program and the greater the number of teachers involved, the more essential—and difficult—this consistency becomes. Some large districts may implement several different program models, e.g., total immersion, content-enriched FLES, and FLES. Each program model must maintain both an internal, horizontal consistency and a vertical, continuous articulation through the elementary school and into the secondary school.

FLEX programs at the elementary school level must be concerned with horizontal articulation. Children in each elementary school must have similar experiences with each language if middle school teachers are expected to build on what was learned in FLEX. In programs that provide experiences in several languages, each experience should not simply be a translation of the preceding one. Each language should address different sets of concepts as well as different cultural topics. Basic vocabulary that must be repeated from language to language might be contrasted with other languages the children have learned.

Horizontal articulation, like vertical articulation, requires joint planning, regular communication, and continuous cooperation on the part of everyone involved in the program. Teachers who are working with a well-designed curriculum, jointly developed objectives, and a common understanding of the goals of the program will be most successful in achieving program consistency.

Impact of Elementary School Foreign Languages on Secondary School Programs

The development of successful elementary school foreign language programs will necessitate significant changes in secondary school curriculum and planning; the more intensive the elementary school model

is, the greater the changes that are required. These changes affect all subsequent program levels, beginning in the middle and junior high school. Only students who have had no previous foreign language experience are likely to profit from the typical exploratory experience now popular in many middle schools, although students who have had instruction in only one of several available languages may benefit from an introduction to the others. Several program tracks must be developed for middle schools to meet the needs of students who have had different amounts of elementary school foreign language instruction, in addition to the beginning programs for students who are new to foreign languages or who are beginning a third language. Entirely new programs will be called for in both junior and senior high schools to challenge students who have developed considerable fluency in the target language and are able to use it to learn subject content. Advanced Placement courses and the International Baccalaureate curriculum, now being used in some school districts, are appropriate for the needs and interests of a certain number of students, primarily those who are college bound. Other students may find courses in contemporary culture, politics and world affairs, or the sciences to be more meaningful.

Of course, students differ not only in their goals for foreign language learning and in amount of language background, but also in their level of achievement. The longer the language sequence, the greater the range of skills presented by students at each program level is likely to be. Several school districts have begun the difficult and essential task of developing placement procedures for graduates of elementary school foreign language programs. Concern for appropriate placement requires both accurate description of course goals and outcomes at each program level and evaluation procedures that accurately measure student achievement and proficiency. Successful placement programs make it possible for students to achieve steady growth in language skills, thus making it much more likely that they will continue language study long enough to gain functional fluency in at least one foreign language. Only a cooperative effort among language teachers at all levels can yield this kind of quality placement program.

Conclusion

The 1980s close as the 1960s began, with a renewed commitment to, and enthusiasm for, elementary school foreign language instruction. A number of resources now available to the foreign language profession can help avoid the isolation of the elementary school, one of the major causes of the decline of FLES programs twenty years ago. As we capitalize on the common goals of communicative language teaching, take advantage of the "common metric" of the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines*, adapt them to elementary school outcomes, and explore together the potential of content-based language teaching, we can create language programs that encourage continued student growth and language development. The development of well-articulated, sequential foreign language programs beginning in the elementary school will require dedication and hard work on the part of teachers at every level. The consequence of failure may well be that foreign languages do not soon again receive the opportunity for a place in the elementary school. The reward for success can be a secure place for foreign languages in the curriculum and an increasing number of foreign language speakers in American society.

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Articulation: A Resolvable Problem?

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Introduction

Articulation is a problem about which there is much discussion. While this article explores the problem again, defines the concept in somewhat different terms, and provides some direction toward its resolution, there is no guarantee that the resolution will occur. The particular concern is that articulation is targeted toward programs and not toward learners. Programs involve goals, outcomes, objectives, tests, equipment, space, and materials, including the text. They are basically inanimate. Teachers serve as the delivery system. In this sense they are inanimate too. Students are the raw material in the formula. They receive a program through the teacher. That program is supposed to be "learned." The student demonstrates his or her learning of this program on multiple-choice tests. Scores are matched with national norms. Judgments are made of student success in a program. If the judgment is positive, a stamp of approval is given, just as with the dishwasher or automobile that comes off the assembly line. The inanimate industrial/technological model as applied to educational programs treats the student as inanimate as well.

Because of built-in features of accountability, the technological model appeals greatly to the planners of education in state legislatures, governors' offices, state departments of education, and school district central offices. And let us not forget business groups! They *are* the corporate taxpayers. When united as a large lobbying force, the power of

the business groups is dramatic. Not only business, but *all* of these entities want to know the "bottom line." Is the money well spent? Do students learn? How much do they learn? Do they exceed the national norms on the SATs? If not, how can competitiveness be built into education? By open enrollment (students could attend any school of their choice in the state)? By public comparison of test scores of all students on national assessment measures from elementary through senior high school? By eliminating teachers whose students do not meet or exceed the national norms? In all of these questions, and in much of the discussion surrounding them, the student is seen as an object, an assembly-line commodity, again the raw material of the education process. The articulation, or coordination, of the various aspects in the education process continues to be problematic. Articulation of foreign language education presents the same concern for the individual learner.

The purpose of this article is to examine the issue of articulation, putting the focus on the learner in language education. In addition to a review of some familiar aspects of articulation, a broader focus will be given to the concept. And finally, some principles relating to articulation are given, both for discussion and for implementation.

Forms of Articulation: Method, Text Materials, Testing

Articulation is based on the assumption that teachers are working toward the same general goal; namely, that students are learning a language for the purpose of becoming competent in *using* it. The desired outcome of language learning is that students can comprehend written or spoken language and communicate orally and in writing.

In language education, three approaches are used to articulate programs toward that general goal. These are (1) choice of method, (2) choice of texts, and (3) testing.

First, we have been searching for the all-encompassing "method" of language teaching/learning to ensure articulation. The several attempts to find such a method have been inconclusive. The "classical" studies of Scherer and Wertheimer (27) and Smith (28) ascertain basically that "students tend to learn what they are taught." And maybe even further, these studies suggest that, as Higgs (16) has indicated, the "search for

the Holy Grail" is fruitless. In years of searching, no one single, monolithic "method" has been uncovered. And yet, the search continues (Blair, 6; Larsen-Freeman, 22; Oller and Richard-Amato, 24). Richards and Rodgers (26) are skeptical of the global effectiveness of "methods." They argue strongly for the examination of "method" in relation to the curriculum being taught. They suggest that curricular content and goals may be more important than "method" because the curriculum focuses on *what* students will actually learn. Stern (30), in a detailed analysis, suggests that the many "methods" examined are "inadequate for conceptualizing and interpreting language teaching. And finally, there is also some doubt that a single method can account for all of student learning." In other words, it is not possible for all students to simultaneously learn the same things at the same time with the same "method." This expectation is simply inconceivable because of the variation in *human* learning. The search for the single "method" is not a viable approach to the resolution of the articulation problem.

The *second* approach to ensuring articulation is text materials. Here the assumption is also relatively simple. When we find the "right" text series, the issue of articulation resolves itself. When students are working with articulated materials, they will work with the same language, read the same things, know the same vocabulary, learn the same grammar, and demonstrate the same learning. Even though students use the same texts, they do not seem to be able to communicate and comprehend as we would like them to. And they are even deficient in the one thing that we think that they have learned, *grammar.* The search for the "right" text series, like that for "method" continues without success. No text series has yet produced the outcomes that we expect.

Ariew (4) suggests that the choice for text is based on economic and political realities, rationale for foreign language study, and available methodologies. While there is no question about the importance of such considerations in text selection, probably more important is the reality that text material development is controlled by publishers, as well as by proposals to influence what is taught in schools and colleges. In his most recent book, Apple (3) characterizes this control on text materials in two

ways. *First*, publishers are caught between the production of a commodity and the responsibilities to guard the general culture. In many instances, it appears that the profit motive wins. Text materials are produced for courses and programs that will generate profit for the company and the author(s). The expectation is that the text will last for several years and require little revision, thereby giving high profits to the publisher. When such a motive exists, it is not really possible for materials to respond to the developments in the field of second language learning. In language education, there are even some examples of text materials that have existed for forty years with only minor revisions. The reports on, and proposals for, educational reform such as *A Nation at Risk* (23) and the *Paideia Proposal* (Adler, 1) also have an effect on the kinds of outcomes expected of learning, the *second* means of control of texts. As political documents, such reports focus education toward the economic, political, and security needs of a world in transition. The resulting influence on education is the reproduction of well-established knowledge, with emphasis on the function of that knowledge as the keeper of the status quo. In this case, education is turned inward and becomes protective. It cannot recognize the transition from an older order to a newer one. And the result is the reduction of education to knowledge or information. The process of applying this knowledge to a larger context is largely ignored.

And so it is with language education. Text materials respond little to the research, experience, and knowledge gained about language education in the last twenty years. Teachers continue to draw on materials that are based on older assumptions and that sell for publishers. Even the so-called "proficiency-oriented" texts focus largely on grammar. And the fear, resulting from the conservative reform movement, is that emphasis on knowledge and information will continue the age-old stress on grammar, ignoring the students' need to comprehend and communicate.

The *third* approach to ensure articulation is testing. In many curricula, it is the test that "drives" the curriculum. And the craving in American education for accountability is manifested in testing. Not only is the curriculum directed to the test, but the test, which is supposed to pinpoint student learning, effectively reduces it only to the visible, the

knowable, and the finite. The tests emphasize those programmatic aspects that can easily be tested by the ubiquitous multiple-choice, true-false, or fill-in-the-blank item types—namely grammar, vocabulary, and information. Information processing, comprehension, and communication are essentially left out. Since there is no tradition of testing for communication and comprehension, the main goal that we wish to help students reach is essentially ignored.

Let us also recognize that the relatively strong testing establishment in our educational system has established criteria for validity, reliability, and practicality for large scale testing programs that essentially reduce the kinds of test-item types to those mentioned. How is it possible for the global evaluation of the individual's communicative ability to fit those criteria or those test-item types? While the necessary discussion of this issue cannot be conducted here, the question needs to be raised. We are learning more about communicative tests (Wesche, 33). One such test, the ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), is receiving careful study. It is being subjected to the criteria of the American Psychological Association (2), especially for validity. While such study is useful, the question that has to be raised is, does the concept of validity apply to global evaluation procedures in the same way it applies to tests wherein discrete points are measured? The *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* (Byrnes, et al., 7), based on the concept of "proficiency" inherited from the federal government, is receiving careful scrutiny from those who operate from another concept, "communicative competence" (Valdman, 34). However, politics and personal agendas tend to obscure the issue. And the issue is that, in order to include communication and comprehension in the assessment of student competency in a second language, we need to cooperate in developing the tools for that evaluation. They currently do not exist.

Neither tests of achievement nor tests of language "proficiency" really seem to be able to solve the problem of articulation. Although achievement tests, the usual tests in language programs, relate to elements of language, they are not sufficient to meet the goals of comprehension and communication. And communicative tests, as they currently exist, are not recognized as being adequate to the task of evaluating students' ability to use language.

In the somewhat superficial treatment here, the three approaches

to articulation—method, text materials, and testing—have each, in its turn, been shown to fall short of being an easy way to resolve the articulation problem.

What is Articulation? The 'Easy' Answer!

In a previously published article on this subject, Lange (21) suggested that the "articulation problem" could essentially be resolved by attention to horizontal, vertical, and interdisciplinary/multidisciplinary articulation. Horizontal articulation occurs when there is " . . . agreement on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation procedures within a course level" (Lange, 21, pp. 120–22). (See Figure 1.) Vertical articulation happens when there is "agreement within a program over the direction of the curriculum or between levels of schooling such as between secondary schools and colleges" [on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation procedures] (Lange, 21, pp. 123–25). This type of articulation is illustrated in Figure 2. Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary articulation results from a linkage of the foreign language program with other disciplines, either within the foreign language curriculum itself or outside it (Lange, 21, pp. 125–27). Achieving articulation would seem to be easy because it is defined by the approaches already addressed: method, text materials, and testing procedures. Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary articulation may be the exception. But it, too, is related in many senses to these same approaches.

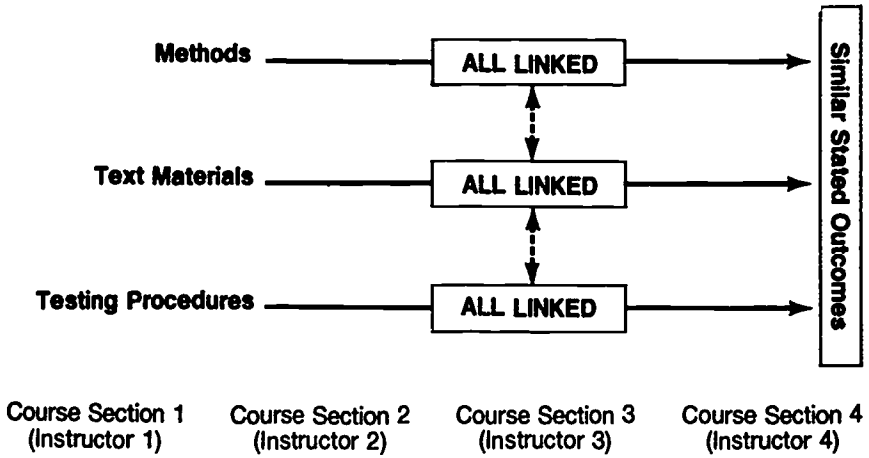
In the previous section, however, the usual approaches of resolving the articulation problem were analyzed and rejected as inadequate. What is left? A broader definition.

Articulation: A Broader, More Useful Definition?

In consideration of the weaknesses of definitions already presented, a broader definition of articulation is required. For these purposes, let us consider the following statement: *Articulation* is both the interrelationship and continuity of contents, curriculum, instruction,

and evaluation within programs which focus on the progress of the student in learning to both comprehend and communicate in a second language.

Figure 1. Horizontal Articulation

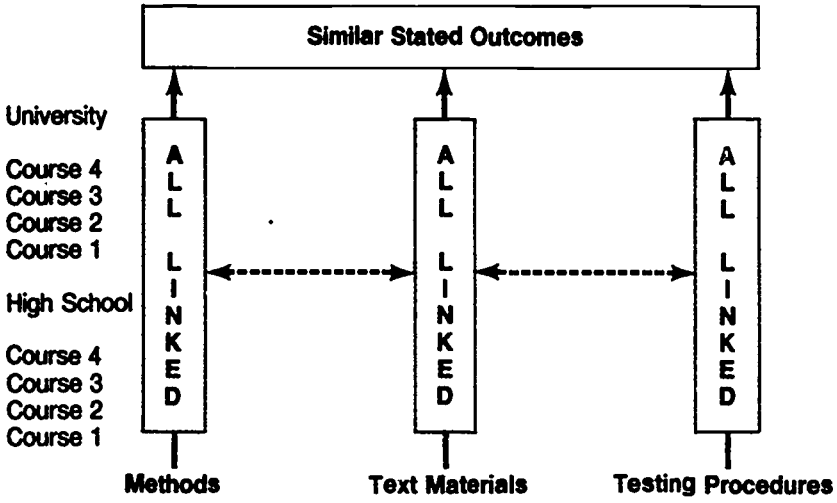


The next several paragraphs explain this definition. Figure 3 puts it into graphic form. Let's look at the concepts of content, curriculum, and instruction and their interrelatedness.

The *content* of language programs has been defined by Stern (29, 31) as being multidimensional; namely as consisting of four interconnected areas: (1) the linguistic syllabus, (2) the cultural syllabus, (3) the communicative syllabus, and (4) the general language education syllabus. Each of these areas will be briefly described.

The linguistic syllabus offers dual content: the structural and functional elements of language. The phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon of a language constitutes the structural element, while the functional element includes topics and situations, as well as the functional and notional language that fit those topics and situations (van Ek, 35). The functional element focuses on the social "rules" of language use (ap-

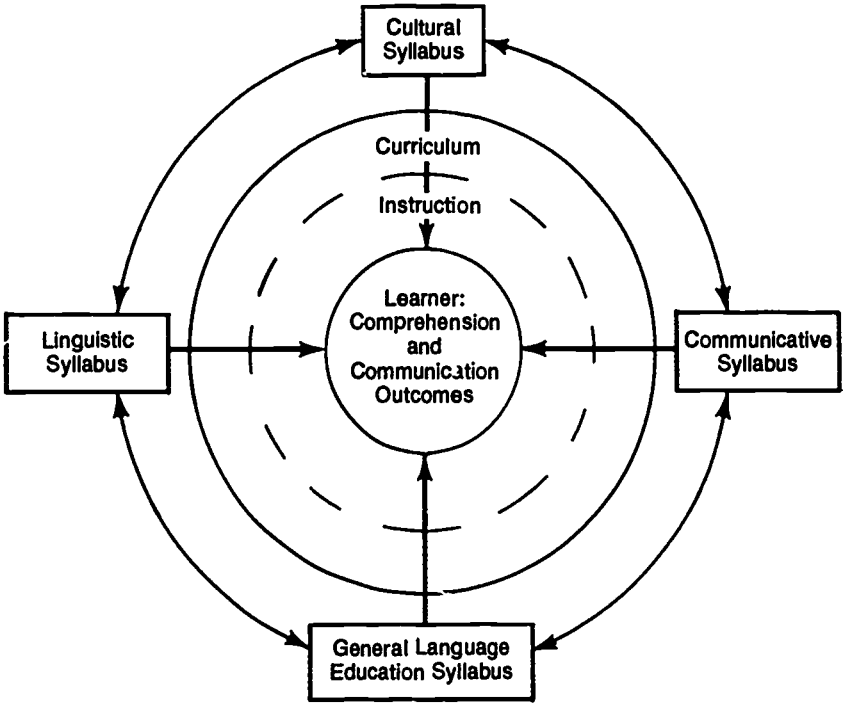
Figure 2. Vertical Articulation



propriateness, register, discourse), while the structural element is centered on the internal structure of language. The inclusion of the linguistic syllabus signals the importance of both structural and functional knowledge of language to the development of comprehension and communication outcomes.

The cultural syllabus includes awareness, knowledge, and understanding of the culture (or cultures) whose language is the focus of learning. Stern also suggests that a certain "proficiency" or behavioral functioning could be contained in this syllabus, although that proficiency is not defined. Topics in a cultural syllabus could include family, the society, political systems, the environment, religion, the arts and the humanities, as well as others, including those of particular interest to students. Crawford-Lange and Lange (10) demonstrate the centrality of this syllabus to the integration of language and culture and the integration of the four syllabuses described here. The cultural syllabus provides the context within which language is used, signaling the importance of the context in the development of competence in understanding and communicating in a second language.

Figure 3. A Model of the Broader Definition of Articulation



In the communicative syllabus, the student participates as a user of the language for communicative purposes. In classrooms, the students might use language for classroom management, for instruction, in conversation with native speakers, in specifically designed activities that focus on situation, topic, or activity (role-play, group discussions, games, simulations), and for personal exchange. The classroom becomes a place where communicative activities take place. With the inclusion of the communicative syllabus as an area of language program content, importance is given to the "never clearly stated" but understood desire of both students and teachers for communicative outcomes.

The general language education syllabus comprises knowledge of language, culture, and society that relates to the *learning* of language.

Stern's several topics for this syllabus, certainly not complete or exclusive, include the following: languages across the world, distinction between language and dialect, relationship between language and thought, learning how to learn a language, bilingualism and multilingualism, grammars and dictionaries, and animal language. Hawkins (14) has also contributed to this concept with an extensive list of topics in an outline of a course in "awareness of language." He organizes this course around four themes and associated learning activities. The themes are as follows: (1) forms of language, (2) structure of language, (3) language in use, and (4) language acquisition (L1 and L2). In one of the subthemes of language in use, How do registers differ?, Hawkins suggests that students should "collect phrases only found in certain registers (e.g., sports commentary/TV advertising/weather forecasting/playground) and describe the characteristics of each register" (p. 300). The purpose for this exercise is to create an awareness of how one's own language is used as a key to becoming aware of language use in the second language. The general language education syllabus informs of the need for students to become familiar with the nature of language and the processes by which we think it is learned, a generally ignored area.

The four syllabuses establish four interconnected aspects of content. While each is represented as a separate entity in Figure 3, they are each shown interacting with each other. Indeed, they are integrally linked, and each exists in relation to the other three. With all four, the content of language programs that focus on comprehension and communication is complete.

The content of language programs becomes the focus of both *curriculum* and *instruction.* While the focus here is on curriculum and instruction separately, they too are integrally linked to content. *Curriculum* development processes determine what learners are to accomplish in a program. These processes have become very limited in recent decades. In fact, one could say they are limited to a single model, the technological model. This model is extremely familiar to everyone and does not require detailed explanation here. Built on the concept of political and economic accountability, the model applies assumptions about assembly-line production to education. A full discussion of the inappropriateness of the assumptions and the model needs to be held elsewhere.

Crawford (8) and Lange (20) list several alternatives to the technological model, while Crawford-Lange and Lange (10) provide an example of a specific alternative to it, a problem-posing education model based on the educational philosophy of Paulo Freire (12).

In an analysis of a variety of curricular models, Crawford-Lange (9) describes the technological model as belonging to a category of curriculum development called "systems-behavioral." That model, elaborated extensively by Banathy and Lange (5), includes a statement of goals, a statement of outcomes for all students, detailed objectives relating to the attainment of those outcomes, and tasks that detail the learning required for the student to reach each of the detailed objectives. The model further outlines the choice of materials related to the outcomes, objectives, and tasks, as well as the distribution of people, machines, and space to meet program needs. The final aspect of the model, one which relates specifically to accountability, is the means by which learning and the curriculum are evaluated. Tests are used to indicate student progress, as well as the quality of the curriculum and, in many instances, the quality of teaching.

The danger of employing the technological model is that the attending outcomes tend to focus on discrete objectives, tasks, and test items pertaining to the sounds of language, its structure, vocabulary, and specific cultural elements. Outcomes like comprehension and communication, because they are less concrete, receive secondary priority. Writing objectives, creating classroom activities, and developing new evaluation procedures for much less definite outcomes are time-consuming and difficult. While this model of curriculum development is not necessarily optimal, its use extends throughout the educational establishment. It will continue to be employed, and so will have to be adapted to meet communicative goals.

Modification of the technological model to limit the risks mentioned above is possible if the focus of the curriculum is oriented to the four syllabuses: linguistic, communicative, cultural, general language learning. With this focus, language programs automatically have the goals that students and teachers seek: communication in writing and

speaking and in comprehension of written and spoken language. Yet recognition is also given to the need to know language, to use culture as content, and to know how language functions and is learned. Goals, outcomes, objectives, classroom tasks, and evaluation take forms that are then appropriate for each syllabus. And most important, both the testing of achievement and evaluation of competence in language use fit the curriculum. In this way, the tendency for attention *only* on specific features of language is balanced with the need for attention to language use. Figure 3 not only shows the interrelation of the four syllabuses, but shows their permeation of both curriculum and instruction.

Instruction is linked to the curriculum. Figure 3 presents broken lines between curriculum and instruction to show the connection. Instruction is the interaction of the curriculum with the learner(s). In the relationship of teacher with learner in the classroom, the "what" is engaged by the "how," the "when," and the "why then." The curriculum is adjusted to the reality of classroom instruction through decision-making models. Decision-making models have evolved from the research on teacher effectiveness. In a section of a monograph entitled "Effective Teaching," Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, and Hasselbring (15) summarize the research, indicating the coaction of several groups of teacher strategies that are effective in developing successful student learning. Established on a data base that has been developed over a period of twenty years, it is argued here that these teacher strategies may be more important to language education than any "method." That statement is made because teacher strategies mesh positively with the tasks required for students to learn and function with any aspect of the four syllabuses in language programs. In other words, the strategies respond more fully to the interaction of teaching and learning than any "method."

What are these strategies? According to Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein, and Hasselbring (15), effective teachers function with five different categories of behavior that direct student attention to learning. First, *effective teachers engage students with academic learning time.* Academic learning time is defined as that aspect of allocated time in which students are successful at working on tasks that are associated with desired outcomes (Fischer, et al., 11). In engaging students in academic learning time, several interconnected teacher behaviors play an important role: teachers carefully structure learning space with student

learning tasks; teachers use time wisely, stressing the connection of learning time with success on the outcome of associated tasks; they observe and direct student attention toward learning tasks; teachers demonstrate and discuss the importance they give to high standards, not only for learning, but for interpersonal behavior; teachers give students opportunities to be responsible for their own behavior in a variety of tasks that teachers structure for their benefit; finally, teachers pace instruction in order to allow for the integration of new skills and knowledge with previous learning.

Second, *effective teachers credit student learning that meets desired outcomes.* Ultimately, all students desire to be praised for their work. And all students probably desire to be successful. Effective teachers combine these two wishes. They find a way to reward all students. However, the most important reward is given to bind successful performance on specific tasks to desired outcomes and goals. The rewards can be structured around competitive, cooperative, or individualized learning structures that vary with differing kinds of tasks. Individualized rewards may best be applied to individualistic and mechanical skills, as well as to factual information. Competitive rewards may best be used when teachers desire speed and quantity with drill activities. Teachers use cooperative rewards when they wish to foster retention of basic information, problem-solving ability and creative thinking, verbal skills, and so on. Regardless of how rewards are structured, the focus remains on the tasks students perform successfully within the framework of learning outcomes and somewhat limited time.

Third, *effective teachers engage students interactively.* Teachers using a general interactive strategy direct student attention to the task(s) to be learned; enthusiastically, they explain what, how, and with what expectations the material is to be learned; they focus the students on the task(s) of the lesson; as the student proceeds, the teacher monitors progress and decides either to continue or to adjust instruction; teacher assistance is always available; students are rewarded for learning the task to be mastered and are informed of the progress that must still be made; in the process, the teacher prepares the student to be capable of performing similar tasks independently.

The just described circle of interconnected teacher behaviors has proven important, but may be limited when students need to learn more

than basic skills and information. Cognitive and metacognitive behaviors may be required for higher-order learning (Jones, Palinscar, Ogle, and Carr, 18). And in addition, students need to know the process of learning. For example, they need to be able to access knowledge, understand how to use prior knowledge, monitor task functioning, comprehend when the functioning is inappropriate and adjust it accordingly, use fix-up strategies, and finally assess the functioning of the new strategy. Similar kinds of behavior will be required of second language students with the communicative syllabus. As an example, Tarone (32) outlines categories and subcategories of paraphrase, transfer, and avoidance strategies that people need and probably learn in attempting to communicate orally. And O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (25) contribute a general discussion of the application of cognitive processes to second language acquisition. Second language education is beginning to realize that not all aspects of language learning and acquisition can be explained through a linguistic examination of the issues. Eventually, cognitive aspects will become more important in the teaching of languages just as their importance is being recognized by other curricular areas.

Fourth, *effective teachers maintain and communicate high expectations for student performance.* Teachers apply this behavior to all students. And students know that they are required to participate at a high level of performance according to their ability. In other words, effective teachers communicate not only to the "good" students, but consistently to all students, that they will be treated fairly. The expectation conveyed is that everyone will share in the learning resources, particularly instructional time and the opportunity to perform, everything else being equal. And all students know that there are high standards for acceptable classroom behavior. Critical ingredients in this category are the issues of fairness and consistency. Subtle discrimination through lack of reward, less time with the instructor, and fewer opportunities to perform for lower-achieving students gives them a feeling of inferiority and contributes to less learning. Teachers must be consistent in giving rewards; they must be available to help students; and they must provide opportunity to perform for everyone, regardless of capability.

Fifth, *effective teachers maximize learning time by the use of instructional settings appropriate to the tasks being pursued.* In any learning situation, there are a variety of learners. The question is how can teachers

deal with this diversity to provide maximized learning time? Effective teachers analyze both the tasks and their students to determine whether the task is best handled by large groups, small groups, or on an individualized basis. When that determination has been made, teachers use an appropriate instructional strategy or constellation of strategies. Such strategies may include, among others, direct instruction, mastery learning, individualized instruction, adaptive learning environments, and cognitive education. *Direct instruction* can be used with individuals one-on-one, but is generally the large group practice known to everyone. In *mastery learning*, each step or individual task in a learning sequence is "mastered" according to a set of predetermined criteria before the next task in the sequence is introduced. The emphasis here is on the pacing of instruction. *Individualized instruction* is largely self-paced instruction with individually sequenced alternative learning opportunities that are based on individual diagnosis and prescription. The stress here is on providing more academic learning time for the individual learner. *Adaptive learning environments* combine both mastery learning and individualized instruction. They allow for an individualized pacing of academic learning time. *Cognitive education* enriches learning through emphasis on basic processes of thought, construction of reality, and problem solving. Students are taught how to learn using strategies for remembering, organizing, synthesizing, and conceptualizing information. The emphasis, thus, is on process as well as on the content of learning.

All three means—the content of language education, the stated curriculum, and instructional practice—interrelate to focus on the learner for whom the goals of communication and comprehension or language use have been set. It is with this interrelationship that *articulation* takes place. Articulation is not simply the use of the same text materials for all sections of French 101 or the use of the same method in French I-IV, but rather means that the content, the curriculum, and instruction be closely aligned to meet the goals of communication and comprehension.

It is clear that focusing solely on grammar results in "disarticulation." If the focus of learning is to be on the learner's being able to communicate and comprehend, then attention to the linguistic syllabus gives emphasis to only part of one aspect of linguistic content, leaving out information concerning the use of language utterances. Further, it

ignores language learning, culture, and communicative activity. And of the program's curriculum, only one aspect is pursued. Finally, as far as instruction is concerned, the teacher can use only those teaching strategies that relate to acquisition of information and basic skills. In short, considering grammar as most important in language learning removes attention from the student and the goals of language use; it puts attention rather on the time-honored tradition of language teaching. "If the students don't know the grammar, they know nothing."

Single attention to any one content can affect the outcome of instruction. It skews the curriculum in one direction, affecting instruction. If the teacher were to direct attention only to the content of communicative activity, the curricular program of four interrelating contents would be suspended. Instruction would be focused on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies of language use. What would students be able to do? It is not clear, but certainly the balance among content, curriculum, and instruction would be destroyed. One hypothesis, but only an hypothesis (Higgs and Clifford, 17), is that student progress could be shortened or stop at a plateau. In other words, with stress on communicative activity, students may progress to a certain point and then find it difficult to move forward. It could likewise be hypothesized that focus only on grammar will not permit students to indicate much progress in communicative activity. As a result, it seems that balance among content, curriculum, and instruction may be required for student progress toward the goals of communication and comprehension.

Having a Broader Definition, What Do We Do Now?

There are simply no easy solutions to the question of articulation. There are no precise formulas or "pat" answers. There *is* a lot of hard work. And there are some actions that can be taken.

1. The curriculum needs to be carefully developed. At any educational level, once broad goals have been determined, conscious decisions must be made regarding the outcomes from the program: What is it that we want students to be able to do with language both within a "level" and at the end of the program? Programs that choose communicative goals must still attend to the balance among the four contents. Achievement

and competence tasks related to program outcomes can then be determined. Concomitant instructional strategies or constellations of strategies are stated and developed so that students can receive the necessary instruction to progress toward the outcomes desired. Finally, achievement measures assessing basic skills and information, as well as more global evaluation procedures, must be consciously chosen and developed to indicate the students' growing competence in the four language program contents. The attention given to this arrangement with a broader understanding of the interrelationship of content, curriculum, instruction, and evaluation makes the process work for the benefit of the student.

2. **Feedback given to students should relate to their learning.** While grades may be important to the entire system, feedback to students and parents from testing and evaluation should indicate progress made and progress yet to be made in attaining desired outcomes. In addition to the A–F grading system, it would be appropriate if students could be given feedback by specific content area within the curriculum. Such a device could be useful in communicating to other teachers and other institutions more specifically what the individual had accomplished and would be useful in placing students into other programs.

3. **Instruction in any program requires monitoring.** Teachers within a program can monitor each other, even across languages, to ascertain that the agreed-on curriculum and instructional program is being carried out. In large school districts, a coordinator or resource teacher can fulfill that function. On the college level, the supervisor of teaching assistants serves this role. Monitors outside second language education or from other schools, being given knowledge of the program, could also be employed. Testing can also be used as an indirect means of monitoring. It is indirect because it only measures what students have learned, not what they have experienced, nor what they have been taught.

4. **Materials need to be carefully examined.** Thorough scrutiny of text and other materials is not only appropriate, but necessary. Criteria for the evaluation of such materials can be developed from the achievement and "proficiency" tasks toward which student learning will be aimed since content, curriculum, and tasks have already been agreed upon. The materials should demonstrate a balance among these three so that

appropriate instructional strategies can be adapted to them. That balance is crucial. Where this balance cannot be obtained through the choice of materials, teachers will have to add to them to make sure that the balance is achieved. This latter task is not easy to accomplish alone; groups of teachers will need to share both materials and instructional strategies. Such cooperation and communication results in clearer understanding of program goals and outcomes. They help articulation.

5. The focus on grammar will have to change. There has been much discussion here of the need for balance among content, curriculum, and instructional strategies. Yet, the sole emphasis on grammar continues. One of the major contributors to this emphasis is "the market." Publishers say they cannot sell what is not wanted. The situation can change only when there is an articulated balance among content, curriculum, and instruction. Teachers, curriculum coordinators, and TA coordinators who are responsible for the balance must continually inform publishers of their needs and demand appropriate materials. Publishers are beginning to recognize the need for change; they can be influenced.

6. Teacher preparation is a critical element. Pre- and in-service teachers must have opportunity to recognize and act upon the interrelation of content, curriculum, and instruction. Since teachers are most responsible for instruction, they must concentrate on their use of effective teaching strategies in focusing student learning toward desired communicative outcomes. From regular within-district in-service training, college or university courses, conference workshops, and individual study, teachers learn to become comfortable with new information about their craft. Preservice teacher development in second languages will need to include effective teaching strategies and their connection to the development of language competence. Teaching at the college level requires major attention to strategies of effective teaching. Some universities include TA workshops, in-class evaluation, and a methods course. But these activities are still not focused on the learner.

7. Any endeavor in articulation requires cooperation. This statement offers the key to all articulation efforts. Within school districts, programs can provide students with successful outcomes *only* when teachers at all levels and in all courses work together. Elementary school, middle/junior high school, and senior high school teachers must focus on student learning rather than on themselves. Colleagues from across

university–secondary school lines must meet and confer on the content, outcomes, and instructional practices in their programs for the purposes of accommodation on both sides. State departments of instruction could serve as catalysts to begin these conversations. When communication takes place, when mutual understanding of the different programs can be obtained, and when program outcomes can be discussed, articulation across high school and college/university lines becomes possible. Examples of such cooperation exist in the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction curriculum guide (Grittner, 13) and the development of a new language requirement and testing program at the University of Minnesota (Lange, 19).

Conclusion

Articulation remains a significant problem in education—and language education specifically. Specific language teaching methods, use of similar teaching materials, and testing have been used to "solve" the problem. A broader definition gives emphasis to the interconnectedness of content, curriculum, and instruction as they facilitate student learning. The interrelationships of the three elements are vital to resolutions of the problem. Several principles presented help resolve the problem. But the key factor is people who communicate and cooperate for the benefit of the student. The problem of articulation remains for now.

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3
Profiles of Frustration: Second Language Learners with Specific Learning Disabilities

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The coordinator for learning disabilities stopped the foreign language teacher educator in the hall at lunchtime. "Do you have a minute? I'd like to discuss a student with you. John, a Spanish 201 student, came to me very concerned that he will not be able to meet the language requirement. He is a serious student, whose overall average is good; he earned an "A" on his neurophysiology exam last week. But intermediate level Spanish has totally frustrated him. He said that he's not going to pass the course. This is the second language that he's tried."

An uncommon story? Not as rare as one might hope. And, in this instance, the student may choose to deny himself his only recourse—going through the procedure that might allow for course substitutions—for two reasons. First, he doesn't want to ask his parents to pay for the extensive testing required by the university to authenticate a learning disability, and, second, he doesn't believe he has a learning disability because he is an above-average student in other areas. The urgency of his predicament had brought him to the Office of Learning Assistance. What are his options? Presently, at the university, he must either be tested and identified as having a learning disability in order to enroll in substitute courses, fulfill the language requirement, or change majors.

Second Language Learning: The Dilemma of the Student with Special Needs

Considerable national attention is presently being directed toward the development of proficiency in a second language. Increasingly, states and school districts are providing opportunities for all students (K–12) to study a second language. In the fall of 1987, two large city school districts—Kansas City, Missouri, and Columbus, Ohio—opened immersion schools at the grade school level that will allow for articulated second language study throughout a student's educational experience. When any or all students may choose to study a second language or are required to do so in order to meet a language requirement, it becomes increasingly important that language teachers recognize learner differences in order to adopt approaches to the teaching-learning process that will enable each student to achieve his or her potential.

It is estimated that 2 to 3 percent of the national population is "highly gifted." Another 5 percent of the population is served in classes for learning disabled students in public schools (Lerner, 23). The gifted have generally been encouraged to study a foreign language; however, this second group, students with specific learning disabilities (SLD), is a new population in the second language classroom—one that is "at-risk" for learning a second language if its special learning characteristics and needs are not considered (Cohen, 5; Fisher, 8; Gajar, 11; Ganschow and Sparks, 14; Ganschow, Sparks, and Myer, 16). In increasing numbers, SLD students are now attending colleges and universities, and many are enrolled in college preparatory programs in high school ("Learning Disability Update," 24). At Ohio State University, from 1981 to 1985, there was an increase from ninety students identified as learning disabled to 450 being served by the Office of Disability Services (Languis and Block, 22). In both the secondary school and university environments, SLD students are frequently expected to fulfill a second language requirement.

Two years of a second language study is a requirement in most colleges and universities for many degree programs and, at the high school level, an expectation for most college-bound students. The study of a second language may provide rich cultural and linguistic insights for students at every age level. Some very capable students, however, have

great difficulty in learning a second language. There is an identifiable "at-risk" population for learning a second language—students with specific learning disabilities (SLD). The SLD population is described as having primary language difficulties, which are likely to impede their ability to master a second language (Cohen, 5; Geschwind, 17; Wiig and Semel, 31; Wren, 32).

Definition of Specific Learning Disabilities

The following working definition of a learning disability, provided by Dr. Melvin Levine of Boston Children's Hospital, is in keeping with the official federal definition found in Public Law 94-142:

> "Learning disability" is the term currently used to describe a handicap that interferes with someone's ability to store, process, or produce information. Such disabilities can affect both children and adults. The impairment can be quite subtle and may go undetected throughout life. But learning disabilities create a gap between a person's true capacity and his day-to-day productivity and performance (Levine, 25, p. 3).

Central to Levine's definition of learning disability are these ideas:

1. A learning disability is a difficulty in processing information that results in a gap between capacity and performance.
2. A learning disability can occur at various points in processing—at the intake, retrieval, or production levels.
3. A learning disability can remain undetected in childhood or adulthood.

Our purpose in the following pages is threefold: (1) to describe characteristics of students with specific learning disabilities that are language based and the problems they may encounter in the second language classroom, (2) to discuss formal identification procedures at the college level, and (3) to explore alternatives for meeting the needs of this population "at-risk" in second language classrooms.

Studies of High-Risk Language Learners

From informal observations of Harvard students who were unable to pass the university foreign language requirement, Dinklage (7) postulated three types of high-risk language learners and compared their learning difficulties to existing studies on dyslexia or specific language disability. The most common type of disability, encompassing 1 to 2 percent of the students in a typical Harvard foreign language class, Dinklage classified as *strephosymbolia*—a word coined by Samuel Orton (Critchley, 3). Symptoms of strephosymbolia include histories of difficulties learning to read and spell, reversal of letters and syllables, right/left confusions, and family histories of similar problems.

A second, less clear-cut type of disability included students with audio-lingual deficits. These individuals had difficulty with the auditory discrimination of sounds, of syllables, and of words. A third type of student exhibited a deficiency related to the audio-lingual deficit—problems with auditory memory. In giving back auditory information, these students scramble, shuffle, and insert words, resulting in random combinations. Most students with auditory memory difficulties also experienced audio-lingual deficits, according to Dinklage, although a few did not.

Dinklage suggested that a visual presentation or a combined auditory/visual approach might allow students with audio-lingual deficits to experience success. He was less optimistic as to the prognosis for strephosymbolics. It is reasonable to assume that students with auditory memory deficits may have decided limitations in listening comprehension and speaking skills in the foreign language classroom.

The "subtypes" defined by Dinklage resemble other classifications of subtypes of learning disabilities (Boder, 2; Fox and Routh, 9; Rourke, 29). Most such classifications describe (1) visual/spatial difficulties, (2) auditory difficulties, especially phonological-coding problems, i.e., the "inability to represent and access the sound of a word in order to help remember the word" (Vellutino, 30), and (3) mixed visual/spatial and auditory difficulties. The largest subgroup includes individuals with phonological problems (60-70 percent). Recently, researchers have argued that what was thought to be a visual/spatial difficulty is, in fact, a "... symptom of dysfunction during storage and retrieval of linguistic

information" rather than "a defect in the visual system" (Vellutino, 30, p. 34).

Dinklage observed a select group of students who closely resemble students across the nation currently being identified as having specific learning disabilities. Most of these students had entered Harvard with "undetected" learning disabilities; it was not until they experienced failure in learning a second language that they came to the attention of counselors. Upon investigation, these students' very early histories of learning difficulties were discovered, having been masked by great effort, high intelligence, and years of working in the English language. Faced with the new symbol system of the second language, these bright individuals manifested the handicap again; they were unable to store, process, or produce information in the new symbol system. In most cases, their academic performance in other areas was superior. They matched very closely the criteria of a learning disability as defined by Levine.

In a description of four case studies of college students with suspected learning disabilities, Ganschow and Sparks (15) noted several characteristics similar to those of students in the Dinklage study. These students had histories of early reading and spelling difficulties in English. They had difficulties with listening comprehension and grammatical aspects of the foreign language as indicated in the results of the Listening and Grammar subtests of the Test of Adolescent Language. Also, all four students had large discrepancies (over twenty standard score points) among scores on standardized tests of various academic areas, e.g., mathematics, general knowledge, spelling, math. Such high performance in one academic content area and much lower achievement in selected content such as math or spelling suggests the possibility of a learning disability.

In another study, Ganschow and Sparks (13) developed a questionnaire to predict students likely to be at risk for learning a second language. It included items related to ease of learning to read and spell in English, to do arithmetic, family history of learning problems, difficulty with English in high school, and former history of second language learning difficulties. The questionnaire was administered to students enrolled in audio-lingual sections of first semester Spanish at the university level.

Identified by the Ganschow and Sparks questionnaire, eighteen low-risk and seventeen high-risk students were administered the Test of Adolescent Language (TOAL) (Hammill, et al., 19), an indicator of expressive and receptive language performance in oral and written modes. Thirteen SLD students who were not enrolled in second language study were also given the TOAL and the questionnaire. Low-risk, high-risk, and SLD students were compared in their performance on the TOAL. Statistical analyses revealed significant differences between low-risk and SLD students in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as in the overall Adolescent Language Quotient. Significant differences resulted between high-risk and SLD students on measures of speaking, reading, and the overall Adolescent Language Quotient. There were no significant differences, however, between high-risk and SLD students on eight of twelve individual subtests. These findings suggest that there may be subtle language proficiency differences that distinguish high-risk and low-risk students. A high drop-out rate (35 percent) of students by the end of second semester Spanish was noted among those identified by the questionnaire as high-risk, although there were no significant differences between low-risk and high-risk students on SAT/ACT scores. The two groups seemed comparable, yet the questionnaire identified areas relevant to language learning that distinguished unsuccessful students.

Two recent studies have examined the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) (Carroll and Sapon, 4) as part of the diagnostic assessments for identifying students who will have difficulty learning a second language (Gajar, 11; Demuth and Smith, 6). Gajar compared MLAT scores of fifty-one students diagnosed as having learning disabilities and a random sample of fifty students enrolled in French, German, or Spanish at Pennsylvania State University. Students with learning disabilities scored significantly lower ($p<.001$) on all five subtests of the MLAT. Demuth and Smith, using the MLAT with other assessments, have found it "a very reliable element" (6, p. 71) in screening students for an alternative to meeting the foreign language requirement at Boston University. (The alternate sequence of courses will be discussed later in this paper.)

The studies we have presented describe characteristics of students with language learning disabilities. The following study reports characteristics of successful language learners.

Profiles of Successful Language Learners

In an investigation of auditory foreign language aptitude and achievement, Myer (27) describes characteristics of successful second language learners. The study focuses on aptitude and achievement in auditory discrimination, sound-symbol correspondence, and listening comprehension. (See Appendix A for a listing of the variables included in the research.) Achievement in French, German, or Spanish was assessed by discrete auditory discrimination and comprehension test items, as well as listening in combination with reading and writing. The strengths of the successful second language learner based on the results of this study are strikingly similar to the areas of weakness that compose a generalized profile of students with specific learning disabilities.

Based on the Myer data, the following profile characterizes a hypothetical *student with high auditory foreign language aptitude:* a student who *spells well,* has *musical aptitude* in *tonal* discrimination and in *rhythmic* perception, has good overall *math* ability, *discriminates auditory stressed syllables well,* and has good *overall English language skills* (including spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and the use of words).

The profile of a *successful foreign language learner,* one who excels in auditory second language achievement, would be a student who performs well on two measures of the *auditory discrimination of syllables,* i.e., detecting the number of syllables heard and which syllable is the stressed one. In addition, according to the Myer study, this student achieves in *spelling,* in *math concepts,* and scores high on a measure of auditory foreign language aptitude sound/symbol association (Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery).

When findings based on group data are discussed in terms of individual cases, the statements can only be considered hypothetical. It follows, however, that from such group data, valuable information can be obtained about those who learn easily in the auditory activities associated with second language learning. Of particular interest is the importance of the ability to discriminate auditory syllables well; assessed at the end of grade 7, *auditory syllable discrimination* served as the best predictor of performance on measures of foreign language achievement

in German, French, and Spanish at the beginning of second year language study in grade 10. This auditory discrimination skill is one that is frequently deficient in students with specific learning disabilities.

Profiles of Three High-Risk Foreign Language Learners

In the case studies below, three typical profiles of students who unsuccessfully attempted to meet the foreign language requirement are presented. These students were referred to the specialist in learning disabilities at their university for consultation regarding diagnostic testing.

Case Study 1

I.Q.: High-average range
Languages Attempted: High school Latin (two years); Latin, Russian, and Spanish at the university
Language Learning Problems: Auditory memory, auditory sequencing
Strengths: Superior compensatory strategies, ability to derive meaning from written text

Case study 1 had no prior history of learning difficulties in school. In college he was referred for testing because of his inability to pass the language requirement. The student had taken two years of Latin in high school and passed because, in his words: "The focus of the course was on mythology and reading, not speaking the language." He had tried three languages in college, but was unable to fulfill the two-year requirement in the same language for a degree in Arts and Science. The battery of tests given to identify SLD students did not reveal a specific learning disability, i.e., there were no pronounced discrepancies between his academic potential and his overall grade point average as evaluated by the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R). All test results indicated that he was in the average to above-average range. Furthermore, his college performance was commensurate with his test scores in all subjects but foreign language. Upon discovery that the student had considerable articulation difficulties as a youngster, he was administered a battery of auditory tests and was found to do poorly in sound imitation

and blending tasks. Self-reports about the nature of this student's difficulties with foreign language courses suggested that he had problems with the "sequence" of the language structures, i.e., he knew the right words, but did not know how to arrange them in the appropriate order. Furthermore, he was unable to utilize clues provided by word endings and was reduced to "memorizing vocabulary words." When he listened to the language, the sounds and words blended together for him. This student appeared to have an audio-lingual deficit affecting his ability to hear and/or sequence auditory information, as well as difficulties with auditory memory for language. Given familiar native language contexts and superior compensatory strategies, however, this problem had gone undetected until he took a second language.

Case Study 2

I.Q.: Superior range
Languages Attempted: No high school language experience; Spanish (failed first semester at the university)
Language Learning Problems: Difficulty hearing, reading, and spelling the language
Strengths: Personal communication skills in English, perseverance; learns best through graphic visual aids

Case study 2 had a long history of school-related problems. She was not diagnosed as having a specific learning disability until college, when she was referred because of inability to pass the foreign language requirement. Particular problems in the student's early years were seen in math, especially algebra. She had switched majors in college because of inability to fulfill the math requirement in her selected major. She also dropped out of school for a semester because of her frustration with the language requirement. This student demonstrated clear-cut signs of a specific learning disability in her test results. The student's full scale IQ was in the superior range; yet discrepancies of 1.5 to 2 standard deviations were seen between her potential (IQ) and academic performance in reading (word attack), spelling, arithmetic, written language, and listening skills. The student described herself as one who learned best through discussion groups and visual aids, such as pictures, charts, and

graphs. She felt that her ability to organize and her personal communication skills were strengths that enabled her to be successful in her major. In second language learning, however, she said she was able neither to hear nor to read the language, no matter how hard she tried. This student of superior intelligence was unable to get through even the first semester of the language, despite intensive studying and tutoring. She appeared to fit characteristics described by Dinklage in the syndrome of strephosymbolia.

Case Study 3

I.Q.: High-average
Languages Attempted: No high school language experience; Spanish at the university (credit/nc credit)
Language Learning Problems: Difficulties in deriving meaning from grammatical details
Strengths: Good listening skills in English; grasps holistic meanings

Case study 3 had a strong academic average in math and science and above-average ability as measured by the WAIS-R. His family history showed siblings with reading and spelling problems, and he himself had an early history of being in special reading classes. The student had a B+ average in college and was fearful of hurting his high average with poor grades in a foreign language. After several semesters of unsuccessful credit/no credit Spanish classes, the student was referred for testing. Results indicated primary difficulties with the "surface" features of written language, revealed in the student's inability to detect errors in spelling and grammar and to use proper punctuation and spelling in written work. Tests of the student's visual processing and reading indicated slow processing speed. When the student described his problems with foreign language, he related difficulties in attending to "details," such as word endings and parts of speech. In contrast to the previous two case studies, this student performed well in listening comprehension and speaking but had difficulty in the surface features of the written language.

Procedures for Identifying High-Risk Students

The preceding profiles of high-risk second language learners represent increasing numbers of students in our classrooms. To provide students with needed services and alternatives, formalized procedures are necessary.

Central to any plan for helping students who may have difficulty in meeting a language requirement at the university level is a formalized procedure for identification of "at-risk" students. An evaluation procedure in effect at Boston University includes an initial interview, the completion of a two-page questionnaire by the student, the completion of a two-page questionnaire by the student's foreign language teacher, the completion of the Modern Language Aptitude Test, and a second interview for making a decision about the language studies appropriate to the student (Demuth and Smith, 6, p. 69).

At the University of Pennsylvania, students who petition a language requirement substitution must document an "earnest and uninterrupted effort" to learn a language by supplying letters from the language instructors, are interviewed by the vice-dean for language instruction, and upon recommendation of the vice-dean may be interviewed and tested (Freed, 10, p. 16). Unfortunately, even when a formal process is in place, the student who petitions for a waiver or substitution has frequently endured failure or sacrificed grades in other courses in an effort to meet the language requirement.

At Ohio State University approximately 25 percent of the 450 identified learning disabled students on campus in 1986 had been diagnosed prior to their enrollment at the university (Languis and Block, 22); previously identified students are asked to provide recent documentation of their disability once at the university. For those students, the opportunity to benefit from second language is provided through alternatives chosen from specified courses in the numerous languages that may satisfy the language requirement. Clearly, the position taken at Ohio State is one that values the rich linguistic and cultural understandings that the study of a second language may engender, yet recognizes the limitations of students with learning disabilities. Access to language experiences is provided through numerous support services and course alternatives.

Ohio State students who have not been diagnosed but whose performance indicates the possible presence of a learning disability are referred to the Office of Disability Services. Foreign language faculty are among those who refer a large number of students. The evaluation process provided by the university generally proceeds as follows:

1. The student calls for an appointment.
2. A counselor meets with the student in an hour-long appointment during which a comprehensive case history is taken, including the student's academic, medical, and family history. In addition, a checklist of study habits is completed. The counselor determines if the student should be tested for a learning disability.
3. A minimum of six hours of testing is administered over a three-day period by staff members. Each student is given the Woodcook-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery (Parts I and II), the Diagnostic Reading Test, the Trailmaking Test, from the Halstead Reitan Battery, the WAIS-R, and informal reading and writing assessments.
4. A diagnostic staff meeting is held to determine if the student has a learning disability. Additional tests may be recommended if a determination is not made based on the interview and required testing. These may include the Benton Visual Retention Test, Central Auditory Testing, the MLAT, and informal visual and auditory assessments.
5. An interpretation meeting is held between the student and the initial counselor to review test results. If the student is not assessed as learning disabled, suggestions to improve academic performance are given (e.g., study strategies, available counseling or tutoring). Accommodations for learning disabled students are discussed (e.g., taped textbooks, the use of readers, a scribe, extended time on tests, referrals to classes teaching study skills or writing skills).

The procedures for petitioning alternatives to the regular sequence of courses for the language requirements at the University of Pennsylvania (Freed, 10, p. 16) and Boston University (Demuth and Smith, 6), and

Ohio State University (Languis and Block, 22) all result in case-by-case decisions about the nature of the student's language studies.

Alternative Courses

The alternatives open to students at the university level vary according to the institution. At the University of Pennsylvania, alternative courses equivalent in number to the number of courses in language requirement are substituted when an exemption is granted. The courses are to provide an understanding of foreign languages and cultures, as well as an introduction to foreign literatures (Freed, 10, pp. 16–17).

A sequence of courses at Boston University addresses the needs of students identified for course substitutions, taking into account the difficulty students with language learning disabilities frequently have with auditory processing and production. Language Learning is the first of three courses that "focus more on the written, rather than on the spoken word" (Demuth and Smith, 6, p. 73). Three days a week the classes are devoted to developing an understanding of grammar and "basics of linguistic structure"; in a fourth class French or Spanish issues are discussed, according to the language the student will subsequently study. Course topics include articulatory phonetics, the perception and production of English sounds and Spanish or French sounds, phonology, morphology, syntax in English and French or Spanish, sociolinguistic aspects of language, and a comparison and contrast of first and second language acquisition.

Upon completion of Language Learning, students take two additional courses that develop reading and writing skills. One of the strengths of this alternative course sequence is the very definite contribution toward the building of confidence and positive self-concept that success in *learning how to learn* can produce in a student. The Boston University students who follow the alternative sequence learned "to discriminate, abstract, and analyze with much more depth and accuracy" (Demuth and Smith, 6, p. 75).

Processing Difficulties and Adaptive Cognitive Strategies

In the search for alternatives that will enable students to learn a second language, it seems important to discuss adaptive cognitive strategies that can systematically be taught and applied to the learning of foreign languages. Learning disabled students typically have difficulty in certain learning processes that directly affect language learning.

A checklist of characteristics of learning disabled college students (Mangrum and Strichart, 26, pp. 32–37) lists difficulties in language processes in the students' native language. Included in spoken language difficulties are (1) difficulty in grasping what others say to them, (2) problems in retrieving the appropriate word for a situation, (3) immature syntactical patterns, and (4) inappropriate use of words. Among written language difficulties mentioned by Mangrum and Strichart are (1) imprecise and unclear expression, (2) repeated use of a small variety of sentence structures, (3) incorrect use of punctuation, (4) underutilization of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. A special category of spelling problems lists (1) transposition of letters, (2) omission or substitution of sounds when spelling words, (3) attempts to phonetically spell irregular words, and (4) general avoidance of writing words that are difficult to spell.

Other cognitive difficulties of a more general nature but directly involved in the development of skills needed in a second language classroom are the following: sequencing events and ideas, understanding abstract concepts, spontaneously employing cognitive strategies, switching strategies as appropriate, distinguishing important from unimportant information, reasoning in a deductive manner, perceiving cause-and-effect relationships, remembering things seen and heard (short and long term), sustaining ideas and information, generalizing skills from one task situation to another (Mangrum and Strichart, 26, p. 32).

A course that focused directly on metacognitive strategies to teach learning disabled college students how to learn has been proposed and subsequently taught by Languis, director of the Brain Behavior Laboratory and professor in the College of Education at Ohio State University (Languis and Block, 22). The intent of this course, titled Learning to

Learn Seminar, was to increase the repertory of learning strategies available to the student and provide insights into application of adaptive strategies to study habits and coursework. In the Learning to Learn course, individual differences in learning style were taken into account, as well as measures of personality, I.Q., and results of other diagnostic tests used in the identification process for learning-disabled students.

To undertake the teaching of adaptive learning strategies now seems to be a logical future step for foreign language educators. Literature on accommodating learning styles in the foreign language classroom and individualizing to meet student needs is adequate. A serious examination of how foreign language educators can address learner diversity through methodological considerations and direct instruction of adaptive learner strategies seems appropriate. Dialogue and collaboration among instructors of second languages and specialists involved with teaching students with specific learning disabilities will expedite this process.

Options for At-Risk Language Learners

Currently there are several options open to students with language-based difficulties who face meeting a second language requirement. To gain the benefits that the study of a second language can provide, students may extend the years of study in excess of a usual program schedule to allow sufficient time to concentrate on a second language or follow an individualized program that allows for variable goal options and a slower pace. Course substitutions can be petitioned. An option that holds promise for the future is an approach that helps students develop metacognitive skills that will enable them to learn a second language. For some students, avoidance of the language requirement by enrolling in programs or institutions that have no language requirement can be an option. It is important that classroom teachers and students, both at the high school and university level be informed of options, policies, and procedures involved in meeting foreign language requirements.

In 1983, a survey of college and university foreign language requirements for SLD students was done at the University of Wisconsin. Of the fifty-three institutions surveyed, fourteen did not have a policy,

nine were in the process of considering one, and thirty-two had implemented a plan for accommodating SLD students (Keeny and Smith, 20). At this writing, the authors of this manuscript are conducting an updated and expanded survey to obtain current information about policies and procedures throughout the nation (Myer and Ganschow, 28).

Meeting the Needs of SLD Students

The promise for meeting the needs of SLD students in the future is encouraging. The work of Ganschow and Sparks (13) in developing a questionnaire to identify high-risk foreign language students includes a modified version appropriate to assessment of secondary school students. Suggestions for tests to determine students with learning disabilities are presented in Appendix B of this article; in addition, Ganschow, Pohlman, and Sparks (12) are preparing descriptions of procedures for diagnosing foreign language learning problems, as well as information about referral agencies.

At the present, there are several ways that those of us involved in the instruction of students with learning disabilities can be of assistance. First, it is important to recognize the indications that a student may have a disability. A frustrated student who says that he or she is trying but is unsuccessful in learning a foreign language is a possible candidate for further observation. If a student displays several characteristics of students with learning disabilities and exhibits frustration in the foreign language classroom, it would follow that the student be referred for consultation.

In the foreign language classroom, it is possible to assist students with learning disabilities directly by adopting approaches that meet their need for multisensory input. Methodological approaches that seem to be helpful to learners with a learning disability emphasize the importance of teaching through more than one modality (Bilyeu, 1; Gillingham, and Stillman, 18; Kennewig, 21). Bilyeu (1) emphasizes that the more teaching modalities one employs, the greater the chances for success. The two most common modalities are visual and auditory; however, use of the kinesthetic (gesturing) and tactile (touching) modalities may help students who have auditory or visual deficits. The Orton-Gillingham approach (Gillingham and Stillwell, 18), commonly used to

teach reading to learning disabled students, incorporates the kinesthetic and tactile modalities. A modified version of this approach has met with success in teaching Spanish to learning disabled students (Kennewig, 21). Kennewig conducts class in Spanish but slows the pace of the presentation of material and includes multisensory activities on a regular basis. On a daily basis Kennewig individualizes instruction by slowing the pace and providing for mastery learning. Students work at the blackboard and are given extensive practice in phonetics, spelling, grammar, conversation, and reading. Flashcards, filmstrips, and transparencies are frequently used in class.

To integrate such characteristics of individualized instruction into the regular foreign language classroom is possible, especially with the help of modern technology. With accommodations, the student with an identified or unidentified learning disability will be able to learn a foreign language. The work of addressing the problems of the SLD student is underway, and the prospects for meeting the needs of this special population are hopeful. As learner diversity increases in foreign language classrooms, the urgency of the task touches everyone involved—the student, the learning disability specialist, and the foreign language teacher.

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Appendix A

Variables Analyzed in Myer Study (27)

Criterion Variables: Aptitude Phase

A. Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery
   1. Sound Discrimination (PLAB[5])
   2. Sound-Symbol Association (PLAB[6])
   3. Auditory Total (PLABTOT)

B. Myer Syllable Discrimination Test
   4. Count
   5. Accent

Predictor Variables: Aptitude Phase

C. Gordon Musical Aptitude Profile
   1. Tonal Imagery, Part I: Melody (T^1—TONAL)
   2. Rhythm Imagery, Part I: Tempo (R^1—TEMPO)
   3. Rhythm Imagery, Part II: Meter (R^2—METER)
   4. Rhythm Imagery, Total (RHYTHMTOT)
   5. Musical Sensitivity, Part I: Phrasing (S^1—SENSITIV)
   6. Total (MAPTOT)

D. Iowa Test of Basic Skills
   7. Vocabulary
   8. Reading
   9. Language: Spelling
   10. Language: Usage
   11. Language: Total
   12. Work Study Skills: Visual Materials
   13. Work Study Skills: Total
   14. Mathematics: Concepts
   15. Mathematics: Problems
   16. Mathematics: Computation
   17. Mathematics: Total
   18. Iowa Composite

E. Personal Background Questionnaire
   19. Musical Experience
   20. Sex
   21. Handedness

Achievement Phase

In the achievement phase, the criterion and predictor variables of the aptitude phase served as predictors of foreign language achievement in French, German, or Spanish. Two auditory foreign language achievement scores were used. (1) Auditory Total (AUDTOT), consisting of Part I A (Oral Multiple Choice with a Drawing) and B (Oral Multiple Choice, question/choice of answer format) and Part II (Sound-Symbol Association), and Part III (Dictation); and (2) Auditory Question/Written Personal Response (AUD IV).

Appendix B

*Representative Tests for Identifying Students With Learning Disabilities**

Test Instrument	*Publisher*	*Abilities and Skills Measured*	*Age Norms*
Benton Visual Retention Test	The Psychological Corporation 757 Third Avenue New York, NY 10017	Visual processing	8—Adult
Goldman-Fristoe-Woodcock Auditory Skills Battery	American Guidance Service, Inc. Publishers' Building Circle Pines, MI 55014	Auditory processing	4—Adult
Gray Oral Reading Test	Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc. 4300 West 62nd Street Indianapolis, IN 46268	Oral reading	1—College
Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT)	The Psychological Corporation 757 Third Avenue New York, NY 10017	Ability to learn a foreign language	Secondary—Adult
Nelson Denny Reading Test (or California or IOWA reading tests) (timed and untimed scores)	Houghton-Mifflin 1900 South Batavia Avenue Geneva, IL 60134	Vocabulary, comprehension, reading rate	College level
Test of Adolescent Language (TOAL)	PRO-Ed 5341 Industrial Oaks Blvd. Austin, TX 78735	Listening, reading, writing, speaking	11—18

Writing sample (250 words minimum)

*This test battery was modified from Mangrum and Strichart (26).

Test Instrument	*Publisher*	*Abilities and Skills Measured*	*Age Norms*
Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R)	The Psychological Corporation 757 Third Avenue New York, NY 10017	General mental abilities: 6 verbal and 5 nonverbal subtests	16—Adult
Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT)	Jastak Associates, Inc. 1526 Gilpin Avenue Wilmington, DE 19806	Reading, spelling, and mathematics	5—Adult
Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Battery (WJPEB) Part I: Tests of Achievement	Teaching Resources Corp. 50 Pond Park Rd. Hingham, MA 02043	Achievement: Letter-word identification, word-attack, passage comprehension, calculation, applied math problems, dictation, proofing, science, social studies, humanities	3—Adult
Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Battery (WJPEB) Part II: Test of Cognitive Ability	Teaching Resources Corp. 50 Pond Park Rd. Hingham, MA 02043	Reasoning, comprehension, practical judgment, verbal ability, time and space relationships, number ability, auditory attentive ability, visual attentive ability, memory	3—Adult

4
Improving Foreign Language Teaching through Innovative Recruiting and Training

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Introduction

"A Collaborative Partnership to Improve Foreign Language Teaching in Middle and Secondary Schools through Innovative Recruiting and Training," a $145,000 grant of the United States Department of Education, has been funded through the Office of Federal Relations and Instructional Services of the Colorado Department of Education. This article reports on the current progress of this project.

Background

In 1983 the Colorado Board of Education initiated "Operation Renaissance," a project that called for the formation of task forces to study the educational programs in the state. The Foreign Language Task Force made several recommendations, one of which was to suggest that steps be taken to prepare additional teachers of foreign languages to meet the demands of the future. A grant proposal, submitted to the United States

Department of Education for the Secretary's Discretionary Fund, was designed to meet that need.

There were two main goals of the grant: (1) to augment the number of qualified French and Spanish teachers in the state, and (2) to improve and/or enhance the foreign language programs of the schools that participate in the project. Subsidiary goals were these: (1) to improve the skills of those already teaching French and Spanish who have minimal qualifications, (2) to meet the needs of small, isolated rural districts, and (3) to develop a model for alternative and accelerated teacher certification programs. The project runs from January 1987 to June 1988. Twenty highly qualified participants were to be selected; each received stipends of $1,125 per quarter from grant funds while enrolled in a full course load of university study (2 quarter maximum), and stipends of $1,250 for a twelve-week internship paid by the sponsoring school district.

Before designing the proposal, the Colorado Department of Education researched the need for foreign language teachers in the state. The information received from school districts and universities revealed that because of increased student enrollment and a limited applicant pool, there was indeed a need for more certified teachers of Spanish and French. The data formed the framework for the proposal design.

Implementation

The first step in the implementation of the project was the establishment of the Recruitment Task Force. There were two areas for the recruitment efforts: (1) individuals who were interested in becoming certified teachers of Spanish and French, and (2) school districts that would financially sponsor an internship placement. Leaders from foreign language organizations throughout the state, as well as school district foreign language supervisors and personnel from the Colorado Department of Education, were called upon to develop strategies for the promotion and publicity of the project. Organizations notified their memberships about the grant and identified potential applicants. Targeted groups for applicants were: (1) university-educated immigrants,

(2) graduate or undergraduate language majors who were not previously intending to become teachers, (3) public school teachers currently teaching French or Spanish along with their endorsed subject matter (the subject listed on their teaching certificate, usually the university major), (4) teachers with proficiency who were not teaching the language, and (5) those teaching in private schools where certification is not required. School districts were contacted by the state foreign language consultant to solicit their participation.

At this time the management team to administer the grant was selected. The grant activities are under the leadership of Arvin C. Blome, assistant commissioner of education of the Office of Federal Relations, and are a part of the Curriculum and Instruction Project, supervised by Boyd Dressler. The director of the grant was to be a successful teacher of Spanish or French with a master's degree or equivalent in foreign language pedagogy and content, with fluency in Spanish or French, and with demonstrated leadership ability. Jan Herrera serves in this position. There are two university-based codirectors, Kathleen Y. Ensz (French), and Lynn A. Sandstedt (Spanish), professors at the University of Northern Colorado with extensive experience in teacher training and foreign language methodology. The foreign language consultant of the Colorado Department of Education, Mary Apodaca, an experienced teacher of French and Spanish with fluency in both languages, expertise in foreign language pedagogy, and knowledge of foreign language study in Colorado, completes the team.

Application materials and procedures were developed. The Recruitment Task Force then initiated a publicity campaign that resulted in much interest in the program. Two very successful publicity endeavors were undertaken: publication of a front-page article in "Education Colorado," the Colorado Department of Education newsletter sent to all public school teachers, and the development and distribution of an informational brochure. The management team received forty applications, and thirty-five additional inquiries were made. All of the seventy-five respondents were given information about teacher certification, available university courses, and career counseling. Applicants were required to submit the following documents: application form, letter stating interest, background, and commitment to foreign language instruction in Colorado, résumé, transcripts, and letter of recommendation.

Upon receipt of the completed application materials, the project director conducted an interview with each applicant. One of the major concerns of this interview was to determine the applicant's understanding of the American education system, experience with American youth, and to ascertain probable success for integration into an American classroom. An unofficial oral proficiency interview in the target language was given, and an interview was also held with the appropriate university-based codirector. The Selection Committee, composed of the project team and a representative from the Recruitment Task Force, was dedicated to identifying quality candidates who would successfully meet the required standards of teacher certification through the challenging schedule of the accelerated program. The committee considered the following criteria in its final selection of the participants:

1. Ratio of Spanish and French participants
2. An unofficial rating of intermediate proficiency on the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages/Educational Testing Services Oral Proficiency Interview (Higher ratings did not ensure selection.)
3. Adequate communication skills in English
4. Potential success in the program
5. Commitment to foreign language teaching in Colorado
6. Potential as a successful Spanish or French teacher at the middle or secondary school level
7. Successful interview—enthusiasm, sincerity, ideas, ability to articulate desire to participate, and understanding of American culture, especially teenagers

The Selection Committee chose nineteen finalists, who included seven French and twelve Spanish participants. These individuals represented varied and rich backgrounds. Preparation for a teaching certificate represents a major career change for those participants who came from careers in ranching, missionary service, banking, paralegal and prelaw, and homemaking. Four participants were university-educated immigrants who were teaching at the university level or were continuing their own studies, while five were teachers of other subjects in the elementary or secondary schools.

School districts with strong foreign language programs and master

teachers were invited to participate as sponsors of an internship. They were asked to provide the $1,250 stipend to be paid to each participant whose internship is a requirement of the certification program. The school district received many of the following benefits from their participation in the program:

1. Design of a Foreign Language Program Improvement/Enhancement Plan to be implemented by the resources of the grant
2. Advantage of an additional resource person at low cost
3. Opportunity for staff and students to work with an intern who has a unique background
4. On-the-job training for potential teachers
5. Opportunities for faculty for workshops and in-service credit
6. Recognition for the district, school, and master teachers for the contribution to this national model

Many schools were very supportive of the project. The Cherry Creek School District #5 of Englewood, Cheyenne Mountain School District #12 of Colorado Springs, and Mapleton School District #1 of Thornton enthusiastically accepted the opportunity to be a part of the grant and funded a total of eight internship placements. Other schools were also interested but financial constraints did not allow them to make the monetary commitment. The participating schools are Cherry Creek High School (4 interns) and Overland High School (2 interns) of the Cherry Creek district, Cheyenne Mountain Junior High (1 intern) from the Cheyenne Mountain district, and York Junior High School (1 intern) of the Mapleton district. Three additional internship placements were needed to meet the needs of the study plans of the participants. Two districts in the Colorado Springs area, School District #11 and Academy School District #20 will each host one intern with the expense of the stipend paid by grant funds and without all of the benefits of a participating school. A third placement of this type will be arranged for the spring.

All of these schools have outstanding teachers of French and Spanish, who have been recommended by their administrators. Master teachers will receive recertification credit and will be invited to attend all of

the workshops and seminars of the project. They will also be instrumental in designing the Foreign Language Program Improvement/Enhancement Plan, which affords their school the opportunity to request resources and consultation for desired projects. The interns will be matched with their master teachers, and the field experience will be administered and evaluated by the university-based codirectors.

The University of Northern Colorado's Role

The University of Northern Colorado (UNC) was selected as the academic institution of the grant because of its outstanding tradition in teacher preparation.

Once the candidates were accepted into the project, the academic portion of their programs had to be formulated. This planning involved three divisions of the university: the Graduate School, the School of Education, and the Departments of Foreign Languages and Hispanic Studies. Because the great majority of participants already held a B.A. degree in Foreign Languages or some other discipline, they were admitted to the university as nondegree graduate students. They could be divided into three categories. The first group included those who held nonteaching Liberal Arts degrees in either French and/or Spanish and who needed the required pedagogical background for certification. The second encompassed those who held nonteaching degrees in other disciplines accompanied by a strong background and proficiency in French and/or Spanish and who needed not only the pedagogical training but also additional hours in French or Spanish in order to be certified and endorsed by the state or at least to have accrued the twenty semester hours necessary for approval by the North Central Secondary School Accrediting Association to teach French or Spanish. The final group consisted of those individuals who were certified and endorsed to teach at the secondary level in another discipline and who had previously accumulated some hours in French or Spanish at the undergraduate level. The project allowed these students to complete the work equivalent to a B.A. in the language or the twenty semester hours necessary for North Central approval. The Graduate School processed all of the candidates' credentials and forwarded their dossiers to the School of Education and to the project codirectors in French and Spanish for determination of

needed coursework. Because of the varied experiential and educational backgrounds of the participants, the directors had to design programs that were highly individualized in order to meet the needs of each participant.

This program-design procedure required frequent meetings between the codirectors, Lynn Sandstedt and Kathleen Ensz, and the Assistant Dean of Education in order to determine the pedagogical needs of each participant and which of those needs could be met through formal classwork and which could be waived based upon documentation of previous work or educational experience. None of the traditional standards or requirements for teacher certification was lessened. The only changes made were in the method of delivery of required courses.

The codirectors developed special foreign languages–oriented pedagogical workshops, which were also approved by the School of Education as alternatives to required courses in the Professional Teacher Education core. In order to expedite the participants' progress in the program, teacher aiding and clinical experience, normally separate requirements, were included as part of the paid teaching internship (equivalent to student teaching). Interns worked under carefully selected master teachers and were supervised by the codirectors of the project. Participants were required to take a full-time or half-time internship depending upon prior teaching experience. Coinciding with the internship programs, the codirectors taught a series of courses specifically related to the teaching of foreign languages. These classes were offered during evenings and weekends in order that all participants could attend. All master teachers were invited. The topics covered in these courses were a historical overview of teaching strategies in the foreign language classroom, an oral proficiency familiarization workshop, achievement testing in the foreign language classroom, developing strategies and activities for communication, and integrating culture into the daily lesson of the class. Guest speakers and panelists addressed the topics of classroom management, application for a teaching position, and a potpourri of teaching activities and strategies that have been proven to be effective in second language instruction. The development of the professionalism of the participants was strongly encouraged through the course, not only by the modeling of professional involvement of the instructors, leaders of the project, panelists, and speakers,

but also through an awareness of the benefits of participation in the professional organizations of the state, region, and nation. Those students needing additional work in French and Spanish were required to take courses in the annual UNC summer institute, which is especially designed to meet the needs of secondary school teachers of foreign languages. In some cases, this additional study necessitated further coursework during the 1987–88 academic year.

Because of the variety and complexity of each participant's course of study, individual contracts were drawn up. The contracts were created to clarify expectations and to ensure the continuous progress of each student throughout the eighteen months of the project. They included a list of all courses to be taken and other certification endorsement requirements. The contracts were then approved and signed by the project directors, the codirectors, the assistant dean of the School of Education, and a senior consultant of the Certification Department of the Colorado Department of Education.

The Role of the Colorado Department of Education

The resources of the Colorado Department of Education have been very valuable in the development of this project. The Certification Department continues to provide accurate answers to the many questions about the requirements for the internship experience, the certification process, and required documents. The Field Services Department helped identify school districts where foreign language teachers were needed and where there were teachers without the required numbers of credit hours. This office has also provided publications on effective teaching techniques. The Accounting Department has administered all of the budget transactions including the letter of agreement with the University of Northern Colorado regarding the payment of stipends. The Colorado Department of Education has provided outstanding office facilities, support staff, and administrative leadership to the director of the grant, which have been key factors in the successful implementation of the project. The insightful contributions of the foreign language consultant have been extremely valuable and her services will continue to be a valued resource for the participants and schools.

Research and Evaluation

The Evaluation Department of the Colorado Department of Education has worked with the project team to design a research project and an evaluation plan for the grant.

The research project will include a study of the student teacher evaluations of prior French and Spanish student teachers from the University of Northern Colorado who were supervised by Ensz and Sandstedt. The same evaluation forms will be completed for the interns of the grant during their internship experience. The purpose of the study is to compare the success of the interns in the accelerated program of the grant with that of the students in a traditional university program.

The evaluation of the grant will be composed of the evaluations from all those individuals and groups who were involved. Personal and confidential interviews will be administered to the nineteen participants, the master teachers who supervised the interns, school administrators, and university personnel by the Evaluation Department. The purpose of the evaluation will be to determine which elements were successful and should be included in the model for future programs.

Outcome for the Future

By June 1988 there will be fourteen newly certified teachers of Spanish and French for the state of Colorado, teachers who have received outstanding training and very personalized attention and assistance. There will also be five teachers who are returning to their current positions with additional credentials and improved skills to enhance their teaching and to allow them to serve future expanded programs. The foreign language departments of several schools will have been improved or enhanced. In addition, hundreds of Colorado students will have enjoyed the opportunity to learn from dedicated, enthusiastic, and talented people.

The effects of the grant will not stop there but will continue as the plans for future programs of this type are implemented. One of the main goals of the project is to develop a prototype that will increase the supply of foreign language teachers. The model will be shared with the other states in order to prepare for a focus on the future.

5
Urban FLES Models: Progress and Promise

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As foreign language educators begin to focus on the future, they will need to concentrate on an area that has traditionally been neglected within the profession: that of foreign language in the elementary school. In the heartland of the nation, school districts within the state of Ohio have begun to take serious steps to increase the number and variety of FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School) options for their students. What are the "new" options that exist? Why is the immersion approach getting so much positive attention? What promise does FLES now hold that it could not keep two decades ago?

The purpose of this article is to present an overview of FLES in an attempt to clarify misconceptions. The article also contains a description of the increasing involvement of Ohio districts in FLES—specifically of two urban districts, Cincinnati Public Schools and Columbus Public Schools, and their progress in meeting the challenge of implementing elementary school foreign language programs. The article concludes with a series of implications for future planning which need to be addressed in order to take advantage fully of the new interest in FLES and to ensure success for the many FLES initiatives that are currently underway in the United States.

A Brief History of FLES

Foreign language instruction in the elementary schools was widely introduced in the United States during the 1950s and became a very popular program option during the 1960s. Early elementary foreign

language programs were based primarily upon one general model, which provided for instruction in the second language for a specified number of minutes during a specified number of days per week. Mostly seen as enrichment activities, these programs were largely considered unsuccessful and died rather early deaths as federal funds dried up and local budgets tightened (Featherstone, 4).

Since the majority of these programs were designed without evaluation components and lacked longitudinal studies (Schinke-Llano, 12), there can only be speculation as to why these programs went so rapidly into extinction. According to Schinke-Llano, the most obvious explanation centers on unrealistic and inappropriate goals and methods for FLES programs, which included too few contact hours, insufficient exposure to the second language, emphasis on language learning rather than language acquisition, and the expectation that children should develop nativelike fluency. A lack of qualified teachers, a shortage of quality instructional materials and a movement to return to "back to the basics" also contributed to the problem (Rhodes and Schreibstein, 11).

Many of the same circumstances that existed in the 1950s relating to the necessity for international communication and understanding to strengthen our country both economically and diplomatically have once again become prevalent. Reports from various commissions have called American incompetence in foreign languages nothing short of scandalous, all recommending more effort in the area of foreign language education (13). With a second wave of interest in and enthusiasm for foreign language study in the United States today, foreign language educators are determined not to make those same mistakes again. Armed with new knowledge about second language acquisition, they now have as options several different, innovative models for elementary school foreign language programs. These are more attuned to realistic goals and newer methodologies that combine research findings with second language acquisition theory.

Rationale for Early Foreign Language Study

While it used to be commonly accepted that children learn second

languages more readily than adolescents or adults, recent research studies have produced conflicting data (Rhodes and Schreibstein, 11). Children seem to have a natural ability to imitate and are often less inhibited than older learners; hence, they seem less afraid to make mistakes, have fewer negative attitudes toward a different language, and develop more authentic pronunciation and intonation patterns than older learners. Schinke-Llano (12) cites several studies that show older learners to have an advantage over younger learners in areas of morphology and syntax, problem solving, and the ability to comprehend the abstractness of language. Older learners also generally have longer attention spans.

Rhodes and Schreibstein (11, pp. 3-4) point out that, while no generalizations can be made, there are key points that favor beginning foreign language instruction at the elementary school level:

1. Early instruction in a second language is similar to early instruction in any skill. The earlier one starts, the more time there is to learn—and it takes a long time to become proficient in a foreign language.
2. Early foreign language instruction gives children a cultural awareness of people from other countries at a time when they are most receptive.
3. Children are excellent mimics. They are curious about new sounds and less self-conscious than adults when it comes to pronouncing strange words. Children usually acquire more accurate pronunciation through early instruction.
4. The early study of foreign language helps children to develop an awareness of their native language and helps their listening and speaking skills.
5. Knowing a foreign language provides increased career opportunities later in life and enables the learner to profit more fully from travel to foreign countries.

Program Types

Although there are many variations on each theme, basically four types of elementary school foreign language programs are currently in operation: FLEX, FLES, intensive FLES, and immersion. They vary, for

the most par., in goals and amount of time spent in learning the language.

The following definitions were taken from a 1986 survey prepared by the Center for Applied Linguistics (Rhodes, 10, p. 3–7).

> **Type A—Foreign Language Experience (FLEX).** The goals of this program are to get a general exposure to language and culture, learn basic words and phrases, and develop an interest in foreign language for future study. The aim is not fluency, but rather exposure to another language (or languages) and culture.
>
> **Type B—Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES).** The goals of this program are to acquire listening and speaking skills, gain an understanding and appreciation of other cultures, and acquire rudimentary reading and writing skills. Lessons in the early grades center on greetings, colors, numbers, food, days of the week, and so on, and conversation focuses on topics children are familiar with, e.g., family, pets, school. The teacher in this type of program may speak some English in the class.
>
> **Type C—Intensive FLES.** The goals of this program are the same as FLES mentioned above, but there is more exposure to the language. This greater exposure includes language classes taught *only* in the foreign language or reinforcing the foreign language in other classes. There is coordination between foreign language teachers and other teachers so that the language and concepts are carried over into the regular classroom.
>
> **Type D—Partial or Total Immersion.** The goals of this program are to be able to communicate in the language almost as well as a native speaker of the same age and acquire an understanding of, and appreciation for, other cultures. At least 50 percent of the school day is taught *in* the foreign language, including such subjects as arithmetic, science, social studies, and language arts.

In their recent survey of public, private, and parochial schools, the Center for Applied Linguistics found that 22 percent of responding elementary schools offered foreign language instruction. Spanish was the most commonly taught language (68 percent), followed by French (41

percent). FLES (45 percent) and FLEX (41 percent) were the most popular program types, with an overwhelming 89 percent of the programs occurring during regular school hours.

State of the State of Ohio FLES Programs

Results of an Ohio Foreign Language Association survey conducted early in 1987 show various similarities to the national survey conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics (Rhodes, 10, pp. 3–7). An 82 percent response from the 626 public and parochial school districts gives a relatively accurate picture of elementary school foreign language education in Onio (Andrade, 2). Only forty-six districts (8 percent) currently offer any type of foreign language instruction in kindergarten through grade 6, far below the 22 percent national average as reported by the Center for Applied Linguistics. Howevei, while only 8 percent of Ohio districts offer foreign language programs to elementary school students, their programs include about 15,000 students within nine different languages.

Ninety percent of the schools provide foreign language instruction during regular school hours, with the remaining schools offering an after-school program. About half of the schools (52 percent) have foreign language classes one or two days a week; the other half (48 percent) have them three to five days per week.

From the survey, almost half of the school districts providing foreign language instruction (47 percent) reported using the FLEX model (type A). French and Spanish were the two most commonly explored languages, with a few districts including German, Latin, or Italian. The second most often reported program type was that of FLES (type B). Nineteen districts (41 percent), once again teaching French and Spanish most frequently, use this model to help children acquire listening and speaking skills and limited amounts of reading and writing. One school reported using French within an intensive FLES program (type C). Another district has developed an intensive FLES program in the less commonly taught languages of Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian.

Finally, only two school districts, Cincinnati and Columbus, reported having immersion programs (type D) in place. In both cases,

French and Spanish are the languages of instruction. These programs will be described extensively later in this paper.

Another section of the Ohio survey requested those districts not operating FLES programs to select from a list of reasons why no programs were being offered in their district. The responses were numerous and varied. Some districts questioned the value of foreign language education while others stressed the need to emphasize the "basics." Smaller districts mentioned enrollment as a major factor that limited their involvement in anything but traditional education. Parental apathy, teacher and principal resistance to more "interruptions" in the school day, lack of qualified teachers, and limited space were also reported. By far, however, there were two major obstacles perceived by Ohio districts; namely, time and money.

Years ago when only one FLES model was used in schools, those two concerns would have been insurmountable barriers for all but the largest and wealthiest of districts. Today, however, thanks to the four program models just described, coupled with variations that allow the flexibility to adapt a program to meet the unique needs of any district, those problems are far less threatening and much more easily resolved.

Perhaps the most promising response from the Ohio survey was that when asked if a district would like to receive more information about successful FLES programs in Ohio, nearly 80 percent of the responding districts responded affirmatively.

A Tale of Two Cities

Two Ohio districts, Cincinnati Public Schools and Columbus Public Schools, offer the greatest diversity of programs. As large, urban districts with many similarities, they have been successful in starting and maintaining unique programs with dramatic results.

The Columbus Public Schools are made up of about 68,000 students who, as recently as 1985, had no formal elementary foreign language programs. They now have FLES, FLEX, and total immersion classes in place. The FLES program (type B) is operating within two different schools serving 650 students in kindergarten through grade 6 with Spanish instruction. Both schools serve students four days per week, in thirty- to forty-minute pull-out classes. The same teacher, a

Spanish language specialist, works approximately half-time in each building using both commercially available and self-made materials. The goals for the students are to develop speaking and listening skills in Spanish while also developing cultural awareness.

The FLES offerings are not part of any magnet school plan; rather, they were developed by dedicated principals in an effort to make their conventional schools more attractive and competitive with the magnet offerings. Students are not selected or screened for Spanish. All students in these schools take Spanish classes simply by virtue of being assigned to those schools. Since the schools are only in their second year of the program, there is not yet any evidence of what significance the Spanish classes have had within their total educational program. Schinke-Llano reports that "while the body of research data on FLES programs is not large, empirical evidence suggests that students who participate in FLES programs perform better in the long run on a number of measures than those who do not" (12, p. 23).

The Columbus FLEX program was originally developed in 1979 as part of the middle school design. In its original phase, all eighth-graders who did not take a Level I foreign language course would take the daily Language Survey course, which consisted of one semester of French and one semester of Spanish. The course was redesigned and expanded in 1985 to include exploratory experiences in French, German, Latin, Russian, and Spanish. The intention is to explore words, phrases, general culture, geography, history, and contributions to the American heritage. Teachers are generally certified in one of the foreign languages and receive in-service training to teach the exploratory course. The materials were developed entirely by those who teach the course with the idea in mind that teachers may or may not know the specific language being explored.

The argument has long been that the exploratory course is more appropriate at the sixth-grade level, especially in conjunction with sixth-grade world geography. In 1986, a pilot project to teach the exploratory program at grade 6 was begun in one school. Approximately 240 sixth-graders take a modified version of the FLEX course daily, thirty minutes per day, for one semester exploring French, German, and Spanish, using the same materials developed for the course in general.

Since time was taken from the block of reading and language arts,

the course was originally intended for students at or above reading level who could afford time away from reading; however, pressure became so great from parents, students, and most unbelievably, the sixth-grade teachers, that the entire schedule was modified to include *every* sixth-grader at the school. Opinion surveys completed by parents and students have shown an enthusiastic reception toward the course. The teacher also feels the course is far more successful at grade 6 than at grade 8. There will be a complete report compiled at the end of year two of the pilot in hopes that the course can be moved permanently to grade 6.

Begun in 1987 as a part of an elementary school reorganization plan, French and Spanish total immersion (Type D) elementary schools were two of fifteen new magnet schools created to encourage the return of many who had left the school system under court-ordered desegregation. The plan was developed over a period of approximately two years, following much investigation of existing immersion schools in the United States.

Each language school has its own building exclusively. Other programs are not housed within these buildings; therefore, the environment is one that can totally reflect the second language. To reiterate, an immersion school is one in which the second language is the *medium* of instruction rather than the *object* of instruction (Curtain, 3). Children receive all of their content instruction in the second language. The goals for the program are for the students to develop the abilities to communicate (listen, speak, read, write) in the second language on a level approximately that of a student who is a native speaker of that language. In addition, students will learn all of the elementary subject matter and develop their English competencies as well.

The curriculum is the same for students in this program as it is in all other Columbus Public elementary schools. In the Columbus total immersion model, the program is designed so that during their first two years, in kindergarten and first grade, children are totally immersed, with all classroom conversation, procedures, and subject content instruction in the second language. In this way, children acquire the second language in a natural, low-anxiety way. English reading and language arts are introduced in the second grade for approximately twenty

minutes per day. The percentage of classroom communication and subject content instruction in the English language increases each semester until grade 5, when students receive approximately half of their instruction in English and half in the second language.

Children are not screened for enrollment. They are admitted through a lottery process after having submitted a completed alternative school application. The only criteria for selection are the interest and involvement of the parents and racial balance. Free transportation is provided from any part of the city to the magnet school sites.

Classes are self-contained with one teacher per class. Teachers are elementary-trained and must have native or near-native fluency. Teaching materials and texts in Spanish are widely available in the United States as a result of the tremendous increase in bilingual programs for Hispanic students· materials and texts in French must generally be obtained from Canada or Europe. In some cases, materials must be produced by the teachers themselves. In the opening year for the two schools, there are some 275 students enrolled in immersion education. All indications are that the numbers will climb dramatically in the next few years.

As a follow-through for those students who attend one of the immersion schools, Columbus opened an international studies/foreign language middle school for grades 6, 7, and 8, where plans are being readied to continue immersion teaching in subject content areas in French and Spanish. In addition, students will be permitted to enroll in specially designed foreign language arts courses to continue growth in their immersion language. They may also wish to begin study of yet another foreign language through regular foreign language classes. Additional options include German, Japanese, and Chinese at present; future plans call for an expansion of offerings.

Plans for high school follow-through have been discussed and are under consideration presently within a total high school reorganization package. Initial thoughts are directed toward a series of nonsequential semester courses presented in French and Spanish which deal with a variety of specialized topics and areas of interest. Imagine the excitement of the secondary foreign language teachers who will finally be able to teach special interest courses within their area of expertise!

Because these schools have just begun to operate, there are no data

currently available to determine the effectiveness of the immersion program in Columbus; however, it is anticipated that the same positive results found in other immersion programs will occur within these schools as well. Met (7) states that "the research on this question is both voluminous and unequivocal." These results, from existing immersion programs in Canada and the United States, "have consistently shown that immersion students do as well as, and may even surpass, comparable nonimmersion students on measures of verbal and mathematic skills" (7, p. 312).

In the Cincinnati Public Schools, an emphasis on basic skills along with a strong magnet program brings the goal of quality integrated education closer each year. Cincinnati currently offers FLES in French, German, and Spanish, intensive FLES in Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian, and immersion in French and Spanish. As in the Columbus program, students in Cincinnati are not screened for enrollment. Parents complete an application and submit it to the magnet program office. Students are accepted first-come, first-served on the basis of racial balance alone. Applications are accepted only in kindergarten or first grade. Those students who can demonstrate language proficiency equal to that of their potential classmates are considered for acceptance after grade 1.

Cincinnati students receive not only structured and sequenced foreign language instruction, but also regular school subjects taught in both languages. In other words, the children learn two languages and use both of those languages to learn new concepts and to practice new skills.

The district employs foreign language specialists who are certified to teach only the foreign language and bilingual elementary teachers who must hold a Standard Ohio Elementary Certificate. Regardless of the language being used or the program model being followed, all foreign language teachers must demonstrate either native or near-native fluency in the foreign language before a contract is offered.

In the immersion model, the children spend half of the day with their English teacher and the other half of the day with the teacher who speaks only the target language. In kindergarten, the second language teacher reinforces and enriches the basic kindergarten curriculum entirely in the immersion language. Through grade 5, students continue to

have two teachers, spending half of their day with each. Time is not "set aside" for the second language; rather, it is an integral part of the daily routine and instruction. While English reading/language arts and mathematics remain in the domain of the English teacher, science, art, music, physical education, and social studies are taught by the foreign language teacher. In some schools, the team consists of two bilingual teachers, one teaching in English and one teaching in the immersion language.

Students in the intensive FLES model also have two teachers. One teacher is responsible for English instruction in reading/language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Their other teacher, the Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, or Russian specialist, meets the children each day for approximately sixty minutes. During that time, the specialist follows a structured curriculum to develop listening skills first. Children hear commands and respond to them through movement. The teacher also creates an atmosphere in the classroom which fosters communication in the target language. When the children are ready to speak, each does so using language that is both familiar and comfortable. A gradual shift in emphasis toward more reading and writing in the target language begins in grade 4.

The foreign language teacher also instructs children in art, music, and physical education. The teacher follows the approved Cincinnati Public Schools curriculum for each of these areas, but reinforces the skills and concepts with activities specific to the language and culture being taught. For example, the physical education curriculum in kindergarten requires teaching the children to skip. The foreign language teacher includes games or activities common to the target culture which require skipping. The music curriculum at the third-grade level includes teaching of rounds. The foreign language [illegible] herefore, includes songs common to the foreign language [illegible] dren typically sing in a round.

In the third model, the FLES model, children also have two teachers. One teacher provides instruction in the standard curriculum in English. In some schools, this teacher is bilingual and reinforces selected skills and concepts in the target language. The foreign language teacher, typically certified in the area of foreign language, sees the children daily for an average of sixty minutes, during which time a sequenced and

structured curriculum to develop oral proficiency is followed. The foreign language teacher often uses the second language to drill, reinforce, and enrich the specific units in social studies, science, or mathematics curriculum which have been taught by the English teacher. This model is currently offered in French, German, and Spanish.

While scheduling becomes more complex at the middle level, selected science, math, and social studies courses taught in the second language are offered at each grade level. In addition, students may participate in an exchange program during their seventh- or eighth-grade year. Partner schools in the host countries arrange for students to live with families and attend school with their hosts. These three-to-four-week experiences help to transform a "foreign" language into a familiar one. For participating students, the language of the classroom becomes the language of life!

For grades 9 through 12, many magnet school students continue at the International Studies Academy. Classes in ESL are provided to students from over fifteen different countries whose first language is other than English. The World Awareness Program features an emphasis on world literature, experience in a unified approach to mathematics, and a sequential study of natural and social sciences. The International Baccalaureate Program is a system of courses and examinations designed with standards acceptable for admission to universities throughout the world. Students can earn advanced credit up to one year at colleges and universities in Canada and the United States. The focus of the IB Program is on developing the powers of the mind through which students interpret, modify, and enjoy their environment.

Achievement is noteworthy among students in the foreign language magnet program, especially since the only consideration for acceptance into the program is racial balance. Using both national and citywide averages for comparison, each year the achievement of Cincinnati FLES students as measured by the California Achievement Tests is substantially greater than either comparison group.

Opportunity Knocks

Curtain states that immersion programs in the United States began in 1971 and were "established for a variety of reasons, most of which

center on a search for alternative approaches to successful second language teaching for young children" (3, p. 9). Many other programs were established as attractive options for magnet schools. Whatever the reason, foreign language educators have learned to capitalize on this renewed interest in foreign language in the elementary schools with a variety of new program options that combine theoretical premises with research findings. With the success of so many different kinds of elementary school models for foreign language study, it is reasonable to assume that any school can implement a program that matches time, resources, and interest within the community.

Choosing and Implementing Programs

The initial idea of beginning a foreign language program in an elementary school can come from any source but will not enjoy much success until a base of support is established. Questionnaires, informal interviews, petitions, formal presentations, informational booths at shopping malls and school fairs are just a few ways to determine whether or not there is enough support to pursue planning stages.

Once sufficient interest is established and the decision has been made to incorporate some sort of foreign language instruction at the elementary school level, joint involvement of parents, teachers, administrators, and board members is necessary to ensure its success (Rhodes and Schreibstein, 11). The first step is to investigate program options thoroughly and then to decide which goals are those that meet the needs and desires of the school and community as well as matching the resources and commitment of the school board itself and the population to be served. The general goals for language proficiency will dictate the type of program selected. Quite often, steering committees are established to carry out those tasks. Schinke-Llano (12, p. 32) describes the steering committee as having three functions:

1. To become well informed about the nature of early foreign language programs including the advantages and the limitations of each type
2. To serve as an information-gathering body regarding the particular needs and resources of the school district

3. To develop a detailed plan of the proposed program to submit to parents, teachers, and administrators for approval

It is absolutely crucial to plan for plenty of lead time for planning and implementation. As a general rule, the more complex the program, the more time will be needed to formulate and implement plans; however, a minimum of six months is realistic for even the simplest of plans. Program design, even though dictated to a degree by the program goals, will involve many minute but critical decisions. Even selection of the language(s) to be studied can be a very emotional issue to resolve.

A thorough investigation of material and human resources, a detailed estimate of costs, selection of site and participants, recruitment of proper staff, development of curriculum, in-service training for both selected staff and other staff in general, evaluation procedures, and future plans to maintain a well-articulated foreign language program are all steps that cannot be ignored in the planning stages or left to chance once the program is in place. There are always unanticipated problems that arise; stress can run extremely high. Planners need to be aware that stress is also a major factor for an existing FLES program and causes a great deal of fatigue for staff and building administrators who require almost superhuman power and stamina to keep a new program alive, well, and on target.

The most dramatic of all of the new FLES possibilities is immersion education. Immersion may tend to be overlooked because it is a bit frightening to monolingual Americans who find this a radical approach to learning a second language. Immersion programs have now matured in the United States and can no longer be considered experimental in nature. Evaluation data are very impressive (Met, 7, p. 312). Immersion enthusiasts also persuade skeptics by pointing out the cost-effectiveness of the program because it requires no additional staff. Initial start-up costs include only those for curriculum writing in the foreign language and purchase or development of appropriate books and supplementary materials. Anderson and Rhodes state that "the point is that a teacher and new books and materials are provided for every classroom, whether the teaching that goes on there is in English or a second language. Library books for second language students do, however, constitute, a 'new' expense, and collections may need to be acquired gradually, over a

number of years" (1, p. 171, 176). Spanish and French lend themselves particularly well to this model because human and material resources are more readily available than in other languages. Also, Featherstone points out that "early immersion puts an important academic achievement in the reach of children who often fare poorly in school" (4, p. 3). This is not to indicate that immersion programs are without disadvantages, limitations, or problems. Attrition, for example, is of great concern. It is simply meant to encourage planners to consider immersion since the benefits far outweigh the problems.

While historically, FLES programs have thrived in private or prosperous suburban districts, both Columbus and Cincinnati, among many others, have shown that FLES is both a viable and popular alternative for any urban district.

Articulation: Planning for the Future

Met tells us that "if planning for the junior and senior high school level is not an integral part of planning for the elementary level, the articulation will eventually backfire" (6, p. 471). To avoid the dissatisfaction and disillusionment from parents and students that often accompanies planning in a vacuum, each plan should encompass the years of schooling from the program's beginning through high school graduation. Well-informed decision makers will note both current limitations and future possibilities.

Schinke-Llano points out that "the viability and the vitality of early foreign language education in the United States rely on the quality of the programs currently in existence, as well as the future directions of the field" (12, p. 61). The caveat, then, is not simply for the individual school system to think ahead, but for foreign language professionals in general to consider adequate and appropriate language assessment instruments, research on second language acquisition, effectiveness of approaches, a clearinghouse to collect and disseminate information, and public relations efforts (Schinke-Llano, 12).

Articulation, the linking of what has been previously learned to current and future learning, is fundamental to the success or failure of

any program. Both horizontal and vertical articulation should be addressed by program planners, teachers, and building and field administrators who all share some responsibility for promoting articulation.

Teachers in elementary foreign language programs should interact regularly with secondary foreign language teachers so that they all feel they are working together. The feeling that higher-level teachers should dictate what is to be done to lower-level teachers must be avoided at all costs. Cooperative planning, instead, where all are involved in the decision-making process, should be the goal. Such cooperation can be encouraged by insisting that all foreign language teachers attend all district foreign language meetings, in-services and workshops, by keeping informed through newsletters and other memoranda, by keeping accurate records of language skills developed, by planning effectively, and by setting expectations to reach goals.

Teachers on the secondary level should be encouraged to attend sharing sessions and make-and-take workshops along with elementary teachers. They have more to share than they realize! Visitations should be encouraged with classroom coverage provided so that the cross-visits can be accomplished. Curriculum writing can and should involve teachers from both elementary and secondary levels working together in teams.

Student placement and progress should be charted from both ends with input and agreement from all teachers. Slide shows, media presentations, pamphlets, and other public relations tools should be developed by teacher committees representing both levels. Secondary teachers should be invited to help in elementary student recruitment efforts, and vice versa. Joint projects, celebrations, performances and evening programs, fairs, and "immersion days" can combine students from all levels to further enhance the articulation effort.

Other suggestions include having secondary foreign language classes "adopt" an elementary class. Students can trade letters and materials as well as serving as human resources for one another. On a smaller scale, pen pals between schools can be established. Students at a middle school can write "survival" guides for elementary students who will be coming to their school. Cross visits with students should be encouraged during school hours, too.

Cooperative field trips and travel may not always work out; however,

the idea has merit and should be considered when plausible. Film festivals, guest lecturers, talent shows, student-generated newspapers, radio shows, videos, and interviews should all be investigated. Creativity and vast amounts of energy can be the key, along with one designated person within the school system to coordinate the entire foreign language endeavor.

Implications for Future Planning

In Cincinnati, twelve years of experience and positive community support have allowed this large, urban district to expand and diversify its elementary school offerings. With each step comes a heightened awareness of both immediate and long-term needs of these programs that begin to develop second language proficiency among young children. Realistically, there are a number of considerations for future planning.

Greater attention must be given to teacher training programs. FLES programs require *both* foreign language proficiency *and* skill in teaching regular elementary school curriculum. Current shortages of elementary-certified bilinguals are being filled with varying degrees of success by foreign-trained teachers. (See the article in this issue by Apodaca, et al.)

Teacher shortages exist at the secondary level, too. With more and more immersion students reaching junior and senior high school levels, increased offerings of content courses taught in the foreign language must be included. This will require teachers with content certification who are fluent enough to teach in the foreign language.

Another area of grave concern is that of materials. While U S publishers offer a variety of materials appropriate for native speakers of Spanish at the elementary school level, very little is available without some degree of modification for the Spanish-as-a-second-language student. High-interest readers with high-frequency vocabulary would be a great help in elementary schools as well as for the junior high/middle school level. Textbooks and trade books appropriate for junior high and high school students are found in limited supply, if they exist at all.

Although Canada is our main source for French materials, extensive adaptation is necessary in their use south of the Canadian border.

When it comes to Arabic, Chinese, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, or Russian materials for children as second language learners, we are still inventing the wheel. Funding sources must be found for extensive materials development projects.

Finally, but no less important, is the area of collaboration. High school and postsecondary foreign language educators are welcoming elementary colleagues into the ranks. At the same time, FLES professionals are making an effort to communicate with superintendents, content supervisors, principals, librarians, counselors, and other auxiliary personnel. They, too, need more information about the benefits of elementary school foreign language programs.

Conclusion

The rebirth of interest in foreign languages has not happened by chance. Many factors have come together to produce this progress. Astute researchers have provided a clearer understanding of both first and second language acquisition. Creative educators have developed programs in which children can acquire language naturally. Dedicated parents have shown their strong support of early language learning by enrolling their children in FLES programs.

The federal government has reported the critical need for culturally sensitive bilingual Americans to carry the country into the twenty-first century (13) and has cited immersion education as a means of meeting that need (14). Legislators may soon provide districts with increased incentives through the Education for a Competitive America Act. This bill includes, among other things, funds for foreign language teacher awards and model programs at both the elementary and secondary levels (Lehman, 8).

But most of all, it is the children of different races, and from varying socioeconomic groups who have demonstrated that foreign language acquisition enhances overall academic achievement (Rafferty, 9) and that they can spend one half or more of their school day in a language other than English with no detriment to English language development (Genessee, 5).

In Ohio, as across the nation, elementary school foreign language

programs are a sign of progress, and it is the children who hold the promise.

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6
Rural FLES Models: Teachers and Students Learning a Foreign Language

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FLES, or the study of foreign languages in the elementary schools, is alive, well, and prospering across the nation. The latest survey conducted by the Center for Language Education and Research (Rhodes and Oxford, 4) reported that 22 percent of the nation's elementary schools are presently teaching foreign languages. Although this certainly is a far cry from the all-time low of 1 percent of elementary school systems offering programs in 1983 (Ranbom, 3), or the figure of approximately 73 percent in the late 1950s (NEA, 2, p. 113), the results of this survey are indeed encouraging.

Since 1982 the University of Tennessee—Knoxville (UTK), has responded to community requests that we plan and implement FLES programs. The programs implemented include:

1. The Knox County FLEX (Foreign Language Experience) Program. Started in 1982, it has expanded to nine elementary school sites where every third-grader receives thirty minutes of language instruction in French, Spanish, or German twice a week. UTK foreign language education students and graduates of the program are the instructors.
2. Middle School Foreign Language Introductory Course. This program is an integral component of the UTK Foreign Language Methods block in which all preservice language teachers teach a

three-week FLEX course to students in a Knoxville middle school.

3. BONJOUR. This series consists of thirty ten to fifteen-minute video lessons in French language and culture, accompanied by six review tapes, a teacher's curriculum guide/workbook, coloring book, and audiocassettes. The Center for Extended Learning at the University piloted this FLEX program statewide in the winter and spring of 1987, servicing over 1,000 kindergartners.
4. Morgan County Spanish FLEX Program. Begun in 1986, this FLEX program is offered districtwide in grades K–4. This article will present a description of the Morgan County FLEX program, focusing specifically on its organization, curriculum development and content, funding, and staffing.

Morgan County School System

Morgan County School System is one of 141 school systems in the state of Tennessee. Its profile, however, shows several unusual features. The county is one of Tennessee's most rural (farming is its principal economic activity) and sparsely populated counties. Over 92 percent of its 3,372 students must be bused to and from school, and over 60 percent are on a free or reduced-cost lunch program. Morgan County School System has seven schools, six of which incorporate elementary grades K–6.

Request for a FLEX Program

In the spring of 1986, the Foreign Language Education Program in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at UTK was approached by the language arts coordinator for the Morgan County School System to establish a FLEX program in the district. Monies from the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC) had been requested in order to enrich the elementary curricular offerings, with the addition of a Spanish FLEX program being viewed as a major priority. Unfortunately, the grant was not funded. Morgan County, however, was committed to the

FLEX program and creatively utilized internal funding to initiate the project.

The challenges of embarking upon such a program were many: program design, identifying realistic expectations and performance levels of classroom teachers and children involved, curricular planning, classroom teacher in-servicing, and funding for the program's implementation.

Program Design

It was decided that the new FLEX program in Morgan County would need to be established in three phases: (1) initial language and methodology in-servicing of the twenty-eight K–4 classroom teachers over a period of one academic year (1986–87); (2) development of the interdisciplinary curriculum to be implemented (spring 1987); and, (3) intensive language training of eleven "lead" FLEX teachers and concurrent in-servicing of seventeen other participating FLEX teachers (1987–88).

Expectations and Performance Levels

This ambitious project would establish the only districtwide FLEX program in Tennessee and it would be taught by monolingual elementary classroom teachers. Therefore, it was particularly important to set realistic expectations for the intended FLEX teachers and their students. Since the majority of classroom teachers to be trained had minimal or no previous experience with Spanish, it was decided that a Defense Language Institute proficiency level of 0+ would be the expected language performance level of the FLEX teachers by the end of their training. The same "awareness level" and internalization of basic greetings, classroom vocabulary, and introduction to Hispanic culture would be the anticipated functional performance level of the FLEX elementary students at the end of the year-long program.

Initial In-Servicing of Future FLEX Teachers

Twenty-eight classroom teachers (from the six Morgan County elementary schools) volunteered to become FLEX teachers in their district. The language arts coordinator from the district then scheduled

monthly in-service sessions throughout the 1986–87 academic year. During these sessions the K–4 teachers were taught the basic Spanish and Hispanic cultural "tidbits" that they would then teach to their students. This was probably one of the biggest professional career challenges of the foreign language teacher training staff—and one of the most rewarding.

The in-service sessions went rather smoothly, considering the fact that they were usually given at the end of a long elementary school day. The teachers, albeit visibly fatigued, were always eager to learn new Spanish vocabulary items, songs, and cultural information to integrate through the school day with their children following each in-service session. The in-service leader used a variety of multisensory techniques during the session, including Total Physical Response (Asher, 1), foreign language rhythmics[1] (Wiley, 5), role-playing, and animated drills using props. Elaborate handouts with the content of each training session, and a schedule for its implementation following each in-service session, accompanied by an audiocassette of all vocabulary, expressions, and songs, were given to all the teachers following each session. An abbreviated list of the in-service curriculum follows:

Kindergarten
1–10
hello; good-bye; good morning; good afternoon
What is your name? My name is . . . (by end of year)
red, blue, black, white, green, yellow, orange, brown, purple, gray
head, arms, legs, hands, mouth
table, chair, windows, door, teacher
dog, cat
hat, coat
Songs: "Frey Felipe," "Uno, Dos, Tres Niñitos/Gatitos/Indios," "Cascabeles," "Las Posadas"
First Grade (add the following to the above vocabulary)
1–100 (by 10s), 1–50 (by 1s)
days of the week, months of the year
Where do you live? . . . I live in . . .
mother, father, brother, sister
pink, silver, gold

eyes, ears, nose; fingers, toes, hair
Second Grade (add the following to the above vocabulary)
1–100 (by 1s)
calendar dates, phone numbers
grandparents, aunt/uncle, cousins
directions, (turn) left, (turn) right, straight ahead
light/dark colors and modification of simple nouns
teeth, nails, shoulder, elbow, knee, back, stomach

The Spanish language and its culture made a visible imprint on every one of the six elementary schools in the district. Bulletin board displays stressing numbers, colors, or some cultural point were prominent not only in individual classrooms but in the main school halls as well.

In addition, FLEX teachers used Spanish to denote the date on their blackboards, to call their children to order ("silencio, por favor"), and to line up their children when leaving the room. The utilization of Spanish in the classroom served not only as a way to get the children back on-task from an activity, but also as a reinforcement of basic skills taught during the course of the school day. Most FLEX teachers excitedly reported that whenever they wanted to get their students' total attention, all they had to do was use Spanish and the children immediately responded.

One of the highlights of the first year's Spanish FLEX program was a special assembly put on by the kindergarten and first-grade classes of one school. Parents and school officials attended the hour-long assembly during which the children performed Spanish dances, sang songs, and demonstrated their ability to count to 20, exchange basic greetings, and identify ten colors in Spanish. Excerpts of the assembly and interviews with the FLEX teachers were telecast during the evening news of one local television station that had been invited to attend the assembly.

Interdisciplinary Curricular Planning

In the spring of 1987, a group of the twenty-eight K–4 classroom teachers requested the opportunity to extend their Spanish language training and to design an interdisciplinary curriculum. An off-campus graduate school class on site in Morgan County (over one hour's drive

from UTK) was designed and subsequently offered to those interested in the project.

Participants in the class represented all content areas offered in the elementary schools and worked with the instructor to identify vocabulary, expressions, suggested activities, and required materials they felt would be appropriate to be introduced through the medium of Spanish in the classroom. Five levels of content each were identified for art, health, language arts, library, mathematics, music, physical education, science, and social studies. Intensive language instruction was given, with a third of each of the students in the graduate class at a time, while the remaining members of the class concurrently worked on designing an appropriate curriculum.

At the end of the spring quarter, two advanced foreign language education graduate students at UTK (one a native Spanish speaker), translated the teachers' curricular suggestions into Spanish and organized and typed the interdisciplinary guide. In addition, two audiocassettes of all vocabulary, expressions, and appendices (name list for boys and girls, the Spanish alphabet, bilingual glossary) contained in the guide were recorded in the university's radio studio by the native Spanish speaker. Funding for the procurement of textbooks for the graduate course and the production of the interdisciplinary guide was awarded through a THEC (Tennessee Higher Education Commission) grant.

The following is a page taken from the science section of the Morgan County Spanish Curriculum Guide:

Science Level I
Ciencia Nivel I

Objectives: The learner will be able to identify and pronounce the vocabulary words. The learner will be able to identify the written vocabulary words.

Vocabulary:	Vocabulario:
dog	el perro
puppy	el perrito
cat	el gato
kitten	el gatito
water	el agua
day	el día
night	la noche

Activities: Introduce the vocabulary by showing pictures of what each word represents and simultaneously pronouncing the word. Drill individually and in groups for concept identification and pronunciation. Place the pictures of the vocabulary on a bulletin board and label them in Spanish and English.

Tell students a story using animal names in Spanish. Tell the story again, letting students read or say the animal name in Spanish when the vocabulary card is flashed.

Have students color a picture of each animal. Then have students trace over both the English and Spanish word for that animal. Display this work on the wall.

Put the Spanish name for water above a sink or water fountain. Have students ask for water using the Spanish name for it. Have students draw pictures of day, night, and water. Have students trace over the Spanish and English terms for these.

Materials: Pictures of animals, day, night, water; paper, pencils, crayons, worksheets.

Intensive Language Training/Continued In-Servicing

Phase three of the Morgan County FLEX program is in progress at this writing. The format of this aspect of the program is unique in that the training received by the twenty-eight classroom participants is a combined year-long graduate course for eleven of the teachers and in-service training for the other seventeen. Each class/in-service session lasts three hours. Those taking the course for in-service credit, however, leave after the second hour of class; those taking the course for credit remain for the third hour.

Class meetings/in-service training sessions are scheduled at three-week intervals over the entire 1987–88 academic year. Books, materials, and tuition costs of the graduate course/in-service training are funded through THEC grant monies and other state discretionary funding to Morgan County. At least two additional in-service sessions for all interested educators in Morgan County have been scheduled for the introduction of the new interdisciplinary curriculum guide.

Conclusion

The Morgan County Spanish FLEX Program is a wonderful example of a school district and a university working cooperatively together to fund, plan, and implement a special linguistic enrichment experience for both classroom teachers in the school district and their students. This is the only FLEX program in Tennessee conducted entirely by regular elementary classroom teachers and taught as part of the curriculum during the school day. It is also the only totally interdisciplinary FLEX program in the state, and as such, will serve as a model for other Tennessee school systems in the future.

For further information concerning this program, please contact: Professor Patricia Davis Wiley, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Tennessee, 218 Claxton Education Building, Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3400.

Note

[1] "Foreign language rhythmics" is a technique that was developed by this writer and has become very popular, especially with the elementary school children. The method works as follows:
A portable electric keyboard, such as Casio PT-1 with built-in rhythm, is used to produce musical patterns that are emulated by the students using the target language. The following are a few examples of foreign language utterances accompanying different electronically produced rhythms: *Beguine:* Comment allez-vous?; *Rock 1:* ¡Buenos Dias!; *March:* Ça va?; *4-Beat:* numbers; *Swing:* Bonjour; *Samba:* ¿Dónde vive usted? Où habitez-vous? Yo vivo en la calle . . . ; *Rock 2:* verb conjugations.

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2. _____. "Public School Programs and Practices," *NEA Research Bulletin* (December 1967): 45.

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4. Rhodes, Nancy, and Rebecca Oxford. "A National Profile of Foreign Language Instruction at the Elementary and Secondary School Levels: 1987." Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1987.
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7
Language Learning through Science Activities: Grade School (F.L.A.G.) and Immersion Settings

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In an immersion setting or in a more traditional "pull-out" program, the frequent use of science activities in the second language classroom can provide excellent opportunities for the development of second language communication skills.[1] Why are science activities appropriate in the second language classroom? The purpose of this article is to address this question in the context of the elementary school level, to present a four-step procedure that is structured to lead the learner carefully through stages of listening comprehension to speech production, and to suggest a variety of science experiences and resources. First, a *rationale* for hands-on science experiences in grade school second language classes is presented, followed by a *lesson plan* that includes the *four-step procedure* for the introduction of vocabulary and structures, brief descriptions of viable *options for science lessons*, and a listing of *resources*.

An Emphasis on Content

To teach content through a second language may be the most efficient approach to the teaching/learning of a second language for all children. The development of a second language curriculum that integrates content from subject areas taught in the elementary school, e.g., to teach food groups and the process of selecting a well-balanced diet, as well as the names of food items is encouraged (Myer and Palma, 6; Benya and Myer, 1; Woodruff, Benya, Myer, and Palma, 11; Woodruff, Benya, Berry, Evans, and Myer, 10). For an immersion orientation, Curtain (3) has also advocated an integrated approach, not only for the immersion setting but for FLES classes as well. A strength of the immersion setting, teaching content through the language, is central to the F.L.A.G. (Foreign Language Arts in the Grades) approach. Attention to content, in addition to language, quite naturally allows a teacher to consider the process of learning specific content.

A key to the development of language proficiency is the relationship of language use to the real world of the learner. Consider an ideal learning situation for a second language. The following characteristics might be included.:

1. Content of great interest to the learners
2. Multisensory involvement
3. Highly structured initial presentations
4. Vocabulary presented in thematic clusters
5. A process of learning that includes many repetitions: variations on a theme
6. Pupil-pupil interaction
7. An approach that encourages problem solving
8. A classroom environment simulating real-world situations where authentic communication is needed

A rich source of content to create such an optimum learning environment is one that is frequently overlooked in the grade school classroom: the realm of science. Not only is science everywhere (e.g., in music, health and nutrition, sports, metric measurement and so on) but the processes inherent in the scientific approach—e.g., hypothesizing, predicting, observing, describing, inferring, classifying, concluding,

exploring—encourage curiosity, creative thinking, problem-solving, persistence, and the communication of ideas relevant to the child's world. An examination of stated rationales for science programs reveals that many of the traits of an ideal setting to learn a second language are provided for in hands-on science programs. Hands-on activities have these effects and qualities:

1. Develop process skills
2. Reduce learner anxiety
3. Benefit children of different ages, abilities, learning styles, and achievement levels
4. Require learner participation
5. Stimulate curiosity and inquiry
6. Generate content-relevant speech
7. Develop a positive learner self-concept

Science and Language Development

Evidence in the science education literature relates the development of language skills, especially for disadvantaged learners, to hands-on science programs. "It is far more powerful and long lasting to build vocabulary in the context of direct experience than through the introduction of vocabulary lists" (Rowe, 8, p. 77). In a review of research that discusses the development of young children's communication skills during science activities, Wellman (9) summarizes eighteen studies that relate manipulative science experiences to success in beginning language and reading achievement (kindergarten to grade 6). Huff and Languis (4) found that for disadvantaged kindergarten children hands-on science activities provided in *Science—A Process Approach* (SAPA) were positively correlated with the development of oral communication skills. Wellman (9) cites Horn and Stemmler who studied the oral language development of culturally deprived Spanish-speaking children in grade 1. They concluded that the participation and concrete manipulation provided by the activities in the SAPA materials resulted in gains in the number of complete spoken sentences,

length of attention span, auditory discrimination, listening, and ability to follow directions.

Children in grades 4, 5, and 6 demonstrated increases in verbal fluency, ability to form concepts, logical thinking, and communication skills (Wellman, 9; Mechling and Oliver, 5). The research results indicate a positive relationship between activity-centered science programs and the development of oral language skills and reading readiness. To include science experiences among the hands-on activities in the second language classroom provides opportunities for developing learner process skills in a context that can be highly motivating.

Lesson Plan: Four Steps

The following lesson plan is an example of a physical science lesson that incorporates pitch perception. It lends itself to several subsequent lessons, including playing music on glasses of water. The Four Steps (Woodruff, Benya, Myer, and Palma, 11) used in this lesson provide a procedure for introducing most basic structures and vocabulary.[2] In this illustration, the procedure also teaches the content of the lesson.

Lesson Plan: Concerto in a Glass

Source of Content: *Je me petit-débrouille* (Maltais, F.)
Behavioral Objective: In French, the students will be able to predict the relationship between pitch and water level when given examples of glasses filled to different levels.
Prerequisite Knowledge: *plus* + adjectif
New Active Vocabulary: *grave, plus grave, la même aigu(e), plus aigu(e)*
Supplementary Vocabulary: *la hauteur, le niveau de l'eau*
Materials Needed: six glasses, one spoon, water, a sink or basin, newspapers, or paper towel to cover the table
Four Steps:

1. Presentation for identification
   Teacher illustrates the difference between expressions to describe low- and high-pitched, lower- and higher-pitched, the same.
   La hauteur du son est grave.

The pitch is low.
(Teacher taps a full glass of water.)
La hauteur du son est aigue.
The pitch is high. (an empty glass)
La hauteur du son est la même.
The pitch is the same. (another empty glass)
La hauteur du son est plus grave.
The pitch is lower. (a half-full glass)
La hauteur du son est plus aigue.
The pitch is higher. (a quarter-full glass)

2. **Practice in identification**
Répondez "oui" ou "non":
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est grave?
(a full glass)
"Oui."
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est aigue?
(an empty glass)
"Oui."
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est la même?
(another empty glass)
"Oui."
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est la même?
(a fuller glass)
"Non."
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est plus aigue?
(an emptier glass)
"Oui."
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est plus grave?
(a fuller glass)
"Non."

3. **Practice in imitation**
Répétez après moi.
Est-ce que la hauteur du son est grave?
(a full glass)
La hauteur du son est grave.
(Students repeat all expressions after the teacher as the pitch is illustrated.)

4. **Practice** in communication
   a. Questions answered by "yes"
      (Teacher taps a glass to elicit "yes" answer.)
      Est-ce que la hauteur du son est grave?
      (a full glass)
      Oui, la hauteur du son est grave.
      Est-ce que la hauteur du son est aigue?
      (an empty glass)
      La hauteur du son est aigue.
      ("Yes" answers are required for all expressions.)
   b. Choice questions
      (Teacher taps a glass and provides the answer in the choices modeled.)
      Est-ce que la hauteur du son est grave ou aigue?
      (a full glass)
      La hauteur du son est grave.
      (All expressions are presented.)
   c. Questions answered by "no"
      (Teacher contradicts what is illustrated, requiring "no" plus a correct affirmative answer.)
      Est-ce que la hauteur du son est grave?
      (an empty glass)
      Non, la hauteur du son est aigue.
      (All expressions are questioned.)
   d. Information questions
      Quelle est la hauteur du son?
      La hauteur est grave.
      (All expressions are questioned.)

Follow-up Lesson: Water Glass Concerto

Content: Tapping a set of glasses to produce a song

Objective: The student will be able to play a song on glasses filled to various levels that when struck with a pencil produce musical tones.

Procedure: Prepare the glasses filled to allow the playing of a musical sequence (the portion of the scale needed for the song chosen). Play the song through; then ask the children to try, using a "play-by-number"

guide. (Suggestion: "It's a Small World", i.e., *Notre monde est bien petit*). (Source: Elvina L. Palma, Kenwood French Immersion School, Columbus, Ohio)

Follow-up Lesson: A Salty Concerto

Content: Tapping a glass of water before and after salt has been added to it to determine pitch change
Objective: The student will be able to predict the outcome (how or if pitch will rise, fall, or stay the same when the glass is tapped) of adding salt to a glass of water.
Procedure: Select two glasses that produce the same tone when struck by a nonmetal instrument. Measure the same amount of water to fill each about halfway. Demonstrate the sound of the glass half-filled with water. Ask the children if they think the pitch will rise, fall, or stay the same if salt is added to the water. Write "yes," "no," and "the same" (*oui, non, ne change pas*) on the board. Count the number of children who predict the three different outcomes, tabulating numbers under each category. Add salt to one glass until there is a noticeable drop in pitch (one-half cup or more). Stir. Compare the pitches of the two glasses. Check the student predictions. (Source: *Je me petit-débrouille*, Maltais, F.)

Selected Science Activities

1. Dance of the Molecules
   Suggested fast music: "The Magic Fire Music" from *The Valkyries* by Wagner
   Suggested slow music: "Tales from the Vienna Woods" by Strauss
   Children pretend to be molecules and react according to the characteristics of molecules when affected by heat or cold. Prepare 5″ × 8″ index cards with H_2O written on them, tied with yarn to go around each child's neck. Show a picture of ice when the slow music is played. The children move very sluggishly to depict the contraction of the molecules. Show a picture of fire when the fast music is played. The children move quickly, demanding more space and depicting the expansion of molecules.

This is an introduction to the characteristics of molecular behavior. Language production: *j'ai froid* (I'm cold); *j'ai chaud* (I'm hot); *je suis fatigué(e)* (I'm tired); *j'ai envie de danser* (I feel like dancing); *je n'ai pas envie de danser* (I don't feel like dancing); *vite* (fast); *plus vite* (faster); *très vite* (very fast). (Source: Harvey Hallenberg, Berry Day School, Maryland)

2. Temperature Chart I (Unit Lesson)
This is an activity that will help children become aware of the temperature differences at various heights in their classroom. A six-foot 2 × 4 beam on a stand is set at a convenient place in the classroom. Six thermometers are attached equidistant from one another along the length of the beam, i.e., the lowest being placed nearest the floor on the beam, the highest at the top. The thermometers may be cradled in cardboard tubes found in paper towel rolls. The are more easily attached to the beam this way. Children will check the temperatures three times daily—morning, noon, and afternoon—and record findings on a chart. They should do this for a week. This is an excellent way of demonstrating the principle of rising hot air. Language production: *la température* (temperature): *les degrés* (degrees); *le matin* (morning); *midi* (noon); *l'après-midi* (afternoon); *le plus bas* (the lowest); *le plus haut* (the highest); *le plus chaud* (the hottest); *le plus froid* (the coldest); *le centre* (center); *le thermomètre* (thermometer); *le plancher* (floor); *le plafond* (ceiling); *près de* (close to); *loin de* (far from); *Quelle est la température?* (What is the temperature?); *à cause de* (because of); *l'air chaud* (hot air); *l'air froid* (cold air); *monte* (rises); *descend* (falls). (Source: Roger Pelland, Roslyn French Immersion School, Montreal, Quebec)

3. Blueprint Photography (Unit Lesson)
This experiment is used to illustrate the reaction between sunlight and blueprint paper and between blueprint paper and ammonia. Leaves and flowers may be collected as part of a lesson on activities of green plant life. Tape a 10″ × 12″ piece of plexiglass to a piece of heavy cardboard the same size, putting masking

tape along one side so as to form a book. Place a piece of diazotype blueprint paper (available from architect suppliers or blueprinting companies) between the plexiglass and cardboard. Position the plant cuttings on the paper to form an arrangement. Close the plexiglass and cardboard holder. Hold to sun for five to seven seconds or in front of a filmstrip projector light (this will take several minutes). The light will react with the diazo salts on the paper, and it becomes bleached out wherever the light hits. Remove plants. The shadow of the plant will remain on the paper. Place the paper in a closed container with a sponge soaked in ammonia. A wide and deep Tupperware container works well. Caution should be taken because of the ammonia fumes. The paper should remain in container until the shadowed areas have turned blue, black, or sepia, depending on the paper. The result is a "photograph" created by the student. Language production: *une feuille, des feuilles* (leaf, leaves); *une herbe mauvaise, des herbes mauvaises* (weed, weeds); *une plante, des plantes* (plant, plants); *une brindille, des brindilles* (twig, twigs); *la lumière du soleil* (sunlight); *la lumière du projecteur* (projector light); *réagit sur* (reacts with); *mets, mettez* (put, place, singular and plural command forms); *ouvres, ouvrez* (open, singular and plural command forms); *ferme, fermez* (close, singular and plural command forms); *à cause de* (because of); *une photographie* (a photograph); *en bleu, en brun, en noir* (in blue, brown, black); *l'ammoniac* (ammonia); *les vapeurs de l'ammoniac* (ammonia vapors). (Source: Marlin Languis, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio)

Conclusion

The rationale for the use of hands-on science activities in the second language classroom is convincing. For many second language teachers the realm of science is territory yet to be explored. It is not uncharted territory, however, because excellent materials and procedures have been developed by science educators, in accordance with the developmental stages of grade school children.

To capitalize on the strengths of science activities may require risk

taking on the part of many second language teachers. But the willingness to take risks is one of the strengths of those who have learned and teach a second language. Risk taking is familiar ground.

Resources

The following resources may be useful in the selection and creation of science activities for developing second language lessons:

Science Magazines for Children (French)

Gregoire, J. *Zip.* Beauceville, Quebec: Interglobe, 1987.

Maltais, F. *Je me petit-débrouille* Quebec: Loisirs Quebec, 1987.

Oriol, A. *Mikado,* Belgique: Editions Soumaillon, 1987.

Teachers' Favorites

Ranger Rick's NatureScope Series. Washington, DC: National Wildlife Federation, 1987.

Marcuccio. Phyllis. R. *Science and Children.* National Science Teachers Association. Harrisburg, PA: McFarland Company, 1987.

Teacher Ideas

Allen, Dorothea. *Elementary Science Activities for Every Month of the School Year.* New York: Parker Publishing, 1981.

Allison, Linda. *Blood and Guts: A Working Guide to Your Own Insides.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1976. (Grades 5 and 6)

Brown, Sam, ed. *Bubbles, Rainbows, and Worms: Science Experiments for Preschool Children.* Mt. Rainier, MD: Gryphon House, Inc., 1981.

Cramer, Jerome, ed. "Hands-on, Minds-on Science, Are You Ready to Teach It?" (Special Issue). *Instructor,* Spring 1987.

DeBruin, Jerry. *Creative Hands-on Science Experiences Using Free and Inexpensive Materials.* Carthage, IL: Good Apple, Inc., 1987.

DeVito, Alfred, and Gerald H. Krockover. *Creative Sciencing, Ideas and Activities for Teachers and Children.* Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1980.

Mebane, Robert C., and Thomas R. Rybolt. *Adventures with Atoms and Molecules: Chemistry Experiments for Young People.* Hillside, NJ: Enslow, 1985.

Textbooks

Mallinson, George G., Jacqueline B. Mallinson, William L. Smallwood, and Catherine Valentino. *Silver Burdett Science.* Morristown, NJ: Silver Burdett, 1987.

Voltmer, Rita K. *Earth Science.* Morristown, NJ: Silver Burdett, 1987.

Supplier Information

Marcuccio, Phyllis R., and Marcia Reecer, eds. *Science and Children* 24, 4 (1987). (Information on textbooks, computer software, and so on, for the science classroom.)

Notes

1. The authors wish to acknowledge Roger Cunningham and Marlin Languis, whose elementary school science classes at Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, provided instruction and guidance in exciting new curriculum areas in the foreign language classroom.
2. The procedure referred to as *Four Steps* was developed by Melba Woodruff (emeritus professor, Ohio State University) during her years of teaching in the university laboratory school. This same procedure can be used for the introduction of most grammar and vocabulary, for listening and reading. Only the last phase of the production step (Step 4d) varies, according to the nature of the statement. For noun forms, Step 4d, would be "What is it?" (*Qu'est-ce que c'est?*). For verbs, an example would be "What is he/she doing? (*Qu'est-ce qu'il/elle fait?*)

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3. Curtain, Helena Anderson. "Integrating Language and Content Instruction," *ERIC/CLL News Bulletin,* 9, 2 (1986): 1, 10.
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11. ———, Rosemarie Benya, Bettye J. Myer, and Elvina L. Palma. "Foreign Language Arts in the Grades (F.L.A.G.)." In progress.

8
Hispanic-American Songs and Poems for the Classroom

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As is the case with other Hispanic artistic manifestations in the United States, songs and poetry are not recent phenomena. The Southwest and other regions that contain sizable Hispanic populations in this country have maintained an Hispanic artistic tradition that goes back several centuries. It is a tradition inherited from the Spanish conquerors and early settlers, a tradition continuously enriched through the cultural influences of Mexico and Central and South America.

Traditional forms of Hispanic poetry still possessed great vitality in 1848 when the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hildalgo was signed.[1] Following the guidelines of this treaty, Mexico relinquished to the United States the states of New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, California, and Colorado. A study of the poetry published in nineteenth-century Spanish newspapers of these regions reveals samples of *alabados*, *posadas*, *pastorelas*, *inditas*, *trovas*, *corridos*, *décimas*, and other forms of Spanish poetry.[2] Evidence exists that in the Southwest the Hispanic people celebrated poetic tournaments in which the troubadours of several towns competed by singing or reciting original, spontaneous verses. The winners were singled out as the best poets, composers, or singers of the region.[3]

The state of New Mexico is dotted with villages whose Hispanic inhabitants have stubbornly maintained their poetic heritage through folk songs on varied themes. These songs, as well as some of the Hispanic poetry currently being produced in the United States, represent a valuable source of materials for the Spanish classroom regardless of the grade

level. Using these materials, the teacher not only will contribute to the linguistic development of the students, but will also promote the knowledge and appreciation of the Hispanic community of the United States. According to folklorist John Donald Robb, folk music "bears the characteristic imprint not of any single individual but rather of the thoughts and emotions of a people united by such ties as language, religion, nationality, and residence" (Robb, 5, pp. 3–4). One could obviously make the same statement in reference to all artistic manifestations that emerge from a specific ethnic group.

Following are a few samples of Hispanic folk songs from New Mexico, as well as some contemporary poetry by Hispanics from Texas and Florida.

Many of the songs from New Mexico constitute "romances" whose roots can be found in Spain and in Latin America. Such is the case of "El caballerito," a song which, as Robb states, is based on two "romances," one of which is associated with the demise of the wife of Alfonso XII and the other entitled "La esposa difunta" (Robb, 5, p. 82). Following are the lyrics of this song. The score as recorded from the oral tradition by Robb may be found on pages 81–82 of *Hispanic Folk Music of New Mexico and the Southwest* (Robb, 5).

El caballerito

1

Se acabó la flor de marzo
reventó la flor de abril
se acabó la que reinaba
en la ciudad de Madrid.

2

—¿Dónde vas caballerito?
¿Dónde vas andando así?
—Voy en busca de mi esposa;
cuatro días no la vi.

3

En una playa arenosa
una blanca sombra vi
que entre más me retiraba
más se acercaba de [sic] mí.

4

Pues tu esposa es muerta ya
es verdad que yo la vi,
cuatro duques la han paseado
por la ciudad de Madrid.

5

Cásate caballerito.
Cásate, no estés así.
El [sic] primer niño que tengas,
ponle el nombre como a mí.

This song can be easily dramatized in the form of a "ronda," a singing activity in which the children hold hands forming a circle that moves counterclockwise or clockwise. Several students can participate taking turns assuming the role of the narrator and of the "caballerito." The song also offers the opportunity to give some cultural insights on the city of Madrid and to relate to the students how songs like this one arrived in New Mexico via the first Spanish settlers of that region. The linguistic material of the text can be used when working with groups of adolescents; elementary school students will enjoy the memorization and the singing of a few verses.

Another New Mexican song of well-known Spanish origin is entitled "Don gato." The United States version is much shorter than the original, "El señor don Gato," which Latin American children have sung in school for several generations. This shortness offers an advantage, for young English-speaking students can more easily memorize it. In addition, the song can be used to begin a conversation about pets or to initiate a study of the role of the extended family in Spanish societies. Here is the short version presented by Robb (Robb, 5, pp. 83–84). The score appears on pages 83–84 of *Hispanic Folk Music of New Mexico and the Southwest* (Robb, 5).

Don gato

1
Estando el señor don gato
sentadito en un tejado

Refrán
Aleyalapún, aleyalapún
¡Sobrina de un gato pardo!

2
Ha recibido una carta
que si quiere ser casado
con una gata montesa,
sobrina de un gato pardo.

In New Mexico one finds songs called simply *canciones* (songs), which are different from those that come from "romances," for they are not narrative in nature but introspective. Below is an example of a *canción* entitled "Peña" and cited by Robb (Robb, 5, pp. 208–209). With fifth- and sixth-graders, "Peña" could be used to illustrate the use of the

verb *estar* with the present participle to form the present progressive. It is also an appropriate song for junior high school students.

Peña

1
Peña del cerro alto
peña la consentida,
peña la vida mía,
morena hermosa,
no me vayas a olvidar.

2
Si estoy despierto,
si estoy morando,
si estoy durmiendo
si estoy soñando.
Siempre te estoy amando,
morena hermosa,
no me vayas a olvidar.

Another type of folk song in New Mexico is one called *indita.* Like the "romance" and the Mexico *corrido,* it is narrative in nature but it differs from these forms in several aspects. The *indita* often has a refrain and, as its name indicates, an Indian motif usually appears in its lyrics. "El comanchito," an *indita* recorded by Robb (5, p. 419), is an appropriate song for elementary school students in which the refrain imitates an Indian ceremonial chant. Following are the lyrics:

El comanchito

1
Ahí vienen los indios
por el chaparral.
Ay, nanita, ay, nanita
me quieren matar.

Refrán
¡Jeya, jeya, jeya,
jeya, jeya, jeya,
jeya, jeya, jeyaaaaah!

2
Baila el comanchito,
toca el tambor;
baila por buñuelos,
Baila por amor.[4]

When presenting "El comanchito," the teacher can mention the conflicts but stress the cooperation that existed between the Indians and the Spanish settlers of the American Southwest. It is of utmost importance to point out in the Spanish classroom that in many ways the European culture and the indigenous cultures of the Southwest blended,

forming a mixture that can be observed when traveling through the region today. This type of information makes the language more interesting and relevant to the student.

In addition to the songs listed above, which were rescued from the oral tradition by Robb, there are other sources of materials such as those found in the book *Canciones y juegos de Nuevo México/Songs and Games from New Mexico* edited by Dolores González (1). Although this book was prepared to encourage bilingual children "to express themselves in their native language as well as to enrich their cultural heritage" (Gonzáles, 1, p. 13), it can prove very useful for the Spanish classroom teacher.

In the realm of poetry, teachers can supplement their classroom activities by acquainting the students with some of the curren· Hispanic poets from the United States. Nephtalí De León, a Texas poet, is a good example. His *Chicano Poet* contains an ingenious, humorous poem, "Jaimito el piojo" (León, 2, p. 82), which could be used successfully in the elementary Spanish classroom, for it contains both linguistic and cultural values appropriate for young students. Moreover, this poem is skillfully illustrated by the poet himself. It reads as follows:

Era un piojito añejo
que se llamaba Juanito,
era un niño negrito y nejo
con el apodo "Jaimito."

"Jaimito" tenía patitas—
ocho grandes y dos chiquitas
dos ojillos de piojillos,
y sejillas [sic] de sapillo.

¡Era elegante y cortéz [sic]
valiente, fuerte, y ligero;
no tomaba ni jerez—
era todo un caballero!

¡Era un trovador errante
con su voz de Pedro Infante—
sus ojos siempre vivillos
en busca de ochenta pillos!

¡La damas lo veneraban,
Los piojos todos lo odiaban,

pues se decía que sus ojos
seducían hasta los gorgojos!

It is a simple, narrative poem of five stanzas whose lines exhibit perfect Spanish consonance and an abundance of diminutives and concrete terminology. The image of Pedro Infante which appears in the fourth stanza indicates that the poem is intended for Mexican-American children. Pedro Infante, an elegant, almost legendary Mexican singer, is part of the Mexican-American popular culture and a figure familiar even to young children. However, this poem also bears valuable cultural content for nonnatives and reveals, in a simple manner, some of the subtleties of the Spanish language that can go undetected by even the best students. A case in point is the connotation of the term *piojo*, which is translated as "louse" in English. The cultural image that *piojo* conveys to the Spanish mind is of a positive nature; it is the concept of "smallness" that emerges. This is why it is very possible to hear a Spanish mother calling her child affectionately "mi piojito," which would hardly be conceivable in English.

It is interesting to note that "Jaimito el piojo" presents some orthographic peculiarities; one encounters *sejillas* instead of the conventional *cejillas* and *cortéz* instead of *cortés*. This type of unconventional spelling is rather common in Mexican-American literature, and it is not difficult to discover the reasons behind this phenomenon. The great majority of Hispanics in the United States learn Spanish at home orally. Since the language they use in school is English, they seldom have the opportunity to learn their mother tongue with the discipline of speakers from Spanish-speaking countries. However, this aspect should not worry teachers, for orthographic peculiarities are easy to correct before presenting Hispanic works to students. The benefits of exposing students of Spanish to Hispanic literature from the United States outweigh many inconveniences that teachers may find with spelling. This problem is nonexistent when working with elementary school students, for oral presentations accompanied by the appropriate visuals usually turn out to be very productive at this level.

Sábine R. Ulibarrí, a New Mexican writer best known for his charming, nostalgic short stories depicting his homeland, has also written some

poetry that could be valuable for upper elementary grades and for adolescents. Below are some examples taken from his book of poems *Al cielo se sube a pie* (Ulibarrí, 7). The following poem is titled "Mima" (Ulibarrí, 7, p. 15).

VI

Mima

En tus abriles pisabas luceros;
a ti subían todas las rosas.
En tus otoños sólo pisas flores,
mas los astros bajan a tus ojos.

This poem is so short that it is quite easy to memorize. It is in itself a lucid illustration of the use of the imperfect tense in Spanish and would be appropriate for sixth-graders or for students of junior high school. Other poems by Ulibarrí (7, pp. 44, 46, 48) that can be incorporated in the Spanish learning process include the following:

XXXI

Pies de pincel
escriben historias de amor
en el cuaderno usado
de mi corazón.

XXXIII

Pie chiquito, pie exquisito
fina escultura,
bello y sólido pedestal
de dulce estructura.

XLIV

"Silencio sin ruido"
Por senda y esfera extranjera
vaga mi ansia en el espacio,
viendo, oyendo, oliendo quimeras,
la cara del alma buscando.

Poems XXXI and XXXIII, which are unusual because the central motif represents a person's feet, contain almost exclusively concrete lexical items. They can be presented in the classroom accompanied by illustrations in relation with the study of body parts. In addition, they can be easily memorized and used in choral or in individual recitations. The third poem, "Silencio sin ruido," is more appropriate for adolescents because of the abstract concepts it involves, an individual's search for a higher sphere of thought, a flight into space to find one's dreams and the

true meaning of the soul. This poem can generate an interesting discussion on the theme of daydreaming, and at the linguistic level it is an excellent example of the use of the gerund in Spanish.

Another source of children's poetry is found among the Cuban Americans. Hilda Perera, a Cuban-American writer in Florida, is currently producing children's books in Spanish. Her main purpose is to promote literacy in Spanish for Cuban-American children. These children, like Mexican-American young people, learn Spanish primarily for oral communication at home. However, with the assistance of Perera's books, children are now offered the opportunity to learn to read and write the language of their parents. The poems included in these readers contain extremely simple syllabic combinations and are marked by repetitive concrete imagery. Following are three examples taken from Perera's *La pata pita* (Perera, 4, pp. 15, 19, 29):

La mula mía
es la mula Lola.
La mula Lola
ama la loma.
¡A la loma,
a la loma,
mula Lola!

El sapo Soto
el sapo solo,
solo, solito.
Pasa la mata, solo.
Pasa la loma, solo.
¡Solo, solo, solo, solo!

Mula Lola,
la mala nena,
la nena mala,
toma al patito
y no lo ama.
¡Es una pena!

Although these poems are designed to teach reading to Spanish-speaking children, teachers of kindergarten students will find them quite useful also. Accompanied by visuals and appropriate gestures, they could be a most effective way to initiate children to the study of Spanish.

The selections offered in this paper represent only a fraction of the Hispanic songs and poems existing in the United States which Spanish teachers can use in their classrooms. Some of these compositions are quite appropriate for young children and for students of junior high school. The use of Hispanic literature from the United States in the classroom has a dual purpose: to make the language learning endeavors of the

students more pleasant and more meaningful and to promote the appreciation and understanding of the sociohistorical reality of the Hispanic-American community. The cultural and human benefits that the students receive through this type of literature are difficult to find in the usual Spanish textbooks.[5]

Notes

1. Felipe de Ortego y Gasca, "An Introduction to Chicano Poetry," in Joseph Sommers and Tomás Ybarra-Frausto, eds., *Modern Chicano Writers* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979), p. 113.
2. Tino Villanueva, *Chicanos: Antologia histórica y literaria* (México: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1980), p. 53.
3. Salvador Rodriguez del Pino, "La poesia chicana: una nueva trayectoria," in Francisco Jiménez, ed., *Identification and Analysis of Chicano Literature* (New York: Bilingual Press, 1979), p. 69.
4. The last word in the second stanza is *licor* in the original composition. I have taken the liberty of changing it to *amor*, which does not destroy the rhyme and makes the song more suitable for children.
5. Additional information about procuring Hispanic songs and poems created in the United States may be requested from Professor Cida S. Chase, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-0602.

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9
Strategies for the Teaching of Vocabulary Based on Oral Frequency Counts

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The recent attention to the importance of oral proficiency and consequent methodologies for its achievement has helped us to become more aware of the role of vocabulary in language acquisition. Higgs and Clifford state in their Hypothesized Relative Contribution Model: "Vocabulary is obviously more essential than is grammar for successful performance at Level I tasks" (Higgs and Clifford, 6, pp. 68–69). This is significant since the authors clearly consider these two skills to be the more important skills taught, and relegate pronunciation and culture to minimal roles in performance. If we agree with Higgs and Clifford that vocabulary is of primary importance in early language learning, then we must deal with the question of what vocabulary to teach and which strategies are effective in teaching selected items.

The History of Word Frequency Studies in Spanish

Modern research on Spanish vocabulary received its first impetus in the 1920s. There was a good deal of concern over what should be included in vocabulary lists since the only ones available were those compiled by textbook authors. Hayward Keniston, one of the leading language specialists of the era, was severely critical of existing lists,

commenting that when an authoritative list did become available, there would "be less excuse for the perverted vocabularies which now mar so many of our Spanish grammars, composition-books, and readers" (Keniston, 8, p. 88).

In 1927 Milton A. Buchanan published his Spanish word count, *A Graded Spanish Word Book.* The purpose of his work was to "provide material for graded vocabulary tests" and was carried out under the auspices of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages (Buchanan, 1, p. 4). He analyzed some 1,200,000 words from among seven categories (plays, novels, verse, folklore, miscellaneous prose, technical literature and periodicals). He included texts from both Latin America and Spain and went back as far as the seventeenth century to include works such as the *Quijote* and the Bible. Buchanan's work became the principal work in the field despite criticism that it represented literary language rather than the common idiom. It remained unchallenged until 1952, when Ismael Rodríguez Bou created his *Recuento de vocabulario español* (5). His desire was to create a work that could be used in the teaching of Spanish and the creation of textbooks. He included some 7,000,000 words from varying sources. He incorporated the Buchanan graded word book, oral vocabulary, school compositions, radio programs, religious literature, textbooks, and more. His primary sources were principally Puerto Rican and collected during the decade from 1942 to 1952.

One year later, in 1953, Víctor García Hoz published *Vocabulario usual, vocabulario común y vocabulario fundamental* (4), a study of the language of the common Spaniard, totaling approximately 400,000 words. His sources included private letters, periodicals, official documents, and the best-selling books of the previous decade.

The last major frequency count published for Spanish appeared in 1964, viz., the *Frequency Dictionary of Spanish Words* (7) of Alphonse Juilland and Eugenio Chang-Rodríguez. Their data were compiled in a much more scientific manner and based on selected Spanish literature published between 1920 and 1940. The areas used were dramatic, fictional, essayistic, technical and journalistic. The total number of words studied was 500,000.

A review of these four frequency lists reveals the widely varying orientations of the authors. There is vocabulary dating to the seventeenth

century in two of the works. The dialectal variety of the last three works is very narrow, representing only one country (either Spain or Puerto Rico). A shared limitation of all four lists is that the near totality of all four lists reflects *written* language. Further, the most recent eras of language studied date back to the early 1960s and now represent the language of parents or grandparents.

Some of the results of this type of research are universal, however. In every case, including our own, the most frequent words are largely the "function" words; i.e., prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and so on, have the largest numbers of occurrences. Buchanan (1, p. 10) discarded these (approximately 189 words) from his study, as did Rodríguez Bou (approximately 105). Rodríguez Bou (9, p. 654) noted that these words comprised 50 percent of the first million words studied.

The only list currently being published is that of Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez (7). In spite of the intent of the authors and in spite of its merit, their frequency dictionary is a difficult source for teachers and text writers to use. Along with the problems of source and era, the format is a major difficulty. All of the inflected forms are grouped under one heading; hence, all forms of *ser* are listed under *ser*. The data for individual forms is presented in an *alphabetized* section giving no indication of the relationship of individual entries to the relative frequency of all the items in the work. The entry *yo*, for example, includes *yo, me, mí, -migo, nosotros, nosotras, nos*, and so on, thus rendering a rather awkward perspective on *yo*. The same is true for *ser*. All of the morphological variants, such as *ser, fuimos, sido, somos, es*, are found under *ser*. The form *es* provides 47.7% of the occurrences of *ser*. This figure would place it *sixteenth* on their frequency list, yet *es* does not appear there at all.

Of all these sources, the only one to include spoken materials was Rodríguez Bou (9). Unfortunately, his materials are buried inconveniently in the body of the text. As a result, no spoken materials are readily available to the teacher and text writer of Spanish.

In addition to the serious questions on written sources, outdated time period, and complex format, the research leads to the question of the utility of high frequency forms. In a recent article dealing with Asher's Total Physical Response strategy as a technique for teaching all

skills in Spanish, Glisan proposes that "the author's personal experience has shown that more effective learning results when students know *well* a small core of the most important, high frequency structures" (Glisan, 5, p. 424).

Glisan's position is borne out by the research. In addition to the observation made by Rodríguez Bou (9, p. 654) that his 109 function words comprise some 50 percent of the first million words he studied, Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez indicate that the most common 500 words comprise 79.1 percent of the 500,000 words they studied (Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez, 7, p. xliii).

The Current Study on Oral Frequency

In the absence of research that could provide contemporary data, a broader dialectal base, *spoken* sources, and a "user friendly" format, we initiated a computer-based analysis of spoken Spanish from different dialect regions of the Hispanic world. This was facilitated by the existence of materials created by the Programa Interamericano de Lingüística y Enseñanza de Idiomas (PILEI) (now carried out by the Asociación de Lingüística y Filología de América Latina [ALFAL]) on Spanish spoken in the major cities of the Spanish-speaking world. The data for this research come from materials carried out, and published by, the Centro de Lingüística Hispánica de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (participants in the PILEI project) and from materials concerning Costa Rica that were published by Miguel Salguero in his *Así vivimos los ticos* (10). The Costa Rican materials were added because the PILEI group did not include a city from Central America in its project.

The materials from Mexico are found in *El habla popular de la ciudad de México* (3). These come from interviews conducted by the members of the Centro de Lingüística Hispánica of the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. They represent the speech of the educated (*culto*) Mexican. The format included interviews with one person, interviews with two persons, secret interviews, and conference talks. Our samples were collected at random from each section of the book. The second page of an interview was selected and then every seventh

page thereafter until a total of 10,000 words was accumulated. The samples included the speech of nine males and four females. It was not possible to control the sex factor due to the methods of interviewing and sampling.

The Costa Rican materials are also in the form of interviews. The samples were taken with regard to level of education as well. A total of five informants (four males and one female) was included. The number of females was again restricted by the makeup of the book, which had only three interviews with females. Nevertheless, a sample of female speech was available. The sample size was somewhat larger, viz., 15,000 words.

The printed pages were entered into an IBM 370 computer by means of a Kurzweil optical scanner. The data were then extensively edited for correctness. A secondary editing was then conducted to provide tagging for homophones and grammatical categories. A concordance program was written along with an alphabetical and numerical sort routine. The data were then concordanced and sorted. The third (and longest) editing task grouped all of the morphological variants of a basic form, such as all of the variants of *ser.*

The results of this research are similar to those of earlier studies. They show the same high frequency function words: conjunctions, prepositions, articles, numbers, and pronouns. These forms vastly outnumber the other word forms in frequency of occurrence—despite their limited number. They include forms unique to a dialect, such as the Mexican *pues* in all its varieties. A review of the Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez (7) word frequency count shows a total of 19 conjunctions, 15 prepositions, 6 articles, 35 numbers, and 52 pronouns (a total of 127 forms), out of 5024 words. The fact that half of Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez's 500,000 occurrences fall among the 36 most frequent forms (this includes 8 high frequency verbs, 2 adverbs, and 3 adjectives) makes the importance of these function words even greater.

The other word forms (adverbs, verbs, nouns, and adjectives) have lower rates of occurrence, but with the exception of the adverbs, have much higher numbers of forms. Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez includes 185 adverbs, 957 verbs, 2549 nouns (just over half of the total), and 1199 adjectives. The same general frequency pattern holds for these materials.

One area of noteworthy difference is in the higher frequency of occurrence of interjections in the oral materials. Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez list no interjections in the first 500 words while in the Mexican oral materials word number 52 was the interjection *ah*, number 83 was *eh*, number 139 was *ay*, and number 191 was *m*.

One of the important results was the semantic divergence among the various sources. The function words were generally the same in all sources. The nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs were generally diverse. This was especially the case with the nouns.

A review of the first 250 words from each source provides a total of 106 nouns. The Mexican corpus includes 20 nouns (10 of the 20 were unique to the Mexican corpus). The Costa Rican corpus had 49 nouns (29 of the 49 were unique). Juilland had 66 nouns (44 of the 66 were unique). There were only *six* nouns shared among all three sources. These nouns were: *vez, cosa, año, casa, campo,* and *trabajo*. In addition, among the 106 nouns there were only 23 duplications (including the six shared nouns).

The relationship among the adverbs was closer. The total number of adverbs used in the Spanish language is very limited (Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez list 185). Juilland and Chang-Rodríguez give 38 adverbs (with 17 unique words) in their first 250 words. The Mexican corpus includes 20 (with *ahí* and *abajo* being unique to it). The Costa Rican corpus has only 13 (*cómo, sólo,* and *actualmente* being unique). There are *10* shared adverbs among the three sources and 18 duplications (including the 10 shared adverbs). The shared adverbs were: *no, más, sí, ya, muy, así, aquí, también, bien,* and *dónde.*

The adjectives show a different correlation. There is a higher frequency nucleus of *8* shared adjectives and then a considerable degree of divergence. The nucleus includes the following: *este, bueno, ese, mucho, otro, todo, cuanto,* and *grande.* The total number among the first 250 words was 41 adjectives. The Mexican corpus had 20 (including the unique words *chico, feo,* and the expletive *pinche*). The Costa Rican corpus had 24 (with 6 unique forms). Juilland had 31 (with 13 unique forms). The total number of shared adjectives was 13. The number of duplications was 19 including the shared adjectives.

Verb usage in spoken Spanish in Costa Rica and Mexico demonstrates that there is a relatively small number of high frequency verbs

that account for a large percentage of total usage. The first 10 of more than 200 verbs account for more than one half (50.3 percent) of the total count. These verbs, their frequencies, and average percentage of use are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
High Frequency Verb Forms (Oral)

Freq.	*Verb*	*Inf.*	*Pres. Ind.*	*Pret.*	*Imp.*	*Pres. Subj.*	*Past Subj.*	*Past Part.*	*Cond.*
1343	Ser	6	69	8	7	2	6	1	1
761	Haber	2	81	1	9	3	3	1	1
563	Tener	8	65	5	10	3	1	4	1
452	Decir	12	57	17	4	4	1	2	2
424	Ir	15	62	4	9	4	0	4	2
419	Estar	4	66	12	12	2	0	4	0
286	Hacer	25	52	10	2	3	3	5	0
243	Ver	39	45	3	3	5	0	5	0
223	Poder	9	57	4	4	5	2	7	11
199	Dar	18	50	15	6	6	3	1	2
Average use (%)		14	60	7	7	4	2	4	2

The research also indicates that only a few forms of these selected high frequency verbs account for the vast majority of usage. We have learned, for example, that only four verb forms, i.e., infinitive, present indicative, preterit, and imperfect account for 88 percent of the verbs given in the table. This is also generally true for the entire set of verbs analyzed. The frequency of present indicative forms is overwhelming, indicating that 60 percent of all forms used are in the present tense. Another meaningful finding is in the number of infinitives that are used. The 14 percent frequency of infinitives is as high as the preterit and imperfect tenses combined. The relative importance of the infinite is largely ignored among text writers and grammarians. On the other hand, the future and imperatives were so low in frequency that they were not significant in the overall results. By the same token, the past subjunctive, the conditional, and the progressives were barely used. The perfect tenses and the present subjunctive were used slightly more, but of all these forms none reached 10 percent.

Furthermore, some individual conjugated forms dominate the frequency of these verbs. For example, the form *es* made up 246 of 564 total occurrences of the verb *ser* in the Mexican materials, a total of 43.6

percent. The form *está* made up 105 of 272 total occurrences of the verb *estar*, a total of 38.6 percent. The form *hay* made up 62 of 190 total occurrences of the verb *haber*, a total of 32.6 percent. These numbers, by themselves would place these three individual forms among the top 25 verbs in frequency.

Beyond the ten most frequent verbs the divergence becomes much more apparent. In the first 250 words for all sources there appear 70 different verbs. Fifteen of these verbs are shared among all sources; 30 of the verbs are duplicated (including the shared verbs). Forty of the 70 verbs appear only in one source.

What the above analysis for verbs would seem to indicate is that students must have extensive practice with selected verbs and particularly in the four forms more frequently used, as well as in certain high-frequency conjugated forms, such as *es*, *está* and *hay*. Thus, if students concentrate their efforts on high proficiency with such selected forms, their ability to communicate in the target language, as well as their consequent motivation, should be significantly enhanced. The results also illustrate the significance of the need to identify such high frequency words as a tool in designing curriculum.

Other verbs tend to "specialize" in the forms they more commonly use, such as *fijar*, *mirar*, and *echar* were most frequently used in the imperative (*fijate*, *mira*, and *échale*).

Conclusions

With the attention given to vocabulary in current foreign language pedagogy, a review of available materials shows a lack of vocabulary materials that are contemporary, of a broad dialectal base, based on *spoken* language, and readily usable. The results of our analysis of such materials lead to the following conclusions:

1. There is considerable semantic divergence in personal vocabulary choice. This is particularly the case with nouns.
2. Function words comprise the vast majority of high frequency vocabulary.
3. A nucleus of common adverbs provides a basis for general instruction.

4. A nucleus of eight common adjectives also provides a basis for general instruction.
5. The most frequent ten verbs in both oral and written materials account for more than one half of total usage.
6. The infinitive, present indicative, preterit, and imperfect account for over 80 percent of forms used.
7. The present tense accounts for over 50 percent of forms used.
8. The infinitive is the second most used verb form.
9. Some individual conjugated forms, such as *es, está* and *hay* comprise large portions of the overall frequency.
10. Some forms, such as the future and the imperatives, are so little used that they occur less than one half of 1 percent.
11. Some verbs tend to "specialize" in a limited number of forms, such as *fijar* in *fijate,* and so on.

Recommendations

The following recommendations for instruction in Spanish are supported by our study on oral frequency of vocabulary.

1. That oral vocabulary be emphasized or treated separately in instruction
2. That the high frequency function words be emphasized
3. That semantic divergence be accounted for, particularly with regard to nouns
4. That a nucleus of common adverbs be taught. These include the adverbs *no, más, sí, ya, muy, así, aquí, también, bien,* and *dónde.*
5. That a nucleus of common adjectives be taught. These include the adjectives *este, bueno, ese, mucho, otro, todo, cuanto,* and *grande.*
6. That a small core of the most frequent ten verbs be taught thoroughly. These are *ser, haber, tener, decir, ir, estar, hacer, ver, poder,* and *dar.*
7. That emphasis be placed primarily on the present indicative tense in initial instruction
8. That the present indicative be followed by instruction in the uses of the infinitive

9. That the imperfect and preterit tenses be the only other tenses taught initially
10. That high-frequency conjugated forms, such as *es*, *está*, and *hay* be given emphasis in early instruction
11. That forms such as the future, the imperative, the subjunctives, the conditional, the progressives, and the perfects be taught only in fixed phrases initially
12. That more frequent oral forms be included in materials
13. That specialized verbs be emphasized only in their frequent forms

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10 Proficiency Orientation, Vocabulary, and Selected First-Year College German Textbooks

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Introduction

For the past few years, intense discussion and debate in many publications have centered on the ACTFL proficiency guidelines (*ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines*, 1; Bachmann and Savignon, 3; Byrnes, 5; Kramsch, 13; Schulz, 15; and the special issue of the *ADFL Bulletin*, 2). Attention has been drawn not only to the issue of testing, but to the impact the guidelines have on curriculum and instruction. Magnan (14) provides a good summary of the literature pertaining to the implications of proficiency for teaching and gives an overview of various initiatives aimed at translating the guidelines into course objectives. The discussion surrounding the guidelines demonstrates that proficiency-oriented instruction is a key phrase in current foreign language teaching and will continue to be so for some time to some.

But if the guidelines are to be considered an aid in the development of curricula and course content, then the question immediately arises whether current textbooks are compatible with such an orientation in teaching. This question applies not only to textbooks for intermediate

and advanced level instruction, but to textbooks for first-year instruction as well, for it is at this level that the basis for the development of proficiency is laid. This article therefore examines four recent college textbooks for first-year instruction in German on the basis of the question: "To what extent do these books prepare foreign language students in their first step toward the requirements for the intermediate level as cited in the ACTFL guidelines?" The first-year textbooks under examination are: *Deutsch natürlich* (6), *Deutsche Sprache und Landeskunde* (8), *Sprechen wir Deutsch* (7), and *Deutsch: Schritt für Schritt* (11).

The article limits its analysis to the lexical content of the textbooks with respect to some of the topic areas mentioned in the ACTFL guidelines. Even though preparation to fulfill the requirements of the oral proficiency interview stretches well beyond the area of lexis, we wish nevertheless to focus on vocabulary because in recent years the teaching of vocabulary has not found the recognition it deserves in instruction. Vocabulary does not seem to have been shorted quantitatively. I have observed that teachers spend a great deal of time and energy explaining new words, and students set up long vocabulary lists with words they barely have an opportunity to use in practice. The problem is not, I believe, as Gairns and Redman (10) stress, that too little vocabulary is taught. Rather, the vocabulary taught has not been chosen according to the criterion of usefulness. It is a random result of the classroom material. There seems to be the widespread assumption that all words introduced in class are automatically those which are necessary and useful for the learners.

Background for the Analysis of Lexical Content

The topic areas mentioned in the ACTFL generic descriptions for speaking for intermediate-mid and intermediate-low ratings relate to everyday, basic communication. The rating for intermediate-low stipulates that the learner "can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases." For the next higher level, intermediate-mid, the following topics are mentioned: "can talk simply about self and family members . . . and participate in

simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs; e.g., personal history and leisure time activities" (1).

The four German textbooks also name communication in everyday situations as a course objective, but the archaisms, nonwords, or neologisms found in the books, as well as the many words unrelated to real use or communicative need, necessitate a more systematic analysis of the lexical content. In order to perform such an analysis by computer, only those entries listed in the glossary of the respective textbooks were recorded, and semantic polyvalences were not taken into account (for example, the entry *Karte* has the possible meanings "ticket," "menu," "postcard" or "map"). Since with polyvalent entries one textbook might provide a different meaning or meanings than another book, an exact accounting of the meaning(s) of polyvalent entries would have made the analysis much more difficult, and—considering the task at hand—would have complicated it unnecessarily.

The first striking difference among the textbooks being considered is the varying amount of vocabulary presented in the glossaries. *Deutsch natürlich* (DN), with 4,144 entries, has the most extensive list, and *Deutsch: Schritt für Schritt* (DSS) contains the shortest, with 2,029 entries. *Deutsche Sprache und Landeskunde* (DSL), with 2,664 entries, and *Sprechen wir Deutsch* (SWD), with 3,219 entries, fall in the middle.

To determine the extent to which the four textbooks overlap in lexical content, it is necessary to tally for each of them how many items appear in that list alone and in no other: DN has 1,567 entries (out of 4,144) not found in the other lists: DSS has 393 (out of 2,029); DSL has 605 (out of 2,664); and SWD has 1,013 (out of 3,219). It seems, therefore, that the textbooks exhibit noteworthy differences in their lexical content.

In order to investigate to what extent each textbook fulfills its claim to focus on communication, we require a criterion for comparison, i.e., a vocabulary list that contains the lexical items necessary for communication in everyday situations and that is unrelated to the textbooks being studied. There are a number of vocabulary lists for German that are based on frequency counts, but these are not specifically oriented toward communication in everyday situations and cannot be used for the comparison of textbooks envisioned here. Two criterion-referenced

lists, however, from European sources may be used as a more appropriate basis for comparison: *Kontaktschwelle Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (4) and *Das Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (9). The lists are part of curricula developed by the Council of Europe and the German Adult Education Association, respectively. These vocabulary lists are independent of frequency studies and attempt to include the vocabulary necessary for everyday communication. The two institutions employed similar methods to construct their curricula. First they defined the communicative needs of the target group. Then they determined which speech acts the learners should be able to perform and which topics they should be able to handle orally. The lexical items necessary for communication within those speech acts and topics formed the basis of the lists. In the case of *Kontaktschwelle* a distinction was made as to which vocabulary was to be mastered productively and which only receptively. The choice of lexical items in both curricula is, of course, to a certain degree subjective, since it does not rest on frequency counts, but instead was reached by a consensus of experts. However, the consensus of the group helps to make objective the subjective decision of each individual. In addition, the definition of the learning objectives in both curricula explicitly refers to communication in everyday situations and therefore matches the topics stated in the ACTFL guidelines and agrees with the goals of the textbooks.

Analysis of the Vocabulary in the Textbooks

The analysis of the vocabulary of the four textbooks will be limited to those lexical items that relate to some of the topics mentioned in the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines*. The following topics were chosen: personal data (information about self/others, daily routine, family, and residence); education (school and university); and leisure time (activities, hobbies, sports). Then the lexical items relevant to these topics were extracted from the vocabulary lists of *Kontaktschwelle* and *Zertifikat*, and this list was compared with the vocabulary lists of the textbooks. In this comparison, adjectives derived from nouns, as well as verbs in their reflexive and nonreflexive forms, were counted as separate entries, e.g.,

Verwandte (relative) and *verwandt* (related); *vorbereiten* (to prepare) and *sich vorbereiten* (to get ready/to prepare oneself).

The following entries (arranged according to topic) appear in the two basic vocabulary lists and in the lists of all four textbooks:

1. **Personal data. Talking about self/others and daily routine.** Supper, similar(ly), alone/only, old, to begin, to work, to get up, to look, car, bus, fat/thick, own, to drive, bicycle, woman, friend, breakfast, birthday, face, big/large, hair, housewife, to be called, young people, young, boy, small/little, to live, girl, man, lunch, to like, in the morning(s), tired, neighbor, name, nice, person, to sleep, beautiful, streetcar, week, weekend, typical, subway, married, future.[1]

   Talking about family and residence (house/room). Bathroom, balcony, bed, picture, brother, village, parents, family, window, garden, to like, comfortable, big/large, grandparents, house, child, small/little, country, landscape/scenery, to rent, modern, mother, vicinity, uncle, practical, bedroom, beautiful/nice, cupboard/closet, desk, sister, son, city, street, aunt, table, daughter, father, far, to live, apartment, living room, center/downtown, room.[2]
2. **Education. Talking about school and university.** To begin, to work, article, assignment, to describe, to go to, to discuss, to explain, to tell, subject/major, glad(ly), story/history, elementary school, good/well, high school, notebook interesting, to have an interest in, to learn, to read, mathematics, professor, test/exam, to write, school, pupil, difficult, language, to speak, student, to study, system, university, to understand.[3]
3. **Leisure time. Talking about leisure-time activities, hobbies, sports.** Library, book, to watch TV, television, free time, to invite, party, film, soccer, comfortable, to listen to, movie theater, bar, concert, culture, art, to read, to paint, team, museum, music, program, radio, (phonograph) record, to swim, to see, to sing, to be fun, to go for a walk, game, to play, theater, to hike, magazine, newspaper.[4]

Concerning the remaining topically specific lexical items, the textbooks vary considerably, the vocabulary in *Deutsch natürlich* corresponding most frequently with the list from *Kontaktschwelle* and *Zertifikat.* Thus, one will find the following entries in DN and in none of the other textbooks: to change, to relax/to rest, to bathe/to swim, bathtub, college diploma, stupid/dopey, to take a shower, to recover, record player, belongings, mother-in-law, father-in-law, fight/quarrel, lesson, things.[5]

On the other hand, this fairly close correspondence between DN and the two basic vocabulary lists is hardly surprising, for the vocabulary list of DN is almost twice as long as the lists from *Kontaktschwelle* or *Zertifikat.* What is, perhaps, more astonishing is that the following words are absent in DN: address, at first, bath/bathroom, to be working, blond, bookshop, date, shower, married couple, elegant(ly), narrow/close, adult, last name, hallway, photo, camera, soccer field, hall/corridor, building, brothers and sisters, usual(ly), at home, to be from, to get information/to find out, cassette player, rented apartment, furniture, near/close by, ground floor, swimming pool, stadium, floor, paperback, terrace, tape, tape recorder, to translate, to prepare oneself, first name, weekday, dictionary, report card/grade report.[6] It must be stated, however, that these entries are not only absent in *Deutsch natürlich;* many are also not listed in the other three textbooks.

Table 1 demonstrates, using a few of the entries, just how much the four textbooks differ in including or not including entries from *Kontaktschwelle* and *Zertifikat.* This will only be shown with a few examples, since the number of topically specific lexical items found in the two basic vocabulary lists but not in all four textbooks totals 198 words.

Table 1
Distribution of Lexical Items in the Four Textbooks

	DN	*DSL*	*SWD*	*DSS*
abends (in the evening[s])	+	+	−	+
Adresse (address)	−	+	+	−
angenehm (pleasant)	+	+	+	−
anstrengend (strenuous)	+	−	+	−
Arbeit (test/term paper)	+	−	+	−
außerhalb (outside of)	+	+	−	−
bequem (comfortable)	+	−	+	+
bestehen (to pass an exam)	+	−	−	+
dumm (dumb/stupid)	+	+	−	−
Erdgeschoß (ground floor)	+	+	−	−
Erwachsene(r) (adult)	−	+	−	−
Examen (examination)	+	+	+	−
fleißig (hard working)	+	+	+	−
fotographieren (to photograph)	+	−	−	+
frühstücken (to have breakfast)	+	−	−	+
gern haben (to like)	+	−	+	−
herkommen (to be/come from)	−	+	−	−
Hobby (hobby)	+	−	+	+
hübsch (pretty)	+	+	−	+

Conclusion

In all, it can be said that the vocabulary required to talk about the selected topic areas is often insufficiently taken into account in the four textbooks. DN provides a larger proportion of vocabulary given in the basic lists for the selected topics, but the volume of its vocabulary (4,144 entries in a textbook for the first year!) creates problems of another sort. The teacher must differentiate between the vocabulary that should be actively controlled and that which needs only to be understood when listening or reading. The textbook fails to give the necessary help as to how this differentiation should be made.

If one looks beyond the selected topics areas and compares the total vocabulary in *Kontaktschwelle* and *Zertifikat* with the glossaries of the three other textbooks (DSL, SWD, and DSS), it becomes apparent that many words concerning everyday life are absent in these textbooks; the complete list of items not contained in the textbooks totals 734 words. On the other hand, the three textbooks list a series of entries that are not very helpful from the standpoint of communication in everyday life; for example: DS includes *Apfelschuß* (apple shoot) while *Apfelbaum* (apple

tree) is absent, or *Badeinsel* (island resort) but not *Badewanne* (bath tub). SWD includes *Autofreiheit* (freedom from cars), while *Automat* (coin-operated machine) is absent; it has *Bürgermedaille* (citizens' medal) but not *Bürgersteig* (sidewalk). DSS lists *Brieftaube* (homing pigeon) but not *Briefkasten* (mailbox), and *fernfahren* (long-distance driving) but not *Ferngespräch* (long-distance call). These are only a few examples, and the list of lexical items presented in the glossaries not appropriate for communication in everyday situations could be continued for each of the textbooks. Of course, the lexical content is not the only criterion by which we should evaluate a textbook, but it is an important factor in textbooks designed for proficiency-oriented instruction.

Notes

1. Talking about self/others and daily routine: Abendessen, ähnlich, allein, alt, anfangen, arbeiten, aufstehen, aussehen, Auto, beginnen, Bus, dick, eigen-, fahren, Fahrrad, Frau, Freund/-in, Frühstück, Geburtstag, Gesicht, groß, Haare, Hausfrau, heißen, Jugendliche, jung, Junge, klein, leben, Mädchen, Mann, Mittagessen, mögen, morgens, müde, Nachbar/-in, Name, nett, Person, schlafen, schön, Straßenbahn, Woche, Wochenende, typisch, U-Bahn, verheiratet, Zukunft.
2. Talking about family and residence (house/room): Badezimmer, Balkon, Bett, Bild, Bruder, Dorf, Eltern, Familie, Fenster, Garten, gefallen, gemütlich, groß, Großeltern, Haus, Kind, klein, Land, Landschaft, mieten, modern, Mutter, Nähe, Onkel, praktisch, Schlafzimmer, schön, Schrank, Schreibtisch, Schwester, Sohn, Stadt, Straße, Tante, Tisch, Tochter, Vater, weit, wohnen, Wohnung, Wohnzimmer, Zentrum, Zimmer.
3. Talking about school and university: anfangen, arbeiten, Artikel, Aufgabe, beschreiben, besuchen, diskutieren, erklären, erzählen, Fach, gern, Geschichte, Grundschule, gut, Gymnasium, Heft, interessant, sich interessieren, lernen, lesen, Mathematik, Professor, Prüfung, schreiben, Schule, Schüler/-in, schwer, schwierig, Sprache, sprechen, Student/-in, studieren, System, Universität, verstehen.
4. Talking about leisure-time activities, hobbies, sports: Bibliothek, Buch, fernsehen, Fernseher, Freizeit, einladen, Fest, Film, Fußball, gemütlich, hören, Kino, Kneipe, Konzert, Kultur, Kunst, lesen, malen, Mannschaft, Museum, Musik, Party, Programm, Radio, Schallplatte, schwimmen, sehen, singen, Spaß machen, spazieren gehen, Spiel, spielen, Theater, wandern, Woche, Wochenende, Zeitschrift, Zeitung.
5. Entries in DN (and not in the other textbooks): sich ändern, sich ausruhen, baden, Badewanne, Diplom, doof, duschen, sich erholen, Illustrierte, Plattenspieler, Sachen, Schwieger-, Streit, Stunde, Zeug.
6. Entries not found in DN: Adresse, am/zu Anfang, Bad, berufstätig, blond, Bücherei, Buchhandlung, Datum, Dusche, Ehepaar, elegant, eng, Erwachsene(r), Familienname, Flur, Foto, Fotoapparat, Fußballplatz, Gang, Gebäude, Geschwister, gewöhnlich, zu Hause, herkommen, sich informieren, Kassette, Kassettenrecorder, Mietwohnung, Möbel, nah, Parterre, Schwimmbad, Sportplatz, Stock, Taschenbuch, Terrasse, Tonband, Tonbandgerät, übersetzen, sich vorbereiten, Vorname, Wochentag, Wörterbuch, Zeugnis.

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11
Activities for Building Students' Proficiency in Spanish Classes

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There has been a growing concern among foreign language educators to design courses and develop materials around the proficiency principle since the development of the *ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines* in 1982. Proficiency-oriented instruction aims at the development of the students' communicative competence, defining it in terms of the functions the students can perform, the contexts or situations in which they can use the language, the content or topics addressed in the interaction, and the degree of accuracy with which they can express themselves.

Accuracy includes, among other things, sociolinguistic skills. The development of the sociolinguistic skills, however, has usually been assigned an extremely low priority in the classroom. There are two possible reasons for this: (1) discourse strategies vary from region to region and even from social group to social group (Tannen, 20, 21; Thomas, 22; Schiffrin, 19; Kochman, 13; Scollon and Scollon, 18) and (2) discourse strategies used by native speakers are yet not widely understood.

In this paper we present a sample of activities for the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language which give special attention to the sociolinguistic skills involved in the listening/speaking exercise. The activities follow very closely Omaggio's (17) suggestions and model exercises. They have been designed on the framework of her hypotheses for classroom instruction (17, pp. 35–36), which she describes as providing opportunities:

> for students to practice using language in a range of contexts likely to be encountered in the target culture . . . [providing opportunities] for students to practice carrying out a range of functions (task universals) likely to be necessary in dealing with others in the target culture . . . [reflecting] a concern for the development of linguistic accuracy . . . [responding] to the affective as well as the cognitive needs of the students [through the use of small group activities] . . . [promoting cultural understanding] so that students are prepared to understand, accept, and live harmoniously in the target-language community.

These materials would be most useful for students at the intermediate or advanced level studying their third or fourth year of high school Spanish, or for college students in their first or second year of Spanish. They can be used over such a broad range of courses because, as Magnan (16, p. 436) points out, "there is a range of proficiency levels to be expected at each level of study."

How to Teach for Proficiency

Teaching for proficiency involves teaching students to perform different functions in different contexts or situations, to deal with different contents or topics, and to perform with different degrees of accuracy. But as Galloway (6) points out, students will learn to perform different functions only with practice. This means that if we want students to learn how to disagree, complain, request/give information, and so on, we must provide them the opportunities for doing so. Eisenstein and Bodman (4) provide a number of suggestions for accomplishing this. These range from supervised activities in the classroom to opportunities outside the classroom where students can interact with native speakers or observe them in interactions.

To teach for proficiency, teachers can start by drawing on students' own everyday cultural experiences. These experiences include situations such as making appointments, accepting/refusing invitations, asking/giving directions, requesting, and so on, which in turn can be used as points of comparison to similar circumstances in the target culture. Building on this groundwork of everyday communication experiences, the teacher can then integrate information about how people in the target culture behave both linguistically, and extralinguistically (Galloway, 5).

The linguistic information from which students might profit would include not only the grammatical structures and lexical items necessary to convey meaning, but also the deference markers and routine formulas available in Spanish that help speakers "to relate to others in an accepted way" (Coulmas, 2). Knowledge of these deference markers and routine formulas helps the learner not only to understand and express politeness in utterances but to avoid what Thomas (22) calls sociopragmatic errors.

In their study of English and German deference markers, House and Kasper (11) include what they call modality markers and distinguish two kinds: downgraders and gambits. For the purpose of this paper, we will use House and Kasper's classification but include Spanish examples.

Downgraders include *politeness markers* (por favor . . ., si fuera/s tan amable . . ., perdón . . .), *playdown* (me pregunto si . . ., quisiera saber si . . .), *consultation devices* (¿le/te importaría/molestaría si . . .? ¿ud./tú cree/s que . . .?), *hedges* (más o menos . . ., y todo eso . . ., un poco . . .), *understaters* (un poquito . . ., no mucho . . ., un ratito . . ., un segundo . . .), *downtoners* (recién . . ., nada más . . ., no mucho . . ., solamente . . ., posiblemente . . .), *minus committer* (pienso que . . ., me parece . . ., creo que . . ., supongo que . . .), *forewarn* (no quiero que se/te ofenda/s pero . . ., es/eres muy amable pero . . .), *hesitater* (este . . ., ¿cómo es? . . ., ¿cómo es la cosa? . . ., bueno . . ., pues . . ., es decir . . .), *scope-staters* (mucho me temo que . . ., no me gusta el hecho de que . . .), and *agent avoiders* (todo el mundo . . ., la gente . . ., se dice que . . .).

Gambits were defined by Houser and Kasper in Edmondson's (3) terms and include what they call discourse lubricants, expressions that help to diminish the effect of an utterance. These discourse lubricants are of two kinds: cajolers and appealers. Cajolers help to establish and/or restore harmony between the interlocutors (ud./tú sabe(s) cómo es . . ., ¿ve(s)? . . ., quiero decir . . ., lo que pasa es que . . .), while appealers help elicit the interlocutor's cooperative response (¿está bien? . . ., ¿le/te parece? . . ., ¿no es cierto? . . .).

Some of the routine formulas that abound in conversation include the following: ¿Cómo estás? ¡Qué gusto verte! ¡Aquí chico! como siempre, encantado/a de conocerte, un placer, mucho gusto, salud.

The extralinguistic information that should prove useful to foreign language students includes knowledge of the kinesics and proxemics, as well as knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use (Leech, 15; Kramsch,

14; Green and Smith, 8). These seem to be acquired by native speakers simultaneously with the linguistic code (Garvey, 7), but vary from language to language. Learning sociocultural rules of use is important to the foreign language students if they are to be able to interpret and produce utterances appropriately and adequately (Canale and Swain, 1; Gumperz, 9, 10; Hymes, 12).

It will often be necessary for teachers to reconcile incongruities between the native and target culture in order to help students avoid judgments based on their own interpretations of reality. However, it is important to remember that within the teaching/learning experience it is not the role of the foreign language teacher to force the standard behavior of the target language onto the learners, but rather as Thomas (22) says, to provide learners with the necessary knowledge to express themselves as they choose and with the full realization of the effects of their behavior.

The Materials

A very important component in the development of proficiency is the authenticity of the teaching materials. Materials are authentic when they represent language "that is appropriate for a particular context . . . [and fulfill] a given communicative function" (Widdowson, 23, p. 6).

Following this criterion, the *listening comprehension* exercises proposed here provide students with authentic speech samples produced by native Spanish speakers in real situations. Some of these conversations are samples of "unmodified authentic discourse" whereas others are samples of "simulated authentic discourse" (Omaggio 17, p. 128). Unmodified authentic discourse was obtained from native speakers' interactions in a variety of contexts. Along these lines, we developed a series of videotapes in which native speakers were given a description of a particular situation and were required to interact without any restrictions as to vocabulary, grammatical structures, or even time. Samples of simulated authentic discourse were obtained by structuring dialogues based on what native speakers report they would say in given situations. Consequently, listening comprehension exercises exhibiting unmodified authentic discourse present situations that are real and language

that is authentic in its high probability of occurrence, including the normal pauses, hesitations, false starts, and so on, that are bound to occur in a normal conversational interchange.

Similarly, the *oral production* exercises encourage participation in Spanish in real-life situations. Consequently, some oral activities are linked to the listening comprehension materials while some are linked to the reading materials; others are independent from either one of them.

Following the same criterion, the *reading comprehension* exercises expose students to authentic reading materials from newspapers, magazine articles, administrative forms of varied types, classified ads, TV guides, and so on, all from Spanish-speaking countries. Additional reading materials include personal letters, notes, short essays, narratives, and descriptions.

Finally, the *writing* exercises are related to the listening comprehension exercises by encouraging the use of such techniques as note taking. At other times they are either related to the reading passages or are presented separately as independent writing tasks.

Sample Exercises

A. Listening Comprehension, Oral Production, and Writing Skills

The following exercise, *Pidiendo/Dando Direcciones para ir al Mercado* (Asking/Giving Directions to go to the Market), is a sample of a simulated authentic discourse dialogue. It has been designed for the development of listening, speaking and writing skills. Its content or topic is an everyday survival situation: asking and giving directions.

A.1 Listening Comprehension

The technique used for listening comprehension is note taking. The functions to be developed are these:

a. the understanding of main ideas and supporting details
b. the understanding of simple questions and answers
c. the detection of the mood of the message and the feelings of the speakers

Prelistening Activities

Before listening to the tape, students are divided into groups of

four, and each member of the group receives a copy of the map (see figure 1). The instructor then provides explanations about the map, specifically, about those points mentioned in the conversation.

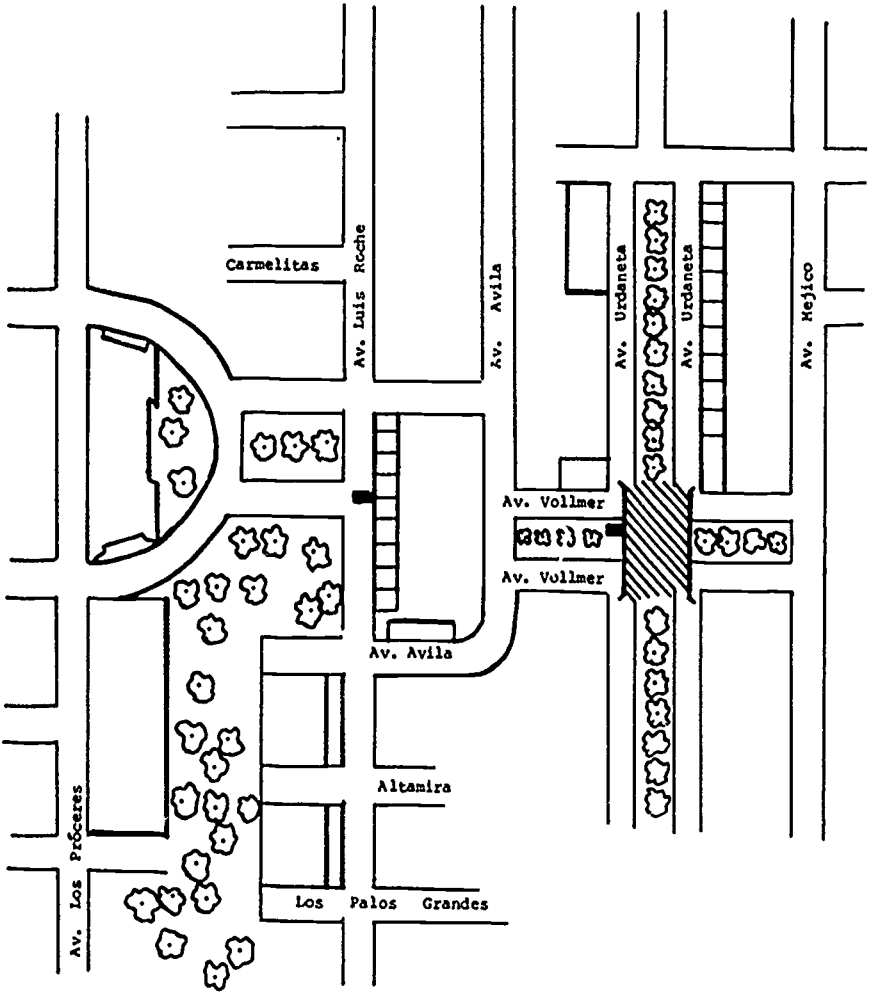
The students receive the following instructions:

> You will hear a telephone conversation between two friends in Caracas, Venezuela. One of them is new in town and is asking for directions to go to the marketplace. You will hear the dialogue twice. As you listen, take note of the information provided, since you will be asked to perform the following tasks:
>
> a. mark the route description onto a map
> b. relate the information provided to your partner
> c. give your personal reaction to the situation and describe the characters (making inferences about their personalities and imagining their physical aspects)
> d. give your partner directions to the nearest marketplace

The linguistic information provided is the following:

a. Grammatical structures: past tenses: preterite vs. imperfect; informal commands: affirmative and negative; diminutives
b. Lexical items/colloquialisms/idiomatic expressions: semáforo, carril, elevado, voltear, dar vuelta en U, peroles, pero así es, trabajandito, en la lucha.
c. Sociolinguistic aspects: The conversation is between two friends of approximately the same age. In this situation the creation of rapport is very important and a number of expressions and words are used to ensure this. These expressions include harmony maintaining devices such as *informal greetings and leave-taking formulas:* "¿aló?" (on the phone), "hola," "¿cómo estás?" "aquí, chica . . .," "chau"; *consultation devices:* "quiero pedirte un favor" (used to preface a request) or "mira" (an informal conversation opener); *understaters:* "no es para tanto," "no te preocupes" (used to diminish the effect of an utterance); *expressions of gratitude:* "un millón" (short form for "un millón de gracias"), "muchísimas gracias"; *responses to the expression of gratitude:* "sí, cómo no" (which help to downtone the effects of a request); *in-group markers:* "tú," "chica/chico" (vocatives used between peers), elisions such as "'tá bien," "pa' comprar" used in

Figure 1


Carmelitas
Av. Luis Roche
Av. Avila
Av. Urdaneta
Av. Urdaneta
Av. Mejico
Av. Vollmer
Av. Vollmer
Av. Avila
Altamira
Av. Los Próceres
Los Palos Grandes

colloquial language; *appealers:* "¿oíste?" (used to ensure the hearer's attention); *informal closing remarks:* "nos hablamos," "chau"; *expressions of agreement:* "sí, sí . . ." (used to denote comprehension and agreement with what had been expressed before).

Class Activities

While students listen to the dialogue they take notes of the information provided. Then, they follow the instructions in the map and cooperate with members of their group.

Dialogue

Rebeca: Aló, ¿Irma? Hola, habla Rebeca, ¿cómo estás?

Irma: Aquí chica trabajandito. Y tú, ¿qué cuentas?

Rebeca: Aquí en la lucha, tú sabes cómo es. Mira quiero pedirte un favor.

Irma: Sí, chica cómo no. Dime.

Rebeca: Mira tengo que ir a Quebrada Honda pa' comprar verduras, carne, y todo eso pero no tengo la menor idea de cómo ir. José me ha dicho que no está muy lejos pero tú sabes que yo estoy recién llegada y Caracas me asusta un poco.

Irma: No te preocupes que de San Bernardino es fácil llegar a Quebrada Honda. ¿Vas a manejar o caminar?

Rebeca: Chica, yo preferiría manejar porque después tengo que cargar con todos los peroles y eso es un poco difícil; yo no tengo tanta fuerza.

Irma: Bueno, 'tá bien. Mira entonces de tu casa sales a la Avenida Los Próceres, y doblas a la derecha. Sigue por Los Próceres hasta llegar a la primera intersección a mano derecha, no sé cómo se llama esa calle pero es la que lleva al Centro Médico.

Rebeca: Sí, sí yo sé.

Irma: Bueno, entonces bajas por esa calle y sigues derecho hasta llegar al semáforo. Cuando llegas al semáforo volteas a mano derecha otra vez. Ahí, inmediatamente toma el carril de la izquierda porque vas a doblar a mano izquierda en la primera intersección, ésa el la Avenida Avila. Ten mucho cuidado porque no vas a tener mucho tiempo y en esa calle hay mucho tráfico.

Rebeca: ¡Me estás asustando!

Irma: No chica, no te preocupes no es para tanto. Bueno, entonces después cuando ya estás en la Avenida Avila sigue derecho hasta llegar al semáforo de la Avenida Vollmer. Ahí doblas a la derecha y sigues derecho hasta llegar a la intersección de Vollmer y Urdaneta.

Rebeca: Espera un ratito que estoy apuntando. De A-vi-la a Voll-mer por Voll-mer hasta Ur-da-ne-ta. Ok, sigue.

Irma: Bueno, cruzas el semáforo que está entre Vollmer y Urdanenta, pasas debajo del elevado y sigues derecho una cuadra. Como en esa intersección no puedes doblar a la izquierda vas a tener que seguir una cuadra y dar vuelta en U hasta volver a la Urdaneta, ¿me comprendes?

Rebeca: No exactamente, ya me perdiste, ¿puedes repetir lo que me acabas de decir?

Irma: Mira, cruzas el semáforo y sigues una cuadra. Al final de la cuadra vas a doblar en U a la izquierda para volver a la Urdaneta.

Rebeca: Ok, ahora sí. Pero, ¿por qué hacen las cosas tan complicadas chica? ¿Por qué tengo que hacer todo eso?

Irma: Chica, ¡y no sé! pero así es! ¡Tú sabes cómo son las cosas! Tienen que hacerle la vida difícil a uno. Pero bueno, ahora que estás en la intersección de Vollmer y Urdaneta, doblas a mano derecha y sigues derecho una cuadra. Ahí está Quebrada Honda a tu izquierda. Busca un puesto para estacionar en la calle porque nunca hay lugar en el estacionamiento a no ser que vayas muy temprano.

Rebeca: Yo quiero ir tempranito pero si salgo muy temprano me agarra el tráfico de la mañana y eso sí que es espantoso.

Irma: ¡No es para tanto chica! Vas a tener que acostumbrarte a manejar en Caracas porque si no vas a tener problemas.

Rebeca: Tienes razón, poco a poco creo yo.

Irma: Si chica, no te preocupes.

Rebeca: Irma, muchísimas gracias. Ya te contaré cómo me fue, pero no creo que tenga ningún problema.

Irma: Ok, mira me saludas a José y a Danielito, ¿oíste?

Rebeca: Ok, un millón.

Irma: Ok, chau Rebeca, nos hablamos.

Rebeca: Chau y gracias nuevamente.

A.2 Oral Production

The techniques for the oral production activities will include story adaptation and social interaction activities (using Omaggio's terms, 17). The functions to be developed are:

a. participating in short conversations
b. asking and answering questions
c. transferring learned material to new situations

Class Activities

a. Small group work: Students, divided in small groups, perform

the following activities: one group explains the situation in general; another group speaks about its personal reaction to the situation; a third group provides a biography of one of the characters in the dialogue (Rebeca for example), using all the information provided in the dialogue as well as inferred information such as physical description, age, socioeconomic status, social adjustments, and so on.

b. Class Work: The whole class joins in a discussion of the problems that traffic in a big Hispanic city may cause.
c. Dramatization: Students participate in a similar situation, asking and giving directions in their home town; for example, how to get to a given building on the university/college campus, to the police department, to the post office, and so on.

A.3 Writing

After the students have listened to the dialogue between Rebeca and Irma and have participated orally in similar social situations, they can perform a series of writing activities. The technique to be used is composition based on a dialogue. This time the functions to be developed include the following:

a. writing short notes
b. writing letters

The linguistic information provided is the following:

a. Grammatical Structures: *ser–estar;* preterite-imperfect
b. Lexical items: *derecho, adelante, a la izquierda, a mano izquierda, a la derecha, a mano derecha, encima, debajo*

Class Activities

a. Writing instructions: Students are told that they live at Parque Residencial Anauco and are inviting a friend to a party. This friend lives at Avenida Libertador, next to INOS, and needs written instructions on how to get to the party.
b. Writing a letter: Students are told that they are writing to a

friend who lives in another city in Venezuela and wants to come to Caracas. They can write either:

1. a description of the neighborhood where they live; or
2. a description of neighboring parks and recreational facilities

c. Writing a composition: Students are asked to write a physical description of one of the participants in the dialogue they heard.

B. Reading

The following illustrates a reading exercise. The technique to be used is identifying discourse structure. The content once again is an everyday survival topic, making purchases.

The function to be developed is enabling students to read paragraphs that present simple arguments containing sentences that do not belong within the general theme of the text.

Students must identify these sentences and cross them out. This activity helps sensitize them to ineffective discourse strategies.

Prereading Activities

Before reading the short paragraphs the teacher explains that the topics will be about shopping for groceries in a Hispanic country. As they discuss the different things that can be bought at a marketplace, one student writes a list on the board.

Students receive the following instructions:

> Read the following paragraph. After reading it, underline the sentence or idea that does not belong with the text.
>
> Model
>
> Nos gusta comer en el restaurante La Casa Grande y por eso iremos este fin de semana a cenar con toda la familia. Este restaurante es de nuestro agrado en primer lugar, porque es muy limpio y también porque ahí sirven una gran variedad de platos. Además, los camareros son amables, *la cocina es amarilla* y los precios no son muy altos. Todos nuestros amigos van allí frecuentemente para comer y seguramente los encontraremos este fin de semana.

The linguistic information provided is the following:

a. Grammatical structures: present tense of verbs, future tense: regular and irregular verbs, ir a + Infinitive, gustar, present perfect tense

b. Discourse markers: primero, en primer/segundo/tercer lugar, después, también, entonces, ya, por último, finalmente
c. Lexical items: comestibles, mercado (central), supermercado, cena, zanahoria, carne, mercado, papas, yuca, tomates, cebollas, ajos, pollo, chuletas de cerdo, granja, verdulero, carnicero, precios cómodos, subir precios
d. Sociolinguistic aspects: Some of the sociolinguistic/cultural aspects to be highlighted in this lesson are grocery shopping customs in the Hispanic world (frequent visits to the marketplace, the open marketplace versus the supermarket, the personal business transactions done between the shopper and the salesperson, the existence of small specialized stores (carnicería, panadería/pastelería, verdulería/frutería), diet based on grains, cereals, beef, fish, and chicken, high cost of food products, inflation, constant rising of food prices, and so on.

Reading Texts

Diario de un ama de casa: De Compras en el mercado

1. Hoy iré al mercado central porque necesito comprar varios comestibles para la cena de esta noche y además porque en el mercado los precios son más cómodos que en el supermercado. Primero, voy a ir al verdulero y voy a comprar zanahorias bien frescas y tomates grandes. El verdulero se llama José y trae todos los productos de su granja. También quisiera comprar papas y yucas pero no sé si podré encontrarlas. Como ya tengo cebollas y ajo en la casa, no voy a comprar más. Luego iré al carnicero y buscaré carne fresca.
2. En la carnicería, mi amiga Josefina busca algo especial para su esposo, no sabe si comprar pollo o chuletas de cochino. Sabe que a él le gustan las chuletas de cochino, pero también sabe que le gusta mucho el pollo y lo mejor de todo es que el carnicero tiene pollo fresco, no congelado. Ella quiere preparar arroz con pollo. Mira en su cartera y ve que tiene suficiente dinero para comprar chuletas pero no para comprar pollo ya que el carnicero ha subido los precios recientemente.

Conclusion

The exercises presented are samples of activities for developing proficiency that we have designed for use in our classes at the Miami University Intensive Summer Workshop in Spanish. In a typical lesson, the materials not only belong to the same level but are organized around

the same topic or situation, although we might combine different functions illustrated by the samples presented above. This proved to be helpful in making our materials more flexible and enabled them to be used to their full potential. In addition, the sociolinguistic/cultural component of each lesson has been helpful in providing an understanding of certain linguistic behaviors and in helping students to communicate in Spanish not only accurately but appropriately.

Students' responses have been very encouraging. They have enjoyed working with the materials. More important, they have been able to relate to them because they provided information that was easily transferable to real-life situations.

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