DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 382 003 FL 022 888

AUTHOR	Mahnen, Barbara
TITLE	Curriculum Design for the Bosnian Refugee Resettlement Committee's Adult ESL Program.
PUB DATE	20 Mar 95
NOTE	118p.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; *Adults; Class Activities; *Curriculum Design; Daily Living Skills; *English (Second Language); Evaluation Methods; Feedback; Foreign Countries; Instructional Materials; Language Proficiency; Lesson Plans; Literacy Education; *Refugees; Second Language Learning; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	Bosnia and Herzegovina; *Bosnians; United States

ABSTRACT

This document outlines a curriculum design intended for use with Bosnian refugees living in the United States learning English as a Second Language for survival purposes. The first chapter identifies the setting of instruction and background information regarding this refugee group. The second chapter reviews the theoretical issues of adult education and adult second language learning that form the basis for the decisions made in designing the curriculum. Chapter 3 is an illustration of the needs of the learners. In reviewing the learners' needs, three different groups of learners emerged. The first group was pre-literate in their native language and needed survival English as well as literacy training. The second group was literate and needed survival English. The third group consisted of those learners who had some previous English instruction and were interested in learning English to continue academic studies in the United States. These three groups were assigned to different levels of instruction and each level of instruction was based on an appropriate syllabus type. Pedagogical concerns, such as the linguistic focus of instruction for each level is included in chapter 3. Finally, chapter 4 covers practical issues such as materials, resources, tutor training, classroom activities, feedback, assessment, and evaluation. Sample lesson plans are also included at the end of the curriculum design. Although the curriculum plan is intended for use with this special group of refugees, it can easily be adapted for use with other refugee groups. Contains 65 references. (Author)

CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR THE BOSNIAN REFUGEE RESETTLEMENT COMMITTEE'S ADULT ESL PROGRAM

Barbara Mahnen

March 20, 1995

CURRICULUM DESIGN
FOR THE
BOSNIAN REFUGEE RESETTLEMENT
COMMITTEE'S ADULT ESL PROGRAM

Abstract

This document outlines a curriculum design intended for use with Bosnian refugees living in the United States learning ESL for survival purposes. The first chapter identifies the setting for instruction and background information regarding this refugee group. The second chapter reviews the theoretical issues of adult education and adult second language learning which form the basis for the decisions made in designing the curriculum. Chapter three is an illustration of the needs of the learners. In reviewing the learners' needs, three different groups of learners emerged. The first group was pre-literate in their native language and needed survival English as well as literacy training. The second group was literate and needed survival English. The third group consisted if those learners who had some previous English instruction and were interested in learning English to continue academic studies in the U.S. These three groups were assigned to different levels of instruction and each level of instruction was based on an appropriate syllabus type. Pedagogical concerns such as the linguistic focus of instruction for each level has also been included in chapter three. Finally, chapter four covers practical issues such as materials, resources, activities, tutor training, classroom activities, feedback, assessment and evaluation. Sample lesson plans are also included at the end of the curriculum design. Although the curriculum plan is intended for use with this special group of refugees, it can easily be adapted for use with other refugee groups.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter One

Introduction

This paper is a curriculum design intended for use with the ESL program that is run by the Refugee Resettlement Committee of Boulder, Colorado. A curriculum design involves selecting the material that will be presented, defining objectives, analyzing student needs, and selecting appropriate methodology for realizing the objectives. The process of designing a curriculum is best described by MacDonald and Clark (1973) in Second Handbook of Research in Teaching:

> Curriculum development is a continuous process of making human value judgments about what to include and exclude, what to aim for and avoid, and how to go about it - difficult judgments, even when aided by technical and scientific data and processes., p. 408.

Basic steps in curriculum design have been identified by Smith (1982) and are as follows:

1. Determine needs and interest of learners
2. Set goals and evaluate criteria
3. Identify resources and procedures
4. Select program format and activities
5. Conduct program
6. Evaluate and follow-up with modifications (p. 75)

In the development of this curriculum, steps one through six were previously carried out by the ESL Coordinator of the BRRC in the spring of 1994, and the modifications that resulted from step six have been taken into account in this design. Therefore, this curriculum design is the result of returning to steps one through four.

In this chapter the reader is provided with background information regarding the Bosnians and their current situation. The next chapter of the paper reviews the literature in the field of adult education and in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language as it applies to the teaching of adults, immigrants and refugees. Chapter two ends with a brief review of the history of refugee-specific education. Chapter three is a needs analysis. As a result of analyzing the learner's contextual needs, the learners are broken down into three levels. The language and learning needs of each level as well as the

learning objectives for each level are then identified . Following the complete needs analysis is chapter four which discusses the resources and materials available to the program instructors. Chapter four also illustrates the activity types for each level which are to be used in connection with achieving the instructional goals. Chapter four ends with a discussion of methods of feedback, evaluation and assessment and a sample lesson plan for each level.

Background

This section will serve to identify and describe: 1) the learners, 2) the setting for instruction and 3) the type of instructional program appropriate for this situation. The learners are Bosnian refugees that have resettled in Boulder, Colorado with the aid of the Bosnian Refugee Resettlement Committee (BRRC). In describing the learners, it is important to understand the background from which they have come. A brief overview of their socio-economic, religious and ethnic background, as well as a summary of their more recent history will help the reader to familiarize him/herself with the situation of the Bosnian refugees.

Bosnia and Hercegovina are two republics of former Yugoslavia and the people who come from these areas, known as Bosnians, are mixed in ethnic origins. Many of the Bosnian people have intermarried with Serbians and Croatians and are mixed in descent. Both Hercegovina and the republic of Bosnia were established after World War I as a territory specifically for those of mixed ethnic and religious backgrounds (Manners, 1993, p.4). As a result of World War II, the republics of Bosnia, Croatia, Hercegovina, Slovenia, Montenegro and Serbia were united into one country, and ruled for close to 40 years by Josip Broz Tito, leader of the communist partisans. Tito had an interesting way of dealing with the struggle for power between the various ethnic groups. He rotated the government positions among the various republics, which were each made up of a different ethnic group or groups. Tito's death, in the early 1980's, was followed by many problems. Disputes over the governmental rotations erupted as well as questions regarding the allocation of resources to the various republics. As the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia crumbled, the republics declared independence from one another. Shortly thereafter, Serbia entered into a war against Bosnia and Hercegovina, the only republics not based on one single ethnic group. Not long after, Croatia

joined the Serbian forces in their attempt to ethnically cleanse the former Yugoslavian republics of Muslim people (Ibid, p. 5).

The main religious groups in Bosnia are closely tied to the various ethnic groups especially for those who are Muslim. In general, the Serbians are Christian Orthodox, the Croats are Roman Catholic, and the Slavs (Bosnians), are predominantly Muslim (Hamilton, 1993, p.114). Although Muslim is a religion, in Bosnia, Hercegovina and other surrounding republics the term Muslim is used to refer to a person's ethnicity. Before the war began in 1991, about 44% of Bosnia's population was Muslim. 31% was Serbian and about 17% was Croatian (Manners, p. 7). The form of Islam that is practiced by the Muslim Bosnians is not as conservative as the form practiced in the Arabic countries (Ibid, p. 7). For example, women in Bosnia are not required to wear a veil.

The Bosnian people speak a language which, although it is the same as Serbo-Croatian, is referred to by the less emotionally and politically charged label, Bosnian. Serbo-Croatian (i.e., Bosnian) is written with a Roman alphabet, although the Serbs use the Cyrillic alphabet for official writing, and in 1994, declared that the Cyrillic letters be used for signs and other public written material (National Public Radio, Tuesday, April 5, 1994). This creates a disadvantage for those able to read only the Roman Serbo-Croatian.

In Bosnia, a person's socio-economic and educational level generally relates to the region where one lives. The center of Bosnia is a mountainous region and is home of the capital city, Sarajevo. Sarajevo is the largest city in Bosnia and is quite cultured. The people who live here are generally educated and are professionals. Other smaller cities include Tuzla, Banja Luka, Gorazde and Mostar. In the areas surrounding Sarajevo are people who mainly earn a living by working in the lumber industry. Further north of Sarajevo is a mainly agricultural area and the people earn livings by farming or working in related agricultural industries. To the west and the south is a region with low population densities since the land in this area is infertile and marked by rock outcroppings (Manners, p. 3). In these areas outside of major cities, the population is less dense and the people are often not educated past the third or fourth grade level.

Not since World War II has one seen such death, atrocity and terror as in the war in Bosnia that began 3 years ago in 1992. (Donia & Fine, 1994, p. 2). Since this time, the Serbs have led an all-out plan to ethnically cleanse Bosnia

of its Muslim population. They have gone about their goal by killing Muslim men, women and children, destroying their homes and villages, forcing them to sign over their possessions and land to the Serbs, and detaining them in prison camps where they are beaten and starved (Ibid). Furthermore, as many as 200,000 Muslim women may have been raped by Serbians (Granjon & Deloche, 1993, p. 42). Often women are repeatedly raped until they become pregnant. They are then detained in prison camps, only to be freed when it is too late for an abortion (Ibid).

In the first year of the war in Bosnia, the government estimated that 100,000 people of the pre-war population of 4.3 million were killed (Hamilton, 1993 p. 114); a year later by the end of 1993, the number of casualties had more than doubled (Ibid, 1994, p. 120). More than one half the total population had been driven from their homes or murdered and by the end of 1992, approximately 940,000 refugees were relocated or displaced (Ibid). However, refugees were placed mainly within the republics of the former Yugoslavia (Hamilton, 1993, p. 115). In 1993, the UN estimated that 40% of the population, close to 1.8 million Bosnians, had become refugees as a result of the war (The Economist, 1993, p. 57). In 1992, the former Yugoslavia was third among the world's principal sources of refugees. (Hamilton, 1993, p. 52). This enormous number of refugees has had trouble seeking asylum. Many European countries were reluctant at first to take refugees and as a result they were usually placed in refugee camps within 'safe zones' in Bosnia. More recently, refugees have been able to escape to European countries and the U.S., but unfortunately few of them, if any, will ever return to their homes.

The refugees that arrive and resettle in Boulder have traveled a long route full of red tape. Many start out by requesting refugee status in Bosnia, through organizations run by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), such as the Bosnia Serb Refugee Commission. Names are placed on a list which is managed by the United Nations' organizations such as the Relief and Works Agency or UNHCR. Once their names are on a list, the refugees are transported by UN personnel to another country that is currently accepting Bosnian refugees. As a result, extended families are often split up since refugees are assigned to a resettlement country in a random fashion. Once they arrive in their new country, the government of that country takes over. For example, refugees arriving in the United States will first be processed by the Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization

Service. Next, the Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Refugee Resettlement, assigns refugee families to various different non-profit aid organizations or resettlement agencies throughout the U.S. The refugees are received by private voluntary agencies or organizations, commonly known as PVO's. Refugee families are referred to The Bosnian Refugee Resettlement Committee, a PVO, through a church relief service in Denver, Colorado called Ecumenical Services.

The Bosnian Refugee Resettlement Committee is a non-profit, volunteer organization and must adhere to the policies set forth by the Office of Refugee Resettlement, as well as by the Department of State, Bureau for Refugee Programs. Refugee families are given federal monetary assistance as well as food stamps for their first six months in the country. The money is intended to be used for rent, utilities and food. Clothing, furniture and other household items are donated by volunteers. Medical care is also donated by local clinics and physicians. After the first six months, the head of the household is expected to have a full-time job and the subsistence payments are terminated. In most cases, both heads of household need to be working full-time in order to support their families, but this is often difficult to achieve in six months without any previous exposure to the new language. If members of the refugee family are unable to work after the first six months, the federal government will extend the period of time that the assistance money will be provided; however, they decrease the amount of the monthly payments. Furthermore, volunteer tutors that provide ESL and pre-employment training are only required to make a six month commitment. Fortunately, it is usual that a volunteer will become friendly with a refugee family and wish to continue their visits past the six month limit. In short, the federal government does not allow the refugees much time to learn the language and to acculturate.

The families that have been aided by the BRRC are reflections of Bosnia's diverse ethnic population. Although most of the families are from the same religious background, i.e., Muslim, they are from varying socio-economic backgrounds as well as from different parts of the republic. Some families are highly educated with college degrees and others have been educated only to the fourth grade level, if at all. Many of the older, female students are not literate in their own language, Bosnian. Some of the learners have had previous instruction in English, while others have not. In trying to accommodate these different groups of students, they will each be placed into three levels. The

nature of these levels as well as the decisive measures for placement will be identified at a later point.

The BRRC aims to aid the entire refugee family, but the ESL instruction is set apart for the two major groups, the children and the adults, since learning styles and teaching methods differ for each of these groups. The Educational Director of the BRRC, Douchka Nikolic-Dingler, is responsible for both the training of the children's ESL tutors and for the design of their program. The children also attend local elementary, junior high and high schools and receive ESL instruction as well as content area instruction. The adults also have the opportunity to attend an evening ESL program at the Paddock School in Boulder, but they also have home tutors. The curriculum design for this aspect of instruction is the focus of this paper. The adult ESL program is my responsibility and this will be the focus of the curriculum design. The adults range in ages from 21-45. Some of the adults are single, have no children and have arrived on their own without family members; these are mostly males. To date, no adult females have come on their own without a family member. The other adults are husbands and wives who usually have a family with between two and six children.

The type of ESL program that is best suited to these students is a program known as survival or life skills programs. Briefly, in this type of program, students learn the basics of English that are necessary for them to manage the activities in their daily life. The programs help students to acculturate and begin handling their affairs on their own. Programs like these aim to help the student so that they can begin to learn on their own after instruction has taken place. This is a particularly important aspect of the program for these specific students, since they have a limited six months of instruction. Because it is difficult to accomplish miracles in six months, if students can take away some skills that help them to learn on their own or on the job, then the learning process does not have to stop after the six month period.

The adult learners in this group are taught by volunteer tutors who go to the student's home about two hours per week. In some cases, two tutors are assigned to each learner or pair of learners (e.g., a husband and wife). One tutor goes for one hour one day and another tutor comes for an hour on another day. In addition, at the mosque where the learners all go on Saturday afternoons for religious services, there are three meeting rooms where

classroom-style learning can take place. Each room is assigned to students of the three different levels and classes run for one and half hours after the religious services. Volunteer tutors are asked to participate in the Saturday teaching once a month. In this way three teachers are selected for a Saturday and rotate their duty on a monthly basis. The pool of volunteer tutors is currently at the number of 25, while the number of adults in the program is currently at about 20. In this sense, one can see that classes are often small and students are able to receive the one-on-one attention that they need.

The volunteer tutors come from local churches and the community. In addition, I have recently tried to recruit undergraduate college students working towards degrees in education or multiculturalism. They have been able to receive course credit or internship credit for the work they do. Some of the volunteers have no experience teaching any subject, others have taught previously, and still others have experience in teaching ESL in particular; nevertheless, they all need to complete some training prior to beginning their assignments.

The volunteers go through a training program that is conducted by the Adult ESL Coordinator. Training sessions occur about once every two months; however, this varies according to the number of new volunteers that join. The sessions last about two hours and tutors are introduced first to some of the contextual issues that relate to the Bosnians (i.e., literacy, educational level, economic status, post-war trauma, conduct and respect in someone else's home). Next, the tutors are given materials that they can use and are introduced to some techniques that are useful for the particular group of students that they are to teach. The volunteers who work with the illiterate students usually attend another separate two-hour training that focuses particularly on techniques used in the development of literacy with adults. All volunteers are asked to think about their lessons and to plan their class. They are not required to draw up and submit lesson plans, but we suggest they do so if they find the time. Planning is important in this situation, since otherwise a tutor may risk having lesson time become a social hour. This happens easily when in someone's home (and is certainly fine on occasion), but it must be controlled if learning is to take place and ultimately be effective.

I would like to briefly expand on some of the materials that are distributed to the volunteer tutors. Because their is no funding to pay for new textbooks, the students and tutors receive textbooks that have been donated by local

community colleges, universities, or libraries in order to work with their students. Some of the materials that are distributed or available to the tutors are the following:

- English for Adult Competency Book 1 and 2: Prentice Hall
- The Oxford English Picture Dictionary: Oxford University Press
- Side by Side: Prentice Hall
- First Class Reader! An Integrated Skills Approach to Literacy: Alta Book Center Publishers
- Fundamentals of English Grammar: Prentice Hall
- Sounds Easy! A Phonics Workbook for Beginning ESL Students: Alemany Press
- Mainstream English Language Teaching (MELT)
- Basic English Grammar: Prentice Hall
- Real Life English: Steck -Vaughn Company
- Literacy Volunteer of America, Inc. Techniques Used in the Teaching of Reading: Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.
- Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. I Speak English: A Tutor's Guide to Teaching Conversational English: Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.
- Tutoring ESL: A Handbook For Volunteers from the ESL literacy program at Fort Collins library: Tacoma Community House

In order to create a curriculum design that best suits these particular students one must have some understanding of the background from which they have come. By understanding the special needs of these learners, the program planner can make informed decisions about curriculum design. As the war in Bosnia continues and the numbers of refugees rise, it will be necessary for countries to open their borders and accept Bosnian refugees. If the refugees are to manage their daily life in the new country, they will need language training. This program design intends to aid future administrators with curriculum decisions and planning for programs for Bosnian refugees in particular, or other refugee groups.

Chapter Two

A brief history of the field of adult education

The field of adult education began to develop close to thirty five years ago and is still somewhat unexplored and undefined. In an early attempt to evaluate and compile information regarding teaching adults, Morgan, Holmes, and Bundy authored Methods in Adult Education, (1960, in Seaman & Fellenz, 1989, p.3). Over the next decade, researchers in the field continued to publish works exploring different techniques and methods to use in the classroom as well as issues regarding adult education teacher training. In the 1970's, the federal U.S. Office of Education and state Departments of Education, became involved in the issue of adult education, because poverty became a political agenda and one means out of poverty for adults, it was believed, was through education. Adult Basic Education was conceived as a response to the federal agenda and thus the field of adult education grew throughout the decade as researchers began to investigate the various modalities of Adult Basic Education, as well as its effectiveness. The 1980's saw an abatement of research in this field, as political agendas changed. However, a handful of researchers continued to publish materials that dealt with strategies found to be effective in teaching adults yet, these materials focused mainly on those adults who were seeking a college or university education, not a basic skills education.

In reviewing the brief history of this field, I found that the literature was quite general in its approach and dated in its applicability. In addition, this field lacks hard scientific research. Many research studies that have been completed are descriptive studies of individual learners or small groups of learners and therefore making generalizations and conclusions is difficult. The lack of a scientific approach is due mainly to the general practice in the field of education where funding is mainly reserved for studies that explore issues in academic adult education, or elementary and secondary education. As a consequence, most of the information regarding the teaching and learning

strategies of academically disadvantaged adults[1] is obtained from observational studies. In the field of TESOL, the same is true; a large part of the literature and research studies focus on the issues in the English for Academic Purposes programs, while the adult ESL programs[2] for groups like refugees, or immigrants are often neglected in the current research of the field.

Three models of adult learning

Within the field of education, there is indecision and variation among the sub-field of adult education and, more specifically, the learning theories that best explain the learning needs and processes of adults. This indecision mainly stems from the diversity among the adult population. There are some theories that more appropriately suit adults in graduate programs, or adults in continuing education settings. However, in reviewing the theoretical models of adult learning upon which the theories of adult education are based, I uncovered three that were appropriate and applicable to adult ESL instruction as well as to this particular curriculum design. The three theories, self-directed/life-long learning theory, experiential learning theory, and adult basic education theory, will be outlined in this chapter. Adult basic education (ABE) is commonly associated with competency based education (CBE), which has been the basis for a majority of adult ESL programs. Issues and concerns surrounding the incorporation of CBE in ESL will be addressed and an attempt to incorporate some of these concerns into the design of this program will be put forth.

Characteristics of adult learners

Before outlining the individual theories, there are some characteristics common to the adult population that need to be reviewed, since these characteristics form the underlying assumptions of the theoretical models of

---

[1] The term "academically disadvantaged adults" as used in this paper refers to those adults who have not completed high school or received a GED, or those who for some reason have difficulty learning through the normal educational channels available to them.

[2] The terms "adult ESL programs" or "adult ESL" as used in this paper refer to programs for academically disadvantaged adults as described above.

adult learning. To begin with, an adult can be defined as "A person who has reached the maturity level where he or she has assumed responsibility for himself or herself and sometimes for others, and who typically is earning an income." (Hiemstra, 1976, p. 15). According to this definition, an adult could in reality be between the age of 18-80 or older. Despite the broad range of ages, Hiemstra's definition still makes an important distinction; the distinction between and adult and a child. This distinction is important because there are obvious differences between adults and children, specifically regarding their abilities to learn and their learning styles or preferences.

Smith (1982) indicates four special adult populations. The first population, "the undereducated," or the academically disadvantaged, as I have termed it, are those adults who have not received a high school diploma or GED. A majority of this population also tends to be illiterate. He notes that this group, in addition to being deficient in basic skills, may often have other problems that need to be considered, such as learning disabilities, low-self-esteem and particularly anxiety about participation in a learning endeavor. They often have feelings that they are "too old to learn." This group characterizes the majority of the refugees that are the focus of this curriculum design. In later discussions we will see how these factors can bar learners from participating, or making progress, in their learning.

The second population is those adults who are returning to college or entering college for the first time and are often described as the non-traditional student. The third population is the professionals, who can be characterized as people who have relatively high incomes and whose careers absorb a great deal of their time. Their reasons for returning to education are often to improve their current employment situation or to improve upon their academic credentials. The last group, Smith refers to as the "older person." Their reasons for coming to the learning environment can be varied, but, to name one, loss of income in retirement may force older people to return to school to improve their skills and re-enter the work place. These groupings are not meant to identify all adult learners, but they are useful in breaking down the broad range of ages and life stages that adults come from.

In discussing age and life stages, it is informative to note that it has often been suggested that mental abilities decline or significantly change from the early twenties through later life. However, longitudinal studies have not supported this notion (Rossman, Fisk & Roehl, 1984, p. 26). There has been

evidence that inactivity in learning, not age, corresponds to a lower learning ability with some older adults (Ibid, p. 29). Age, often thought to be a major factor in determining the ability to learn, is actually a "minor factor in either success or failure [in learning]. Capacity, interest, energy, and time are the essentials." (Ibid, p. 27). On one hand, age may pose physiological and psychological problems that may interfere with the learning process. For example, older adults may have physiological problems with visual or auditory acuity, and psychological problems with motivation and images of self-concept. On the other hand, age brings experience and advanced cognitive abilities that can be applied to the learning environment.

Motivational factors vary according to the special population to which an adult belongs and even within these special populations there are different reasons for seeking education. The level of education that is desired also varies depending on the particular adult learner. As we have seen, adults come to the learning experience for a variety of different reasons, depending on their situation, or stage of life. Some may wish to advance their education by improving their educational credentials or by improving their present employment situation. Others come to the learning experience to gain a new skill or hobby. Still others' motivation for attending a course could be simply to meet new people, get away from routine, to derive self-satisfaction that comes from the experience of tackling new or difficult situations.

Aside from these situational factors, adult learners usually have preferences about how they wish to learn, or how they best learn. Often adults lead busy lives with the responsibilities that accompany employment and family. Therefore, adults generally do not have a large amount of time to devote to learning. They usually want quick results; and in support of this, studies have shown that adults tend to be more interested in applied knowledge rather than in theory, or in skills rather than academic knowledge (Seaman & Fellenz, p. 17). It has also been shown that adults prefer learning in a non-competitive atmosphere where they can progress at their own place. Moreover, adults prefer to play an active role in their education process, since the learning becomes more meaningful (Ibid). However, individual learners do differ with regard to the amount of structure or autonomy that they want. Curriculum designers try to take the learner's preferences into consideration; however, it should be noted that adults are not always certain how they prefer to learn. Cross (1982) noted that "adults often expressed a preference for one kind of

learning situation but often select another when given the choice." (quoted in Seaman and Fellenz, p. 7). The individual's needs, motivation, or learning preferences are the factors that form the assumptions that underlie the theories of adult learning. Each of these theories differs in the manner in which they accommodate and orient the learner towards the education process.

Self-directed/lifelong learning

The first learning theory that will be reviewed is what has been realized in a method or philosophy of education called self-directed learning, or lifelong learning. Interest in this model of learning grew as educators eventually accepted the notion that learning is a lifelong process. In addition, in the field of education, and adult education specifically, the focus on effective teaching methods moved towards a focus on learning styles, or on learners. Furthermore, research by Tough showed that "75 to 80 percent of all adult-learning projects are self-initiated and self-planned." (1978, quoted in Seaman & Fellenz, p. 26). In this sense, self-directed learning can be seen as a consciousness-raising process since many adults are probably familiar with the concept of self-directed learning through various learning projects they have carried out in their lifetime. It is only a matter of making learners realize within themselves the confidence and necessary skills to go it on their own.

This model for learning assumes that adults, because of their busy lifestyles and responsibilities, learn best when engaged in a learning atmosphere where they are responsible for setting goals and achieving them on their own at their own convenience. There are many different types of self-directed learning that can be envisioned from this simple definition. One is the type of independent study courses that most of us may be familiar with where the learner receives some minimal guidance from an adviser. Other formats, such as tutoring programs, also incorporate the notion of self-directed study. This aspect of the theory is applicable to the setting of this curriculum design. Tutors can be trained to foster self-directed study with refugee students and as a result it is possible that they may overcome their disadvantaged situation by having the necessary skills to obtain the maximum benefit of a tutoring session and in other situations they experience outside of their regularly planned tutoring sessions.

In Candy's comprehensive book on self-directed learning, Self-direction for Lifelong Learning (1991), he quotes the eighteenth century historian, Edward Gibbon, in order to illustrate the basic concept of self-directed learning. Gibbon wrote "every man who rises above the common level has received two educations: the first from his teachers; the second, more personal and important , from himself" ([1796]1907, p. 65). The important question to ask oneself here is whether or not these are two different, separate educations, or simply two aspects of the same education. It is this latter view that proponents of self-directed learning hold. It is believed that self-directed learning can only take place if the learner has already been primed with certain skills that they then use to approach new learning settings and ultimately achieve their educational goal(s), however complex or simple they may be. Candy summarizes this point in the following quote, "lifelong learning takes, as one of its principal aims, equipping people with skills and competencies required to continue their own "self-education" beyond the end of formal schooling." (1991, p. 15).

Seaman and Fellenz (1989) indicate that the skills necessary for self-directed learning are the cognitive skills that are indicated in Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of higher cognitive thinking skills. There are six skills, beginning with remembering, or the ability to recall from memory pieces of information. The next skill is comprehension, or understanding. At this level the learner's understanding is evident through their ability to demonstrate or explain the material. The third level of the taxonomy is application, or the ability to use the material in an appropriate setting, such as problem-solving. The fourth skill is the ability to analyze or take apart information into its appropriate parts or subcategories. The fifth level of the taxonomy is the ability to synthesize, or take different pieces of information and put them together in a unique and creative construction. The final level is the ability to judge material or information by critically evaluating it and forming an opinion. Adults probably access these skills in their daily life, but may be unaware of them. By fostering the awareness of the applicability of these skills to specific learning situations self-directed learning can take place.

One advantage of self-directed learning is that it can adapt to the varied adult population since individuals who are to take on a self-directed project can tailor the goals to their specific needs or learning preferences. Although this type of education usually is a solitary activity, learners can be organized

together in groups where they are each engaged in reaching their own educational goals, yet also have the opportunity to work together with other classmates, or instructors, when guidance is necessary.

Although there are many advantages to self-directed learning, there are also some disadvantages. Directing one's own learning project requires an abundance of motivation. It can often be difficult and frustrating which may lead a learner to abandon the learning effort. Evaluation is often lacking from self-directed learning efforts, since learners themselves are rarely adept at evaluating their progress and therefore rarely do so. Another problem with self-directed learning is that often learners have little self-confidence that they can reach their learning objectives and consequently, the learning project is often surrendered.

Experiential learning

The next theory that will be discussed is Kolb's (1984), experiential learning theory as described in his book, Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development. From the title of Kolb's book, it is relatively obvious that experiential learning theory refers to the belief that learning occurs through experience, or that experience is used as an embarkation for learning. Kolb reminds us that experiential learning is not an educational method, but a fact. He writes, "it is a statement of fact: People do *learn* from their experience." (Kolb, 1984, p. 6).

Kolb's model of learning is based on two dimensions, "prehending or grasping information and transforming or processing that information" (Marlowe, Branson, Childress & Parker, 1991, p. 157). The first dimension, grasping, can be associated with cognitive activities that range from concrete experience to abstract conceptualization. The second dimension involves cognitive abilities that can range from reflective observation to active experimentation. Further, Kolb's theory can be seen as cyclical in nature. He suggests that "learning occurs as the individual moves through a cycle of concrete experience, reflective observations, abstract conceptualization, and active participation." (Ibid).

It is helpful to understand how experiential learning theory fits into the history of education. The notion of learning through one's experiences was first touched on by the educator John Dewey in 1938. In an attempt to address the

conflict in the field of education between those who favored the "traditional" approach and those who favored the "progressive" approach, Dewey wrote Experience and Education, in which he suggested an alternative way of looking at education, namely education through experience. The educational community responded to his insights by incorporating experiential programs, such as internships and co-operative education, into traditional educational programs. In 1973, in an attempt to set up some practical and valid methodologies for assessing and evaluating what people had learned from prior work and life experience, the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning (CAEL) project was established in cooperation with the Educational Testing Service (ETS) (Kolb, 1984, p.7). It wasn't until 1984 that the theoretical issues and fundamental issues of experiential learning were organized into the cogent work of Kolb.

In addition to the contributions made by Dewey, much of the work done by Jean Piaget also formed a basis for the experiential theory of learning. Piaget, in studying the cognitive developmental processes of children, derived a "description of the learning process as a dialectic between assimilating experience into concepts and accommodating concepts to experience" (Kolb, p. 18). Piaget's theories of child development, in essence described the nature of intelligence and how it was shaped through experience. He found that younger children were not necessarily less intelligent than older children, rather they thought about things in a different way, since they had not had the same experiences as the older children. In addition, Piaget's work on epistemology, or the relationship between the structure of knowledge and how it is learned, further contributed to the notions that underlie Kolb's experiential theory of learning.

Kolb's theory was born out of the need to address the needs and concerns of those who were unable to learn through the "traditional" avenues of education. It attempted to adequately serve "those who had been previously excluded: minorities, the poor, workers, women, people in developing countries, and those in the arts (Ibid, p.18). There was a real need to come up with educational methods that could "translate the abstract ideas of academia into the concrete practical realities of these people's lives" (Ibid, p. 6). With this in mind, it appears that this theoretical approach is a good basis for this curriculum design in that the group that it intends to serve are those who have been "previously excluded."

Learning through experience often is conceptualized in a learning setting as learning through action, or "activities where the learners are physically as well as intellectually active during the learning process" (Seaman and Fellenz, p. 79). Some of the typical activities that are employed in a program based on experiential learning theory are role plays, task demonstrations, or field trips. At a later point in this paper it will be seen how these activities relate to the situational and task-based syllabus types used in the design of many adult ESL curricula.

In addition, Kolb sees experiential learning as a lifelong task. He notes, "the emphasis on the development toward a life of purpose and self-direction as the organizing principle for education" is common to the tradition of experiential learning. In summary, as well as having a firm hold in the theories behind lifelong and self-directed learning, the experiential learning theory is the basis from which Competency Based Education (CBE) and ultimately Adult Basic Education (ABE) were born.

Adult Basic Education/Competency-based Education

The next model of adult education that will be discussed is Adult Basic Education. This model also has led to the development of a similar model, Competency Based Education. CBE was born as a curriculum response to teaching basic skills to adults who were either unemployed or employed in the lower minimum-wage positions. Both CBE and ABE are outgrowths of the experiential learning theory. Researchers, believing that experience formed the basis for adult learning, began to design programs that involved a set list of competencies, or skills that could be learned by using them in daily life, or by experiencing them through role-play activities in classroom settings. The competencies were grouped into different levels and learners had to demonstrate a specific competency in order to move on to the next competency. In effect, learners were evaluated, through the successful demonstration of a particular competency.

It is helpful to understand a bit about the history and development of ABE and CBE in order to understand the goals of these programs. ABE grew out of the political agenda of the 1960's to fight a war against poverty within the United States (Rossman, Fisk, & Roehl, p. vii). In 1966, the Adult Education Act provided for state-administered programs with funding from the federal

government as part of the anti-poverty program (Ibid, p. 6). In 1964, The Economic Opportunity Act established a special program that would focus on the development of basic skills in reading, writing, numeracy and the English language (Ibid). In 1970, the U.S. census revealed that over 24 million adults, close to twenty five percent of the nation's labor force, did not have a high school diploma (Ibid, p.3). Although this often overlooked and neglected population had been a concern beginning in the 1980's, it was evident from the 1970 census that the undertaking of equipping adults with basic life skills and GED's would be a long and difficult process.

Over the years, the goals of these programs have changed to encompass other basic skills, as new populations entered the basic skills programs. In 1969, the programs began by preparing adults for the high school equivalency diploma, but then, a decade later in 1978, the programs became more involved in equipping adults with the skills necessary to function effectively in society. These skills became known as "life skills" and involved skills associated with banking, physical and mental health, or child care. 1974 posed other problems, since many adults entering the basic skills programs were those with limited English proficiency and the focus shifted to teaching language skills. In 1976, there was a new group of limited English speaking adults. As a result of the Vietnam War, many Indochinese refugees began to emigrate to the U.S. This new group of learners shifted the focus not only to language skills, but a combination of language skills, basic "life" or "survival" skills, and pre-employment training (Ibid, p. 7).

Parker and Taylor define competency based education as "a performance-based process leading to demonstrated mastery of basic life skills necessary for the individual to function proficiently in society" (1980, p. 12-13). One may ask how "basic life skills" are determined. Researchers at the University of Texas at Austin were commissioned by the U.S. Office of Education to examine a broad variety of tasks that they saw as common to the adult experience in American society. The study, known as the Adult Performance Level Study (APL), collected and then analyzed various tasks, categorizing them into five knowledge areas and four basic skill areas. The knowledge areas are Occupational, Health, Consumer, Government and Law, and Community Resources and the four basic skill areas are communication, computation, problem solving and interpersonal relationships (Center for

Applied Linguistics (CAL), 1983, p. 9). The communication skill can be broken down into the four subcomponents of speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Competency-based education in adult ESL programs

Educators in the field of ESL have adapted the Competency Based Education model to adult ESL programs. This is a somewhat natural outgrowth, since "ESL classes account for at least one-third of all ABE courses" (Ibid). Grognet & Crandall define CBE as it is used in adult ESL programs: "A competency-based curriculum is a performance-based outline of language tasks that lead to a demonstrated mastery of the language associated with specific skills that are necessary for individuals to function proficiently in the society in which they live" (1982, p.3). In making a connection between CBE, ESL and the field of second language acquisition (SLA), one can see that CBE is in line with the current theories of SLA that "meaning-based communicative language instruction is more effective than grammar-based, form-oriented teaching" (Auerbach, 1986, p. 413). The instructional focus is "not what the students *know about* the language, but what they can *do with* the language" (CAL, p. 11).

In the field of adult ESL there is basically one comprehensive curriculum that identifies the competencies that are thought to be appropriate for refugee programs. It was developed by the Mainstream English Language (MELT) project and has become the curriculum and evaluation standard for most refugee programs. The MELT curriculum lists seven main topics, which can be equated with the APL knowledge areas. The MELT topics are as follows: Banking, Community Services, Employment, Health, Housing, Shopping, and Transportation. Within each of these topics are specific competencies, for example, a competency for banking at level one would be that the student will be able to demonstrate the ability to endorse a check, or provide proper identification when cashing a check. Each of the competencies are grouped according to levels, one through five. See Appendix A for an example of the topics and competencies for level one. Texts have adapted the MELT curriculum and can be used along side, or in lieu of the MELT curriculum. Examples of such texts are English for Adult Competency, Book One and Two (Keltner, Howard & Lee, 1990 and Keltner & Bitterlin, 1990) and Real Life

English: A Competency-Based ESL Program for Adults (Jolly & Robinson, 1988).

The reason CBE has been widely used in refugee programs does not necessarily have to do with its effectiveness; few studies have attempted to show the effectiveness of CBE programs for adult ESL. On the other hand, the reason that CBE is adapted in such situations is because the U.S. Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR) requires that refugees who wish to receive federal assistance payments be enrolled in a competency-based program (Auerbach, p. 412). Furthermore, refugees who wish to receive Refugee Cash and Medical Assistance must participate in the Refugee Education and Employment Program (REEP) which has been mandated to use the MELT curriculum (Ibid). Since the policy of the ORR stipulates that "the most important adjustment for all refugees to make is to become economically self-sufficient through employment" (MacDonald, 1990, p. 71), it is apparent that the competency-based programs which are designed with the goal of early employment in mind are seen as appropriate for the federal budget as well as for the political agenda. This point will be discussed and clarified at a later point in connection with the experiences of Tollefson in the refugee camps of Southeast Asia (1986, p. 653).

The Center for Applied Linguistics (1983, p. 11-12), identifies several advantages and disadvantages of CBE adult ESL programs. One of the benefits is that CBE is aimed at being relevant to the learner's situation or experience. Another benefit is that the goals are simple and concrete, which helps to lower a learner's anxiety about the successful achievement of goals. The CBE program is also very flexible and can be adapted to an individual learner's needs or goals. This flexibility in turn creates the individualization that has been noted by adult educational theorists as an important feature in the adult learning atmosphere. Some of the disadvantages of CBE adult ESL programs are that there are problems with assessment and evaluation as well as difficulties in identifying and selecting appropriate competencies. This specific difficulty has been Tollefson's main focus in his evaluation of the Indochinese refugee education programs in Southeast Asia.

Criticisms of competency-based education programs

A handful of authors have criticized the competency-based programs or refugee specific programs (e.g., Tollefson, 1986, 1988, 1989; Auerbach, 1986; and MacDonald, 1990), while others focused their critical attentions on the materials or texts used in such programs (e.g., Auerbach and Burgess, 1985; Cathcart; 1989). Tollefson, who spent time developing a curriculum and teaching in the refugee processing centers (RPC's), or refugee camps, in Indochina during the late 1970's and early 1980's, has observed several problems with the competency-based programs as they were employed in Southeast Asia and suggests that these problems are inherent to many ESL/CBE programs.

One of the particular problems was that competencies were selected based on the subjective decisions of those who designed the curriculum. This problem, he claims, occurs since there is no scientific procedure available to validate the competencies, nor is there any known research technique by which they can be discovered (Tollefson, 1986, p. 652). The way in which competencies were determined was through consensus of the administrators and instructors who participated in this particular refugee ESL program (Ibid). From Tollefson's viewpoint, this is one of the major problems which undermines the entire basis of competency-based programs.

As a result of the administrators' identifying the needs or competencies, of the Southeast Asian refugees, the competencies were not necessarily matched to the refugees' actual needs; they were competencies that the administrators perceived, or valued as important (Tollefson, 1989, p. 66-69). For example, in Appendix B, there is a sampling of several competencies from each of the three components of instruction that made up the programs at the three Refugee Processing Centers (RPC's) in Southeast Asia. The three components were Cultural Orientation (CO), Pre-employment Training (PET), and ESL. In consulting these lists, Tollefson finds that

> **"these competencies...encourage refugees to consider themselves fortunate to find minimum-wage employment, regardless of their previous education. Moreover, the competencies attempt to inculcate attitudes and values that will make refugees passive citizens who comply rather than complain, accept rather than resist, and apologize rather than disagree." (1986, p.656-657).**

Tollefson claims that there is a belief in the administrative and political sectors that make the decisions regarding these program. This belief views refugees as poor workers, who must be taught to adhere to American values and work ethics, who will otherwise opt for the easy way out by becoming a federal welfare recipient. This myth, in my opinion, is clearly a clash of two differing cultures' beliefs and values, where the dominant culture feels it can dictate its culture to the less dominant group, thereby "Americanizing" as opposed to acculturating new refugees.

To take this issue one step further, it is embedded in the political policies regarding current practices toward refugees. Although many of the refugees admitted prior to 1980 were generally well-educated and had worked for Western firms previously (Penfield, 1986, p. 47-48), Tollefson views the government as having a hidden agenda; to socialize refugees into the levels of American society where they cannot gain access to levels of power and higher socio-economic status. In other words, according to Tollefson, refugees were trained specifically to occupy the entry level, minimum-wage positions - to do the "dirty work" - and in turn to provide a subservient labor force to serve the dominant, powerful culture.

Since the history of the U.S. involvement in Vietnam and Southeast Asia is a complicated one without clear closure, it is possible that the U.S. government, as a last resort to achieving their political objectives in Vietnam, have tried to further demean these people by reducing their socio-economic status to the lowest strata of American society. Tollefson's views are insightful; nevertheless, I believe, his concerns are not intended to be understood as conscious decisions on the part of the federal administration who funds these refugee programs. This issue is probably more clearly identified as an unconscious decision to follow procedures that seemed to be in line with limited funding and time. However, Tollefson's point that the curriculum decisions made by administrators who are operating on mythological beliefs and subjective views about the refugee situation is an important criticism that can be addressed through raising administrators' multicultural awareness and through curriculum change by means of informed and educated decisions.

Tollefson also notes the lack of assistance from professionals in the field of Teaching English as Second Language in the development of the programs in the RPC's. In addition, instructors often lack qualifications for teaching. Between 1981 and 1986, only two professionals from the international

organization of ESL professionals, TESOL, visited the overseas camps to act as short-term consultants (Tollefson, 1989, p. 99). Furthermore, the instructors who were hired to teach courses had little or no education in the field of ESL or other relevant areas of education; and as such, incorporating recent developments in the field of ESL or language teaching was relatively nonexistent. This problem also stems from the inability to attract professionals to these positions, since the salary is usually quite low and the conditions of teaching are not commensurate with what most professionals expect. At the management level, only two of the twelve managers held graduate degrees in ESL or linguistics and the deputy director of the program did not have a degree in either ESL or linguistics (Ibid). The lack of professionals with knowledge of current research only added to the problems already discussed.

Following from Tollefson's criticisms, Auerbach & Burgess (1985) address one specific issue of the CBE adult ESL programs, namely the materials and texts. They reevaluate the theoretical assumptions and the social implications of text materials used in adult survival English programs by reviewing relevant text materials in an attempt to determine to what degree the content reflects what the ESL learners actually encounter in the real world, and to what degree the language forms mirror forms used in the real world. The authors believe an anomaly exists between the text materials and reality and argue that the "reality" presented in text materials shapes the true reality of the learners - a reality of a low socioeconomic status, subservience, and even discrimination.

The authors examined situational dialogues for their authenticity. The functions and skills presented in the dialogues were based on the topics commonly found in the adult ESL genre, such as banking, housing, health care, employment, etc.... The authors found that the dialogues were oversimplified and inept at dealing with a range of possible problems that could arise in a real situation. They also found that the dialogues reflected the interests of people with middle class socioeconomic status, which would be difficult to relate to if you were not of the same status, as are most refugees and immigrants upon arrival in the United States. It was also found that the linguistic functions, (speech acts) of asking for approval, clarification, reassurance and permission were often included in the text materials, while the speech acts of praising, criticizing, complaining, refusing and disagreeing were excluded, giving

learners a disadvantage in certain situations such as when trying to get their landlord to fix a broken pipe.

An example of some of the actual dialogues that were presented in the article illustrate the authors claims that the texts are unrealistic and that certain linguistic functions, such as those mentioned, are completely ignored. For example, dialogue one and two are samples from actual texts, while number three is an excerpt from a story printed in the Boston Globe about the housing problems of Indochinese refugees in Boston.

One

A: The kitchen has a new sink and stove...The bedroom has a beautiful river view.
B: Yes, it does. How many closets are there?
A: Three closets and linen closet. The bathroom is very modern.
B: Does it have a shower and a bathtub?
A: Yes, it does.
B: I like it. I'll take it.
(Freeman 1982:53)

Two

You have to be quiet in an apartment. You have to clean it and take care of it. Talk to the landlord if you have problems...If you don't like your apartment, or if it's expensive, you can move.
(Walsh 1984:53)

Three

"We buy the diapers, the Huggies," Le Suong was saying. "In the cold, they are good to stuff in the cracks by the window."

"But it's not the cold that is the biggest problem," Nguyen Van Sau said. "It is getting somebody to come when things get broke, when the ceiling cracks or when people get scared of a fire like there was at number 4."

"We call, 10, 15 times and nobody comes. All I want is them to clean and make the rats go so children will not be near them," he said.

"I tell them once about a rat and the man, he say to eat it," Sing Ha, 9 said. "He laugh and say we eat dogs so we can eat rats too."
(Barnicle 1984)

The authors note, "The situation of tenants who are forced either to accept poor conditions or fight to have them changed is usually not mentioned in survival texts. While tenants' responsibilities in the areas of sanitation and upkeep are discussed at length, landlord's obligations are largely omitted." (Auerbach & Burgess, p. 481). The authors add that by not presenting the true realities for refugees and immigrants can only add to feelings of confusion and helplessness in a new community.

There are some additional concerns that are inherent in many of the competency-based programs. One is that these programs enable students to perform behaviors, yet they do not foster the higher order critical skills that are necessary as part of daily survival. Auerbach notes that CBE programs often presuppose that these higher order skills cannot be mastered until basic skills have been mastered (1986, p. 419). In connection to this, she notes that in CBE "students are taught to receive knowledge rather than to generate it" (p. 417). London (quoted in Collins 1983), in an critical evaluation of CBE programs in adult education claims that "Increasingly a premium must be placed not so much on what to think, but on how to think critically"(p. 181). Auerbach suggests that equipping learners with skills for critical thinking and evaluation would be more helpful tools than the learning of "situation-specific behaviors" (Auerbach, p. 419). Along this same vein, Auerbach points out that much of CBE is outcome based and therefore minimizes the facet of learning that is unpredictable. Further, learners become overly concerned with successful demonstration of specific competencies and they lose out on aspects of learning through discovery (Ibid, p. 420). Finally she suggests that CBE is not in line with current thinking in second language acquisition research, as was suggested by the Center for Applied Linguistics, since successful completion of competencies emphasizes precision and dichotomous (i.e., right/wrong) responses (Ibid, p. 421). It is the current trend in SLA that mistakes and hypothesis-testing are part of the nature of language learning, which Auerbach describes as "creative and unpredictable; learning a language involves not the successive acquisition of discrete forms,...but the progressive approximations" (Ibid, p. 422).

Alternative Approaches

In response to these criticisms Tollefson (1986) suggests some alternative theoretical approaches, such as basing curriculum design on the task-based approach as outlined by Long (1983), or reverting back to grammar-based approach, although it has its own drawbacks. In short, Tollefson does not provide many realistic alternatives to CBE. One particular problem is that abandoning CBE programs is not a financially sound decision for the refugee, since, as previously mentioned, the ORR requires that refugee families receiving federal assistance be enrolled in CBE programs. Until this policy is

amended or changed, eliminating CBE from adult ESL programs is useless. Another alternative offered by Auerbach is that competencies can be viewed "*as tools*, in which competencies are one tool among many in the process of enabling students to act for change in their lives" (p. 426).

The International Refugee Center of Oregon (IRCO), has come up with some innovative ways of redesigning those aspects of the CBE programs that Tollefson criticized. For example, the pre-employment training component of instruction attempts to "assist refugees in identifying and successfully coping with the cultural patterns, barriers, similarities and differences that exist in the American work place vis-a-vis their home countries" (MacDonald, 1990, p. 72). The IRCO adapts a multicultural approach to the use of CBE where learners can negotiate what competencies they feel are necessary for their survival. In addition, the competency goals for this component are much broader than simply being able to ask for an available job. They involve being able to assess their own skills and abilities, explore job opportunities in the local job market, set realistic short, as well as long-term, employment goals, fill out job application forms, complete successful interviews and write resumes (Ibid, p. 72).

In the adult ESL pre-employment program run by IRCO, there were three conditions that helped the program administrators and instructors to accomplish their goals. First of all, they had a multi-ethnic group of students that MacDonald claims "encourages the groups to find common ground, to help each other, and to hopefully overcome stereotypes and prejudices they may have of each other" and that "Such interaction encourages the use of English as a common language and introduces the new arrivals to the ideal of the integration and pluralism in the American work place and society." (Ibid, p. 73). Another feature of the program was that in-class interpreters for each language were available for one day a week. Finally, amount of time spent in instruction, a critical element for success, was abundant. Instruction ran for four to six weeks with three hours of instruction per day for five days a week. Level A, the beginning group, received a total of 90 hours of instruction and Level B, the more advanced group, received a total of 60 hours of instruction (Ibid).

Adaptations to the BRRC setting

Given the conditions that were present in the IRCO programs, achieving goals of early-employment (not only in minimum wage positions) is a possibility; however, these three conditions are not present in the setting for which I am designing the present curriculum. In addition, the Bosnian refugees have an added barrier to early employment, namely the job market. These refugees have been resettled in a small college town where minimum wage is $4.00/hr and many eligible workers with college degrees can only find work in these minimum wage positions.

The issues raised by the authors who have criticized the theoretical assumptions underlying CBE are important and should not be overlooked; however, incorporating them into the specific setting with the Bosnian refugees is extremely difficult, if not impossible. First of all, there are the restrictions set by the federal government regarding refugee specific education. As previously mentioned, refugees must be participating in a CBE ESL program in order to receive their federal assistance payments.

One answer is to continue CBE, but revise the aspects that have been criticized. I will make an attempt to take these considerations into account wherever possible. Nevertheless, there is yet another answer to this predicament. Since the learners in this setting are limited by the amount of time they can spend in ESL instruction and by the amount of time they have in order to find a job, the response to this situation is to try to enable the learners as much as possible to learn on their own from their experiences after their tutoring sessions have ended. By combining the theories of adult education presented in this paper, self-directed learning, experiential learning and CBE, I believe the learner can be empowered and equipped with the skills to continue learning on their own, through their experiences. CBE, with its structured format of goals and competencies to be demonstrated, can set a framework which the learners can use to set their own goals and continue learning through self-direction. It seems quite natural to take a combined theoretical approach in the design of this curriculum, since, as I previously mentioned, these theories are reflections, or outgrowths of one another.

Furthermore, many of the curriculum designs that have been written for adult ESL programs are for settings in which there are learners from different backgrounds in classroom situations. Few curriculum designs have been

written for situations in which the instruction is conducted as a one-on-one session either at the student's home, or a common meeting place by volunteer tutors, who for the most part are inexperienced educators. In this particular setting, the tutoring sessions serve as remedial, or supportive instruction, since the refugees are enrolled for two days a week in an adult ESL program (CBE) at a local community college. I have found that in many situations where volunteer tutors are involved, little if any thought is given to the design of the program. In many of these situations, there is no structure and volunteers end up being a "conversation partner," which at times is helpful and important; however, structure and specification of goals and objectives is important especially in situations where time is of the essence. Moreover, many volunteers notice that their student is not progressing and in turn the volunteer feels ineffective. I believe that volunteers have had this experience because of the lack of orientation and training they receive. By designing a curriculum that will provide the instructors with guidance and orientation, these remedial sessions will be gainful for both the student and for the volunteer's feelings of helpfulness and accomplishment.

A brief history of refugee specific education

Before the late nineteenth century, there was little need to develop special programs for the non-English speaker. However, the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries brought waves of immigrants previously unseen in the United States. The immigrants, mostly from eastern and southern European countries, brought with them their own cultures, languages and traditions. They mostly stayed within their own neighborhoods and had their own community-run schools, but in the early 1900's the federal government began a movement to "Americanize" the foreigner. In 1914, the United States Bureau of Education started to "sponsor programs for the education and assimilation of the immigrant" (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983, p. 4). In the early decades of the twentieth century, the instructional goals of the night schools for immigrants, commonly known as "Americanization" schools, were to teach immigrants to become like Americans, to look and act like Americans. The focus of the courses was on citizenship and English language; however, English was "a by-product of the desire to teach American values and customs" and "emphasis was on grammatical correctness, on isolated vocabulary learning, and on

learning through English about American history, geography, government, and literature (Ibid, p. 4-5). For those interested in getting a feel for the language classrooms of this era, I suggest reading the semi-fictitious novel, The Education of H * Y* M * A * N K * A * P * L * A * N, which describes the ESL and citizenship training of a Jewish immigrant in New York City.

Presently, the field of adult ESL that handles the education and acculturation of immigrants and refugees has changed. Notions about how language should be taught is probably where the biggest changes have occurred. No longer is the focus on grammatical correctness and knowledge about the language; rather instructors concentrate on improving a learner's overall communicative competence, or their ability to use the language in communication. Although these changes have come, issues of acculturation or assimilation remain embedded in these adult ESL programs. Recalling the criticisms of Tollefson (1986, 1988, &1989) and others (Auerbach, 1986 & MacDonald, 1990), it appears as though the agenda to assimilate or "Americanize" immigrants and refugees has not completely changed. On the other hand, currently it appears as if the goal of assimilation is less obvious than it was earlier this century. Auerbach, in referring to CBE, remarks that when it is placed within its historical context, it can be seen "as part of a tradition of socializing immigrants for specific roles in the existing socioeconomic order" (1986, p. 411). This quote sums up what is true today and what was true in 1925.

Throughout the history of refugee resettlement and (re)education, there has not been an abundance of research that has focused on refugee specific education. Most of the research has focused on the education of refugee children, not their parents. Preston writes, "There is a need for studies of the extent to which such education serves the immediate and long-term interests of both those who provide and those who receive it, and of the implications for development." (1991, p. 62). She also notes that the greatest number of studies have focused on refugees in industrial nations who have resettled permanently or for a lengthy period of time. Little research, if any, has focused on those refugees who seek temporary asylum or who are exiled for a period of time before returning to their country of origin. Preston argues that the need for research is important since "the numbers of people who seek refuge across international boundaries will continue to increase, the length of time that the displaced are likely to spend in places of temporary and restricted residence,

and in sometimes difficult conditions, will continue to grow." (Ibid, p. 63). She maintains that these people deserve more from education than simply the maintenance of their physical welfare.

By briefly reviewing the history of refugee specific programs, one can note that two major goals of these programs have remained consistent: language learning and assimilation into the new culture. It is not so much these particular goals that have been criticized, rather it is the way in which these goals have been achieved or realized that has been criticized. Researchers such as Tollefson (1989) and Preston (1991) point to the lack of a true needs analysis prior to designing a curriculum. For example, rarely are the refugees' real needs taken into account. More often, it is the needs that administrators perceive, or think are appropriate for the refugee situation that form the basis for decisions about the program and curriculum design. This is a difficult issue to address, since it is unlikely that refugees will write their own curriculum, although it has been suggested (Tollefson, 1989). However, they can be interviewed in their native language to discover their actual needs. This is an important move, since with this particular group, each individual has quite different needs from each other and although, they may not all be taken into account in the overall design of the curriculum, individual tutors can be informed about the specific needs of their learner and can try to help him/her achieve the goals associated with these needs.

Chapter Three

Needs analysis

The contextual or situational needs of refugees in general has been decided based upon current research and practice within the field of adult ESL refugee specific education. These needs are addressed first and have been labeled as "refugee specific needs." The learners in this particular group, the Bosnian refugees, were interviewed by a speaker of Serbo-Croatian shortly after their arrival and what they have identified as their needs remains in a folder with their personal background information and is available to teachers and administrators. In a review of all of these folders, similar needs have been identified and have been labeled as "Bosnian needs," since they are common to this particular group of refugees. After general refugee needs and Bosnian specific needs have been determined, the three particular levels within this larger group will be identified and the contextual needs specific to each of these levels will be discussed. Also, at this point, the learning and language needs of these three groups will be discussed with regard to the specific program, since they will vary according to the level of the learners.

Refugee specific needs

There are two different types of needs that refugees experience. There are the short term, or immediate, needs and the long-term, or postponed needs. An example of an immediate need is getting a job to provide an income to pay for food and shelter. A postponed need would be something like having respect from co-workers in the work place. The immediate needs are considered in this curriculum design as more important, since the program has a limited amount of time and since decisions about what is more pressing and urgent are taken into account. On the contrary, the less immediate needs are not altogether forgotten; they are always available as part of a student file for teachers and administrators to consult. It is important to make the distinction between immediate and postponed needs, since it will be difficult to take the postponed needs into account in designing this curriculum. Postponed needs differ from

student to student, while the immediate needs tend to be common to the group as a whole.

One of the first contextual needs of an adult refugee is the need to learn. All of a sudden one is thrown into a situation where one must learn or relearn many things. A change in life circumstances occurs unexpectedly and the refugee must learn rapidly to adapt to the new situation. Learning the new language is certainly a factor, and Smith (1982) has noted the special anxieties in learning a second language. He writes that "some of this anxiety and its attendant resistance to learning is believed to result from adults' negative reactions to the need for almost complete dependence on others (e.g., a teacher) in the early phases of language learning." (p. 46). Methodology also poses problems, since adult learners may have preferences as to how they best learn.

As well as learning the language, one must also learn new skills in order to integrate oneself into the new and unfamiliar job market. This can be particularly challenging since many refugees come from backgrounds where they have only agricultural skills. When they come to the United States, an industrial nation with a job market that focuses on a service industry, the refugees must adapt by learning the skills necessary to integrate into the American work place. Skills, such as the ability to politely serve people in a cafeteria or restaurant, may be foreign to the refugee's experience. Most likely, adults will find this uncomfortable and also perhaps out of line with their cultural beliefs. Moreover, there are other novel skills that may have to be learned as the American work place becomes more modernized and technologically advanced. For example, using a cash register may be a skill that a refugee, who has spent his/her life farming, has never had to do. Finally, it is interesting to note that "during periods of transition, or following major change events, adults appear receptive to education and learning related to reassessing their personal goals, reasserting themselves as valued members of society, and reconfirming their self-esteems." (Smith, 1982, p. 43).

In addition to learning new job skills and a new language, refugees must also learn the new culture. For many years assimilation has been a goal of refugee specific education; however, it is not a goal that is consistent with the refugees' needs. For example, the Bosnian refugees that were interviewed indicated that they were not necessarily interested in becoming "Americans." In their interviews they noted that they were interested in adapting the aspects of

American culture that they needed for survival. Several of the refugees indicated that they were also interested in accepting certain aspects of American culture that they viewed as valuable, yet in doing so they wanted to maintain as much of their cultural background as they could. Although many of the refugees were interested in becoming an American citizen, they did not believe that it was necessary to sacrifice their original culture, traditions and language, since they had observed that, in the United States, there are many people with different languages, cultures and customs that call themselves "Americans".

With the refugees' needs in mind, I would like to make a distinction between what has been a tradition in refugee programs, assimilation, and what these refugees actually prefer; acculturation. Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines these terms in the following manner:

> **assimilate** To absorb ...to the cultural tradition of a population or group.
> **acculturate** To cha... by a process of intercultural borrowing between diverse peoples resulting in new and blended patterns.

From these definitions, it appears as though acculturation is more in line with what the refugees want as they adapt to the new culture. Therefore, in the remainder of this paper, this term will be used to refer to the cultural adaptation process which the refugees and their families will pass through. The cultural orientation goal of this program will be to assist refugees in acculturation, not assimilation.

The condition of being a refugee can often be characterized as a state of limbo. Persecution drives them away from their homelands, yet when they arrive in their country of repatriation they are often not received with overly warm welcomes. They may still be subject to prejudice even in their resettlement country. They are often treated as sub-citizens, since, in fact, they are not yet officially citizens, although they have legal rights to work and education. There are often negative attitudes from residents of the resettlement country, since the tax dollars of these residents are used to support refugees in their first several months of resettlement and many falsely group refugees with other welfare recipients, which, in the United States, carries a stigma. Moreover, the resettlement period may last only months or may last years. Their repatriation may be temporary from the outset, but become permanent as

33

refugee families become settled and as returning to their homeland becomes a difficult bureaucratic procedure.

Bosnian refugee needs

The Bosnian learners are all from the same linguistic and cultural background. They all speak the same language, Serbo-Croatian, which they refer to by the less emotionally and politically charged term, Bosnian. However, they are not all from the same socio-economic level. Many are working-class people, yet others are professionals. Most of the families were at higher socio-economic levels in their home country, before the war, but now in United States they live poorer lives. For example, in Bosnia many of the families had a house, which most likely was built by hand and remained in the family for generations. Presently, many of the families live in small apartments or trailer homes that are over-crowded with several family members under the same roof. Many Americans think that the Bosnian refugee living in the United States is happy - happy to be alive and happy to be in the United States, the "land of opportunity." Certainly the refugees are happy to be alive but, unfortunately, people who think they are happy to be in the United States are mistaken. The Bosnian situation is not a positive situation. It was something they had to do and/or the best outcome for an unfavorable situation.

Although most students show an interest in learning English and overcoming the recent events in their harried lives, there are a few who are very resistant toward the instruction. They see it as an infringement on their own culture and their resistance stems from a dislike of American culture, people, and politics. It appears that this attitude comes largely from the fact that the many nations of the world, especially the United States, have ignored the situation in Bosnia. Many are angered by the fact that President Clinton would not allow arms to be distributed to the Muslims in order to give them a fighting chance. They tend to be very vocal about their feelings towards Americans and (falsely) perceive all Americans as responsible for their not being able to fight back against the Serbians and Croatians. This negative attitude towards Americans, and sometimes toward their tutors, creates problems, since these learners need English in order to get jobs and survive in the United States. Nevertheless, some refuse or resist the instruction.

Another factor which affects the Bosnian situation is the fact that they have resettled in a moderately small Western American town, Boulder, Colorado, which can be characterized as a college town. In college towns there are usually a limited number of professional jobs available. Many may be employed by the university; nevertheless access to these jobs is often difficult for people with appropriate credentials, since positions are usually filled as a result of national and/or international searches. The available positions in the job market in Boulder generally fall into the service sector and even these positions can be difficult to find. Restaurants and retail stores are the main employers of the college students and college graduates and generally only offer part-time work. Many of the Bosnians have come to the United States expecting to find employment commensurate with their abilities, skills and experience; however, what they find is that the job market is glutted and even those with higher educations (college graduates) are also employed in the service sector of the job market. The situation in Boulder makes finding better than entry-level jobs for the Bosnians an almost impossible task.

Because of the differences between their way of life before the war and their current socio-economic condition, there are other needs that come into play. For example, the refugee's life is so busy with trying to care for a family, find a job, and learn English that they have little or no time for leisure activities. Furthermore, leisure time is often closely linked with a certain culture. In the United States, for example, leisure time is regarded as a priority. There are many reflections of this in our culture. Restaurants, movies, parties, vacations, and weekends are examples. In other cultures, leisure time is not as highly valued. Work is seen as a priority, generally because there is no time for leisure, which is viewed as wasteful and unproductive. Many of the Bosnian families have a very strong work ethic and feel very uncomfortable about not having any work in their first few months of repatriation. Although the Bosnian people definitely do enjoy leisure activities, they are not as high a priority as they are for many Americans. In addition, it is rare that the refugee families have money or time to take part in leisure activities and usually would prefer not to be reminded of this fact. This is important in selecting appropriate topics for lessons. A lesson on going to the movies and dinner on a Friday night may not be suitable.

One particular problem associated with the Bosnian learners is that they are continuing to suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder as a result of the

atrocities they have been victims of or have witnessed. Some of the symptoms of this disorder are insomnia (often as a result of nightmares), deep depression or withdrawal, appetite problems, difficulty in concentrating, suicidal tendencies, and the use of alcohol or drugs as a means of escape. In essence, the Bosnian refugee has lost everything not only physical objects or people who were close to them but also, faith in the way of life as they knew it. This loss of faith spreads to all arenas of life, causing physical, cognitive, spiritual, behavioral, emotional and relational problems. Many of the refugees have reported feelings of worthlessness, uncleanliness, isolation, vulnerability, powerlessness or hopelessness.

Program needs/constraints

In addition to the needs of the learners, there are also other limiting constraints on the program, such as time and availability of resources. Although an instructor may continue to teach a family past the six month limit, if a new refugee family arrives and available tutors are in short supply, the new family will have priority. In addition, tutoring often becomes more difficult after the six month period (when federal assistance runs out) as students must start working and no longer have time to devote to learning English. Therefore, the program goals need to be restricted to what is realistic within a six month time period.

Furthermore, resources are limited in that there is no funding for text materials. Books are donated to the committee by local community colleges, libraries, and universities. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, the instructors are all volunteers, which limits the expectations one can have about them or the restrictions one can put upon them. This is a very different relationship from a boss/employee relationship. The volunteer tutors are a vital resource to the program and their responsibilities as an ESL tutor can be found in Appendix C. Their training and orientation has been previously mentioned in the introductory background information regarding the setting of this program.

Three groups of learners

At this point in the paper, the group of learners will be broken down into three groups for the purposes of better identifying the learning and language needs of each group. There are adults who are either pre-literate in their own

language or have little previous education, or there are those who have more education, in terms of completion of high school and, or completion of university degrees. With such a wide range of students, not only in educational levels but also in interests and motivations for learning English, it is best to divide the students into three levels according to their learning needs.

The procedure for grouping learners begins with an interview. All learners are interviewed in their native language upon arrival to this program. Information regarding their previous educational and employment experience is collected. In addition, the refugees are given a placement test in their native language, to give an idea of what their native language proficiency is. For those who are pre-literate the test is generally an oral interview. For those who are literate, the test consists of answering a few oral questions and writing a short paragraph. The test is used only for assessment and placement. The information that is collected remains in their personal background folders and is available to administrators and instructors upon request.

The learners who are pre-literate and want to be trained for literacy will be placed in level A. Students with educational levels of a US grade twelve equivalent or less will be placed in level B. Those who do not want/need literacy training will also be placed in level B. In other words, students who have not completed high school, or do not have what would be equivalent to the U.S. high school diploma or GED certificate will be placed at this level. Also, those students who have had no prior English instruction will be placed at this level. These two programs will be considered adult ESL programs as defined in the footnote earlier in this paper. Level A and level B will not differ much in the material that is presented, but in level B material will be covered at a faster rate and more in depth. Level A will cover many of the same topics as covered in level B, but there will be more of a focus on developing literacy skills. Learners who have successfully completed level A can move on to level B.

Those learners who have some English ability, an advanced academic degree, or those who have completed level B will be placed in level C. From the student background portfolios, it appears that students who report advanced university or graduate degrees have also had some exposure to English through formal instruction or use of English in the work place. Level C is a program that will be more characteristic of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs, since a handful of students have completed high school, or university and have shown interest in preparing for advanced degrees. In

general, learners will start out in either level A or B and if time and the desired motivation permits, they will move into level C.

At this point it is also helpful to indicate the number of hours learners spend in instruction per week. Level A and B students usually spend two hours per week in instruction with a tutor, although if students would like more instruction time and tutors are available, instructional time can be as much as four hours per week. Level C students are usually highly motivated and want at least four hours of instruction per week. So long as tutors are available, this amount of instruction is provided. In addition, students of all levels have the opportunity to participate in the two hour Saturday afternoon classroom-style learning at their mosque.

One of the purposes of grouping the students in this way was so that each group's needs could be considered separately. The groups are similar in many ways, such as national and language background and as such some of their needs will be similar, yet they are also different from one another. It will be necessary to consider the needs of the individual groups separately in order to create an effective ESL program that will be beneficial for each group of learners. First, I will begin by discussing the contextual, linguistic and learning issues in relation to level A, but as many of these may overlap in discussing the issues as they relate to level B & C, only the major differences will be stated.

Specific levels - Needs analysis

Level A

The learners at this level are all either pre-literate, that is they have not yet learned to read or write in any language, or they are semi-literate, with a literacy ability to about a US grade six level. Some of them, the males in general, want to get jobs or improve their current employment situation and their illiteracy is preventing them from doing so. In the United States today, if one wants to advance in their employment, they will no doubt be required to have at the very least a functional literacy ability. Functional literacy is defined by Williams and Capizzi-Snipper (1990, p. 4) as "the ability to read and write well enough to understand signs, read newspaper headlines, fill out job applications, make shopping lists, and write checks." Therefore, one goal of this program is to bring these students to at least a level of functional literacy. In

addition, to literacy, survival skills will also be taught. One additional goal of this program would be to prepare a student to move to level B as a result of completing level A.

Most of these learners are interested in becoming literate as well as learning the language of the community. Their motivation also seems to be instrumental, in that the learners are interested in using the language for personal gains, such as employment. Some students are also quite frightened about taking on the steps to literacy. They are insecure and apprehensive about venturing into this unknown territory so late in their life. Often the learners' fear of failure can interfere with their desire to learn. These students, interestingly, are generally not aware of any particular inadequacy. In the United States, many illiterate people are ashamed if they are unable to read and try to hide their inability, but the Bosnians, many who came from small peasant towns, are not ashamed of their inability to read or write. Most likely, illiteracy was a norm in these rural areas and was not an issue, as it is in the United States. This is helpful to the instructor because the added task of helping the learner overcome their inadequacy or lack of self-confidence is not as large a factor as in the literacy training of U.S. adults.

There are two broad theoretical models which can be used to describe how learning takes place. One model is termed the analytic syllabus and the other the synthetic. Synthetic syllabi assume that the learner will best learn when language is presented in broken-down parts and the learner then has the opportunity to recombine the parts into the whole. When a learner uses this approach to language learning it is often termed bottom-up processing. The analytic syllabus assumes that the learner can take the language as a whole and then decompose it into its parts. This approach to language learning is often termed top-down processing. Each of these syllabus types assumes a model of learning and from this model of learning the syllabus type makes certain judgments about the presentation of the material or language. Within these broad theoretical models are sub-syllabus types which range from highly synthetic (the grammatical syllabus) to highly analytic (the content syllabus).

For the purposes of this level and levels B and C, the broad syllabus type that will form the basis for instructional presentation will be the analytic syllabus type. The basis for this decision is that for these adult learners, no matter what level, emphasis on meaning is most important and analytic syllabi present language in a way that emphasizes meaning more than form. In addition,

analytic syllabi are akin to Kolb's experiential model or theory of learning. Long & Crookes note that analytic syllabi "emphasize the process of learning rather than the subject matter" (1992, p. 29). Furthermore, the analytic syllabus is based on "the learner's analytic capabilities, since we are inviting the learner, directly or indirectly, to recognize the linguistic components of the language behavior he is acquiring." (Wilkins 1976, p. 14). The reason behind selecting this theoretical model for all the levels is that typically the analytic syllabus relies on authentic materials and activity types that engage the learners in true communication (Long & Crookes, 1992, p. 30). As already indicated, it has been found that instruction that is meaningful and that helps learners with some real function that one must perform in their daily life (i.e., communication) is best-suited for adult learners. Furthermore, analytic syllabi, according to Long and Crookes, assume a model of language acquisition which is supported by research findings in second language acquisition (Ibid, p. 30-31).

The sub-syllabus types that will be incorporated differ slightly from level to level. At this level, the two main types of syllabus that will be a basis for instructional presentation are the task-based and skill-based syllabi. In a task-based syllabus, the basis for each lesson is a particular problem or task. It can also be defined as a "series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students need or want to perform with the target language" (Krahnke 1987, p. 13). For example, the students may need to complete the task of writing an absence note for one of their children, filling out a job application, or writing a check. In the skill-based syllabus, the student is taught a specific ability which may be required in the use of the target language. These skills can range from more abstract analytic skills such as recognizing language or text patterns or more concrete skills such as how to make an effective telephone call.

These two syllabus types will form the basis for presentation of the literacy instruction. The survival skills component at this level will be identical to level B in its theoretical basis and in how instruction is presented and will be discussed in connection with level B. Furthermore, the basic methodology for survival skills instruction for both level A and B will not differ and this will also be discussed in connection to level B. The only difference between the survival component at level A and level B is that level B will cover more material than level A. Therefore, only the differences in the specific material presented for the level A survival program will be indicated in this section. However, the central

focus, the literacy instruction and its appropriate methodology and language issues, will be discussed first.

In choosing an appropriate method of literacy instruction, one must consider the characteristics of those who have existed in an oral tradition without writing. It has been noted that those who come from oral traditions, like the Hmong refugees that came to the United States during the 1970's, often have difficulty conceiving of "spoken words as separate from object or deeds" (Shuter, 1994, p.213). For example, uttering the sound for an object is not meant to be symbolic of the object. Uttering the sound is as strong as seeing the object and holding it. Furthermore, cultural information and messages are passed along through the telling of stories or narratives (Ibid, p. 214). Personal narratives form an important part of an oral tradition and we will see how this can be incorporated into some of the activities that are carried out in the classroom. Furthermore, in an oral society, people who have good memories and can recall details precisely are highly valued since memory is the only basis for the transmission of information. Finally, one point ties in very well with Kolb's experiential learning theory. In studying the Hmong refugees, Shuter found that "Hmong traditionally learned through "doing," that is, elders taught Hmong how to perform an activity by involving them in the process: learning was always experiential." (p. 126). Although the pre-literate Bosnians are not the same as the Hmong, some comparisons can be made between the two groups and the traditions of orality. If research were available on identifying the ways in which a language develops from an oral tradition to a written tradition, one might be able to suggest some pedagogical implications, by making parallels from a language's evolution to the development of literacy in adults.

In keeping with the analytic approach, the experiential theory of learning and the notion that learners who come from oral traditions have difficulty separating words from objects, the literacy instruction most appropriate for this group is the "whole language" method. Whole language can be summarized by the following principles:

- Reading, writing, speaking, and listening should be based on similar principles and processes.
- Language should not be taught in a fragmented manner.
- Working on one aspect of language (for example, reading) automatically helps other aspects, such as spelling, grammar, punctuation, and other language skills.

- Language is a meaning-centered activity and, above all, is meant to make sense.
- Language is learned through use. One learns to read by reading, to write by writing, and to speak by speaking. (Keefe & Meyer, 1991, p. 180-181).

Looking back at the last two principles one can see how this relates to earlier comments about how adult learners prefer activities that are meaningful and how adults can benefit from learning through experience. This notion of learning from experience and meaningful environments is often associated with the way a child begins to learn how to speak and read. For example, Keefe and Meyer note,

> "When a young child points to the kitten playing on the floor and says 'kiki', the parent might say 'Yes, kitten.' The parent accepts the child's approximation and identifies naturally the word the child is trying to say. The parent does not give a formal vocabulary lesson; the word 'kitten' is not introduced without context." (Ibid, p. 183).

In summary, Carole Edelsky (1993, p. 548) remarks that whole language is a "view that when people learn a language, they do not learn separate parts." Whole language takes into account the notion that reading is a dynamic interaction, or a "process of constructing meaning through the interaction among the reader's background knowledge, the information suggested by the text, and the context of the reading situation."

In connecting the method of whole language with current theories in the field of second language acquisition, one can draw parallels between Krashen's (1983) Natural Approach that incorporates a monitor model of learning that operates based upon language input that is comprehensible. Krashen's "comprehensible input" is often defined as (i +1), or as just one level above what the learner is able to comprehend. Whole language which is based on the principle that "language is the medium for learning and...[that language]...is meaningful only when it is *whole* " is consistent with Krashen's notion of language learning. In whole language it is expected that the learner will not be able to understand everything they encounter or are immersed in; nevertheless they will understand those words and sounds that have meaning to them and use the understandable concepts to acquire more language and language skills.

Keefe and Meyer (1991) identify eight conditions which demonstrate how the whole language process is employed. The first condition is immersion; students must be immersed in "relevant, whole, functional, and meaningful written language" (Ibid, p. 181). Demonstration is the next condition and involves illustrating how print is read in English (top to bottom, left to right), the difference between letters and words, how words can be phonemically separate, or how ideas are sequenced. Engagement, the next condition,, involves having the learner actively participate in the learning process and activities. This can be accomplished by instructors creating a warm, trusting environment with their learners. Fourth is the condition of responsibility. The learners must take responsibility for their own learning and instructors should try to respond to what the learner is attempting to do, not what the learner is failing to do. Approximation is another condition which can often involve the type of feedback given to a learner. For example, approximate forms uttered or written by a learner should not be labeled incorrect by the instructor; rather they should be accepted as approximations and corrected through modeling. Seventh is the condition of employment. It relates to the learner being able to put into practice, or employ, what s/he has learned. Keefe and Meyer claim that "learning to read and write occurs best through reading and writing - not through studying phonics or grammar." (Ibid, p. 183). Finally, the eighth condition, response, has to do with methods of feedback provided to the learners. As previously mentioned, it stresses accepting approximations and modeling corrections. The following example from Keefe and Meyer illustrates these techniques. "If a learner writes 'hrse' for 'horse', the instructor's response might be 'Yes, I can read that. It's *horse*." (Ibid, p. 183).

The language issues, or the actual linguistic content of the program, needs to be defined. The language issues that relate to the literacy component will be identified first, then the language issues that relate to the survival component will be identified. One specific language item that will be learned is the alphabet. Students will also learn that these symbols correspond to sounds and that as the sounds are grouped together they create semantic meaning, called words, which can be grouped together to create meaningful groups of words, or sentences. Learners will need to develop visual skills in order to make such distinctions. Word attack skills are skills which help learners to identify unfamiliar words. Examples of such skills are guessing meaning from context and the word-pattern approach which involves learning to use spelling

patterns to recognize whole words. These are some of the specific visual skills that the students will learn to develop. Developing the learner's auditory skills by having them carefully tune the ears to listen for sound differences will help learners to make connections between printed words and their corresponding sounds.

Other more abstract reading skills will also be introduced to the learners. One is the pre-reading skill which often involves activating or accessing a priori knowledge regarding the topic. This skill helps the learners to put themselves in the appropriate frame of reference for the purposes of constructing meaning from the text. If learners progress rapidly, strategic reading skills, such as scanning and skimming will also be introduced. The skills will be presented to learners within the context of the skill-based syllabus and the whole language method.

The basic vocabulary that will be the focus of this instruction can be found in Appendix D and is entitled "Basic Vocabulary List: Group One" (Azar, 1992, p. A6-A9). There has been much research into the basis for determining vocabulary selection for ESL programs, such as frequency counts of words in native speaker speech. However there have been no conclusions as to which basis is most advantageous. This vocabulary list has been selected because it comes from a widely-used and reputable textbook. The list does not intend to serve as a comprehensive learning objective for students, rather it is intended to be used as a guideline for instructors. Moreover, the list is not meant to be exhaustive, since as vocabulary words arise, instructors will handle introducing their pronunciation, meaning, and spelling. These words will always be introduced within an appropriate context.

All students will be expected to be able to, at the very least, write their own personal information, such as name, address, or phone number. In addition, students will work on writing simple stories through the Language Experience method (to be explained in further detail in the chapter that identifies the activities used at each level). The purpose of writing these stories will be to help learners develop and improve sentence grammar. They will also be expected to read short passages, many from language experience exercises. The learners will most likely begin by reading smaller passages (one or two sentences) and later move on to longer or more varied passages. The actual topics of stories that are written or passages that are read will be determined largely by the individual learner's interests. Each of these

reading/writing activities can be considered as a different task to be accomplished and thus interconnects with the use of a task-based syllabus.

The linguistic aspects of the survival component for this level are identical to the competencies or tasks that must be completed for MELT's levels 1 and 2 (See Appendix A). As a supplement to the MELT competencies, the "Topics for Language Usage" for level I found in Appendix E will also be demonstrable by the learners. Although the focus of instruction is not on form, in order to perform certain competencies, linguistic structures will be necessary. Therefore, grammatical items, such as verb tenses and question formation will be introduced to the students. Many mistakenly believe that if a syllabus is analytic then particular grammatical features need not be identified as part of the instruction. On the other hand, an analytic approach does not assume "that we make no use of the structural facts of language in making decisions, merely that they are not the starting-point" (Wilkins, 1976, p. 13). Grammatical features of the language will be introduced to the learners, but only in reference to how it is meaningful to a particular context or situation. For example, one lesson could focus on the formation of the negative, by asking students to identify the things they don't like about their new life in the United States. Another lesson could contrast this to the use of the affirmative by asking them to write about what they like and dislike about their new life. An activity like this would take into consideration some of Tollefson's criticisms of CBE programs, by allowing learners to express their true feelings. The grammatical items that will be covered at each of the three levels (A, B, & C) are the ones typically found in form based textbooks for that level. The following are the grammatical items that will be covered. The are not meant to be covered in any particular sequence:

- Subject pronouns
- Simple present tense (BE/HAVE)
- Simple present tense (regular verbs)
- Demonstratives (this, that, these, those)
- Yes/no question formation with various tenses
- Definite vs. indefinite articles
- Regular plural noun formation (common irregulars: women, men, children)
- There is... There are...
- Count vs. non-count (mass) nouns
- Degree words (very, really, extremely)
- It is (It's)... (dummy it used in telling time)
- Modals (can, may, might)
- Need/Want + infinitive
- Idiomatic expressions (would like)
- Present progressive tense
- Future tense with *going to*

- Time expression (tomorrow, today, yesterday)
- Possession (possessive pronouns only)
- Prepositions of time, direction and location (in, on, at, up, down, over, through, across)
- Simple past tense (BE/HAVE)
- Simple past tense (regular & common irregular verbs)
- Wh-questions with various tenses (What, Where, When, What time, Who, Whose and How, How many, How much)
- Adverbs of frequency (sometimes, always, never)

The list is lengthy and may seem like an ambitious set of goals with pre-literate learners; however, the focus of this program is not that the learners can demonstrate mastery of each of these linguistic items, rather that they have been exposed to a representative sample of the forms in the language that will most likely be necessary for expressing meaning and communicating with others in English. Once they have completed this stage, they will move on to the level B where they can continue to review, practice and expand on the functions of the linguistic features that they were introduced to in level A.

In summary, besides learners developing literacy and survival skills, there is another goal to the instruction at this and the other levels. This is the goal of fostering continued self-directed learning, or assisting students with the necessary skills to learn to learn. This large-scale goal can be accomplished through the setting and achievement of minor or small-scale goals. Small-scale goals vary according to the individual learners and are tailored to his/her needs. At this level they can be as simple as "by the end of the lesson the student will be able to write their phone number," or more complex like "by the next lesson time the student will bring three words to class that they heard, but were unable to understand." From this latter goal, another goal for the next lesson time could be set: "By the end of today's lesson, the student will be able to write and read the three words they were unable to understand last week." It has been suggested that "since literacy is dynamic and learning is lifelong, programs should be permanent rather than "one-shot efforts." (Soifer, Irwin, Crumrine et. al., 1990, p. 9). The establishment and achievement of goals should also help to foster each learner's sense of self-direction in the learning process. Instructors are asked to help learners develop the skills, such as identifying regularly occurring patterns in the language, necessary for deriving enrichment from experiences outside lesson time where they encounter English.

Level B

The learners in level B are very similar to the those in level A, except that these learners are already literate. The program for level B will be somewhat different from level A mainly in the depth of the material covered and in the rate at which it is covered. Level B will not involve literacy training, but will focus on life skills, and communicative ability, as level A also did to some extent. In addition, this level will also focus on pre-employment training, or on preparing learners to enter the work place. This involves teaching language that will be used in the work place as well as some of the ethics of work in the United States. The basic focus of this curriculum will be on developing enough knowledge of English in order for the students to deal with the various situations they may come upon in their daily life. In addition, fostering the necessary skills for students to continue learning on their own will be an overall goal of this program and will be accomplished in the same way as outlined in connection with level A.

As for the contextual needs of the students at this level, not much has changed from those at level A, except that the learners at this level may be a bit differently motivated. For example, there are students who are in this level who are looking to quickly move on to level C and continue to learn English and also possibly continue their education. Also, there are also some learners who started out at level B and who do not want to move to a higher level and are motivated in learning only the amount of English they need to get by. It is important to mention that, on the average, most of the students have shown a sincere desire and interest in learning English. In addition, one finds that students completing any level, especially level A, often have a sense of renewed self-confidence that gives them a desire to continue their studies of English as well as the desire to learn new skills to adapt to the new work place.

The main syllabus types that will be used in the survival instruction are a task-based syllabus, a situational-based syllabus, and a notional-functional syllabus. The intention for tailoring the curriculum in such a manner is that the student setting is somewhat similar to The Life Skills Adult Basic Education Program described in Richards-Amato's book, Making It Happen (1988, p. 254-259). This program, which operates out of the North Hollywood Adult Learning Center in California, is mainly centered around a situational-based syllabus, but also incorporates both the task-based and notional/functional-based syllabi.

The task-based syllabus has already been described in reference to level A. No further explanation will be offered, except that at this level, individual tasks are different. For example, a task at this level would include filling out a driver's license application, taking the application to the department of motor vehicles, and finally taking the written exam for the driver's license. These tasks can also be viewed as the specific competencies that must be demonstrated in competency-based education. The tasks learners will be expected to demonstrate are based on the competencies found in the MELT curriculum, levels 1-5 (Appendix A). Since many of these competencies focus on employment, this is where the pre-employment training component to this level fits in to the instruction. An important distinction between task-based and situational-based syllabi is that in the task-based syllabi the task is actually carried out and completed, and in situational syllabi, tasks are often carried out in a fictional role-play type of setting. Tutors will be expected to help students complete these tasks by accompanying them on "field trips."

In contrast to the task-based syllabus, a situational syllabus is balanced between an emphasis on form and meaning and the argument for employing a situational -based syllabus is that "language is always used within a social context and cannot be fully understood without reference to that context." (Wilkins, 1976, p. 16). A situational-based syllabus can be defined as a language teaching situation where the content of the instruction is a "collection of real or imaginary situations" (Krahnke, 1987, p. 12) where it will be necessary to use the target language. Examples of these situations are asking for directions, renting an apartment, going on a job interview, having a conference with your child's teacher, or simply going to the grocery store to buy milk. This syllabus type focuses on activities that help to assist these adults with their daily life. Sandra Brown, the program coordinator at the Adult Learning Center in California, remarks "the teacher of adult ESL students can make the curriculum a vital and relevant one, focusing on real situations encountered by the students in their everyday lives." (Richards-Amato, 1988, p. 254). Where the objective is to teach life skills along with communicative ability in the target language, a situationally-based syllabus is appropriate.

The notional/functional-based syllabus will also be used. Wilkins (1976) notes that the notional syllabus takes into account the communicative functions of language and that a notional syllabus concentrates on presenting language as it is used for a particular function. Speech acts can be seen as one of these

functions of language. The functions of apologizing, introducing yourself, complaining about a problem, expressing approval, or persuading someone into doing something are all different functions that we achieve through the use of the medium of language. These functions can be found in both the competencies indicated in the MELT curriculum (levels 1-5 in Appendix A) and in the "Topics for Language Usage" for levels I, II and III in Appendix E.

The main focus of instruction will be competency-based with tasks and goals identical to those outlined in the MELT curriculum. However, learners will be immersed in the target language and the methodology used will be the same as the methodology used with level A, Krashen's Natural Approach, where the input is meaningful, relevant and just challenging enough to maintain the learner's attention. Furthermore, the method commonly known as Total Physical Response (TPR) will also be incorporated at this level. It is an appropriate methodology, since learners are asked to react to and act out certain commands. This technique is based on the idea that a learner learns through experiencing events. Competency-based education can still take place within the context of using these methods. Competency-based instruction, which emphasizes demonstrating (i.e., acting out) skills or tasks, seems to be very much in line with the method of TPR.

The particular language goals that will be part of this program do not differ greatly from level B, except for the depth of the coverage. Since literacy is not an issue at this level, learning to read and write English for these learners should take less time and therefore leave more time for expanding vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. Once again, new concepts will be presented within their appropriate meaningful context. Reading and writing exercises will be more elaborate for learners at this level. Learners will be able to read and write not only simple information, but should be able to write longer pieces of writing such as narrative stories and personal or business letters. The vocabulary focus will include both of the lists, Group One and Two, in Appendix D, and others as they arise in the classroom. The specific competencies, or tasks and specific functions have already been identified.

As with level A, grammatical features of the language will be presented within their appropriate context. Single grammatical items will not be presented as rules of the language that must be memorized, rather students will be directed to engage in working out the rules for themselves. The grammatical features that will be presented are those listed in level A with the addition of the

following. Once again they are not meant to be presented in any particular sequence:

- Object pronouns
- Count vs. non-count (mass) nouns (some/any)
- Modals (will/should/must/have to)
- Time expression (tomorrow, today, yesterday, this morning, yesterday evening, last weekend, week, month, year; next week, month, year)
- Imperatives
- Possession ('s and possessive pronouns)
- It is (It's).... (dummy it with expressing the weather)
- Wh-questions (Why...because)
- Contrast simple present vs. present progressive
- Non-progressive verbs
- Prepositions of direction and location (between, near, by, along, with)
- Simple past tense (more irregular verbs)
- Past progressive tense
- Contrast simple past with past progressive
- Wh-questions and yes/no questions with modals
- Wh-questions (What kind of, Which, How often, How far, How long, How about, What about)
- Reflexive pronouns (myself, yourself, himself, herself, themselves, ourselves)
- Adverbs of frequency (often, frequently, rarely, usually, seldom)
- Comparative and superlative adjectives (with more, -er, most and -est)
- Present perfect tense (adverbials: since + point in time, for + period of time)

Level C

This group of students includes those that have already studied English, either before coming to the United States or through this program in level A & B. The students who make it thus far are usually very highly motivated as well as quick learners. They also tend to be the students that have had the most formal education, prior to coming to the U.S. as a refugee. Because they have had much more formal education, they are more comfortable with a formal learning process and usually demand a more rigid learning atmosphere. The goal of this instruction will be to prepare the learners for further study on their own or to prepare them to enter and participate in another ESL program at an intermediate level or the equivalent of an Intermediate-Low or Intermediate-Mid according to the ACTFL guidelines. The design of this program will be consistent with many English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs. However, since this is a tutoring program as opposed to a traditional EAP program where students often take separate classes in each of the skill areas (speaking, listening, reading, writing), the four skills will be addressed through the use of different activities.

Students at this level differ from the others in their contextual needs by the fact that they are more educated, come from higher socio-economic backgrounds and are usually very interested in pursuing their education. For example, one of the learners that is currently being tutored has some prior English education and a Bachelor's of Science from a University in Sarajevo. His particular goal is to learn the English that he would need to pursue a Masters of Science degree at an American university. Unlike most of the students in level A or level B, students at this level are not necessarily intent on returning to Bosnia once the war is over and it is safe to do so. These students, on the other hand, see their life in the United States as offering many opportunities for their future career.

At this level, the setting for instruction is somewhat different from what has been described for the other levels. Instructors should be viewed by students as people who can assist them with specific questions and problems they may have with the language. The instructor at this level is seen more as a mentor to a student who has already become quite competent. In addition, an attempt will be made to assign tutors who are currently university or graduate students to the level C students. It is believed that their familiarity and experience with university requirements will prove to be helpful to these learners who will need to prepare for the university learning environment.

Krashen's (1983) methodology which makes use of comprehensible input, as well as methodology that emphasizes learning through experience, will still be incorporated at this level. However, instruction will cease to be competency-based or outcome oriented. The instruction for this level is learner-centered by focusing on the individual questions, concerns and needs of the individual learner. In general, many of the language issues at this level will be identified by the individual student and their particular needs. Instructors and students together will make decisions about what is appropriate for their specific situation. For example, if a student is planning to go to graduate school to complete a degree in economics, appropriate reading materials could be short excerpts from The Economist and an appropriate task could be having the student complete a short research assignment in the library.

The syllabus types remain consistent with those selected for level B: situational-based, task-based, notional-functional-based. At this level, a role-play situation that might be appropriate for a student would be going for a college interview. The tasks that would be appropriate for this level might

involve a wide range of specific writing or reading tasks, such as reading comprehension, composition and editing of longer pieces of writing. Particular functional language items that will be covered at this level would involve persuasive writing or expository writing. Students at this level will also spend more time engaging in conversational activities that help to improve their listening and speaking skills. Vocabulary will be increased through the reading of authentic materials as well as from questions from students regarding specific words they heard but did not comprehend.

In addition to these other syllabus types, the skill-based syllabus will also be used for instruction at level C, since there are many academic skills that will be necessary to master if the learners plan on continuing their education for an advanced degree. Some of the specific skills that will be focused on are note-taking skills, listening skills for retention of information discussed in lectures, advanced reading skills such as reading for thorough understanding or critical reading, and writing skills such as summary skills. These are many of the higher-order skills necessary for continuing learning on one's own. At this stage the learner may have more of an opportunity to develop these skills since the student will become more proficient in English and instructors will have better chances communicating to their student the abstract concepts and skills necessary for life-long learning.

Grammar instruction is more important at this level since these students will need to write well-formed, well-organized term papers and compositions for their work in the university. The grammar points that will be introduced at this level include any particular questions students may have about aspects of English grammar, the grammatical features listed for levels A and B, as well as the following, which are not meant to be presented in the following sequence.

- Possessive pronouns (mine, yours, theirs, ours, etc..)
- Expressing ability (too + adj. + for...)
- Comparisons (with as...as, with adverbs, the same as.. different from...)
- Past perfect tense
- Future perfect tense
- Future progressive tense
- Passive formation (all tenses)
- Conditional (would)
- Phrasal verbs (separable vs. inseparable)
- Three word phrasal verbs
- Semantic distinctions (ex: difference between "make" vs. "do")
- Pronunciation improvement (ex: /s/, /z/, /iz/ allomorphic distinctions)
- Multiple adjectives - orders/sequences
- Sentence connectors (coordinating/subordinating conjunctions)
- Punctuation and document formats

- Predicative vs. Attributive adjectives
- Relative clauses (Restrictive vs. non-restrictive)
- Articles (fine semantic and functional distinctions)
- Placement of adverbs

53

Chapter Four

Materials and resources

Before discussing the types of activities that will take place in the instructional sessions, the materials that will be available for instructors to use as resources will be noted. These materials are not intended to be used as a basis for the instruction, but as resource books that the instructors can use for finding ideas for lessons, specific practice activities, or to brush up on an aspect of the English grammar with which they are unfamiliar.

Level A

At level A, the main resource books available to instructors are the following:

First Class Reader!
Sounds Easy
Real Life English
Side by Side
MELT Curriculum
The New Oxford Picture Dictionary
English for Adult Competency: Book One/Two
Basic English Grammar
Literacy Volunteers of America: Tutor Manual
I Speak English: Tutor's Guide to Teaching Conversational English

In addition to these text materials, other resources will be made available. Books of various different topics and interests have been donated by local libraries and colleges. The books vary with regard to reading level; they range from third grade reading level to university reading level. From this mini-library, learners and instructors can choose reading material that is appropriate for the student's level and use the materials for class activities or as a basis for extensive reading assignments. In addition, other materials, such as magazines, telephone directories, catalogs, menus, equipment instructions, weather forecasts, signs, comic strips and cartoons, songs, brochures, grocery circulars, bus schedules, clippings from newspapers, food labels, and commercial and classified advertisements, can easily be obtained by the instructor from what they find around their own home as well as at the student's

home. Materials should always be selected for their authenticity and relevance to the individual student's needs and interests.

Besides reading materials, instructors will be expected to make use of drawings, pictures (from magazines, or personal photographs), and realia (actual objects around the student's home, or brought from the instructor's home). Using real objects is helpful in teaching vocabulary, since the student can see and touch the object, or experience it, making vocabulary instruction relevant and meaningful.

Level B

The resource materials that will be available for instructors who tutor Level B students are the same resources identified for level A, except that at this level the following two resources, intended for developing literacy skills, may not be relevant to this level of instruction.

Sound Easy
Literacy Volunteers of America: Tutor Manual

The language requirements for this level are based on the MELT curriculum and it should be noted that the text, English for Adult Competency (Book One & Book Two is a good resource since it is excellently matched with the MELT curriculum both in topic and competencies. These texts provide many different exercises that can be helpful to students learning to demonstrate the tasks.

In addition to the resource materials, instructors also have access to the mini-library as previously described and also will be expected to use whatever reading materials they can find about their house or the student's. As with students at level A, instructors are also expected to make use of whatever realia they find useful.

Level C

Of the materials previously mentioned, one of these, Basic English Grammar, will be useful as a resource at this level. In addition to this one book, instructors will also have access to the following text materials:

Fundamentals of English Grammar
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions
The Process of Composition
Writing Academic English
Writing Research Papers

Once again, in addition to these text materials, instructors will be expected to make use of materials that they find around their homes and around the student's home. In addition, at this level and other levels, the public library can provide an abundance of materials and not only reading materials, but also listening materials, such as audio cassettes and video cassettes. An instructor could take the student to the library as a field trip activity and introduce them to the wealth of resources available to them at no cost. The public library does not need to be the limit. Students and instructors can also gain borrowing privileges to the university libraries at the University of Colorado at Boulder as long as they have a current driver's license. This allows the instructor to have access to a wealth of useful and relevant materials.

Volunteer Tutors and Training

Some information regarding the volunteer tutors and their responsibilities and training has been noted in this paper; however, since the volunteers are a valuable resource, I would like to elaborate more on this topic. I have included a copy of the home tutor volunteer job description in Appendix C. The volunteer tutor is asked to make a time commitment of at least two hours per week to go to the refugee's home and conduct the ESL lesson. In addition, the tutors are asked to attend one two-hour meeting per month. These informal meetings serve as forums for the tutors and the ESL Coordinator to share experiences, make suggestions and have any questions answered. In addition, at meetings tutors report back to the ESL Coordinator regarding the material they have covered and the progress the student is making. The tutors are also required to submit a form each month that recounts the number of hours spent and the activities or topics covered. This is very important, since the BRRC must keep track of total volunteer hours as they are required when writing grant and funding proposals. It is also a check to make sure that the tutor is conducting

lessons that are consistent with the curriculum design. In addition, tutors are asked to be sensitive to the Bosnians' culture, yet to help them acculturate not assimilate.

Before beginning tutoring, the tutors are required to attend a training session. The session lasts for about three hours on a Saturday morning and are conducted by the ESL Coordinator. During the training, tutors are briefed on some of the contextual issues that relate to the Bosnians and that have been discussed throughout this paper. Tutors are also instructed on how to develop a good lesson plan by establishing goals, providing the language and concepts, providing plenty of opportunities to practice the material and finally reviewing material at the start of each new lesson. In addition, they are trained to evaluate the student's performance of competencies.

The tutors are also introduced to the various texts that are available for their use. It is suggested that tutors try to find real objects (i.e., realia) to use in their lessons such as the objects in the refugee's home, a catalog, or grocery circular. The tutors are also introduced to the various types of classroom activities that have been explained in this paper. Finally, tutors are encouraged to observe adult ESL classes at the Paddock School, where the refugees are enrolled for additional ESL classes two nights a week. Tutors are strongly encouraged to take advantage of this opportunity, since it helps them to learn more about ESL and language instruction in general.

Activities

At this point, I would like to elaborate on the different types of activities that will be used in connection with achieving the language and learning objectives. For each level a few major activity types will be identified, but the activity types are not restricted only to that level. Activity types are interchangeable and can be adapted to a student at any level.

Level A

As previously mentioned, the main type of literacy instruction will be based on the whole language method. Literacy skills, such as visual skills, with whole language instruction is often achieved through the use of the sight word recognition method (learning to recognize whole words) or word-pattern

approach (using spelling patterns to recognize words and syllables). One way of assisting students with developing the visual skills necessary for recognizing words is through the use of flash cards. The instructor could make up index cards with a word printed on one side and an illustration (cut from a magazine or hand-drawn) of the word on the other side. With ten or twelve of these cards at each lesson, the instructor could have the student practice their visual skill at recognizing the word and the object it refers to. In introducing the words the instructor could hold up the picture side of the card, say the word several times, have the student also practice saying the word and then flip the card over to show the printed form. With the printed word showing, the instructor would still repeat the word several times and have the learner do the same. This way the learner can begin to understand the concept of a word relating to an object and also its symbolic written form. As this activity becomes familiar to the student and is conducted as part of the lesson each time, the student will most likely become better at matching objects to their appropriate sounds and symbols (i.e., words).

Flash cards can also function in many different ways. They can be also form the basis for learning writing. An instructor could start the student off with flash cards of the letters of the alphabet and have the student practice copying individual letters. When the students are confident with their letters, they can move on to copying whole words. It is suggested that students be able to write any new vocabulary words that are introduced in class. Flash cards can also be used in playing games. For example, instructors can make up cards that contain only the word or picture and have the student fill in on the card the appropriate word or picture. Along these same lines, cards could be created with only pictures of the objects and only the written words. The objective would be similar to the game "Go fish," where the student must match word with picture or vice versa. These are good methods to check a student's comprehension or to briefly review the previous lesson.

The next step from here might be to engage the learner in a Language Experience activity using the words that had been introduced in previous lessons. Language Experience activities are characteristic of the whole language method and involves having the student tell a story or narrative to the instructor, which the instructor writes down for them. It was previously mentioned that learners from oral traditions favor narrative genres and in this way they can be encouraged to begin writing narratives. The student's own

personal narrative would make a good first assignment since it would be relevant and meaningful and would also help the instructor to learn more about their student. The story that is written as a result of the Language Experience activity then becomes the basis for a reading exercise, thus working in many skills such as speaking (the student must be able to effectively communicate the story to the instructor), listening (the instructor should ask the student questions about the story to help them elaborate on the topic), writing (the student practices writing and rewriting the story several times once the instructor has written the first draft), and reading (the student reads their own words). The rationale behind this activity is that the reading material is relevant to the student's experience and that in reading what they themselves have written, students will feel more self-assured of their ability to communicate through the written medium.

Many Language Experience activates are born out of field trips. Instructors will take their students on an out-of-the-class trip and notify them beforehand that they will be expected to write about the field trip. The instructor will then sit with their student and write down the student's narrative version of the experience. Instructors should not correct mistakes in grammar or the way students express themselves unless it causes miscommunication or misunderstanding. As the story is edited and changed over several rewrites, then aspects of grammar or miswording can be discussed and the learner should be asked to try to discover those errors on their own. When reading the story, the instructor should read the story through the first time by reading slowly and moving his/her finger along the words as they are uttered. Next the student reads the story. This will take longer and the students should follow with their finger as they read the words. From the Language Experience activity, new words will arise and several of these can be selected by the student and placed on flash cards and used in flash card activities as already explained. In this sense each activity type is interactive since it can lead to the use of another activity type. The stories that are completed can be dated and placed in a folder for future use or for purposes of evaluation and assessment.

Language Experience activities often help students get started writing. Once they have progressed and are able to write stories on their own without having to dictate them to the instructor, other writing assignments can be given to the students. Examples of other writing activities are writing an absence note for one of their children, a recipe, a grocery list, a telephone message, or an

appointment with someone (like their appointment with you; this serves two purposes: writing practice and checking that they know what time you are to meet next week so they, or you, don't miss the lesson time). Students may also want to practice letter writing. Although many of the letters that they write are to friends and family who speak their language, you could have the student write letters to you or a friend of yours.

Another method of increasing a student's visual and listening skills that are necessary for reading is by providing the learner with a cassette tape with a recording of a piece of material that the learner has shown interest in wanting to read. The student can then listen to the tape and read along with the written material in front of him/her. The student would need to listen several times for this activity to be effective, however, this could be assigned as homework. From listening to the recorded version, the student may come up with new words which could then be put on flash cards and activities with flash cards of the new words could be used as a starting point for the next lesson. The taped readings could function mainly as extensive reading activities which are important in the development of literacy skills.

Another activity that will be used at this level is the problem-posing technique which is borrowed from Paulo Freire's (1987) work with pre-literate people in his home country of Brazil. Problem-posing activities are believed to help develop the critical thinking skills necessary for empowerment which starts with the ability to read. Problem-posing activities begin with what Freire has termed a "code." A code is a picture, a story, or a skit that contains some problematic element in the student's life. For examples of different codes, see Appendix F. In this type of activity, the instructor shows the student a picture or sequence of pictures in which a problem develops. For example, in one picture you see a small child alone in the bathroom of a home and the child is reaching up to the medicine chest. In the next picture the child has taken a bottle of pills and is swallowing some of them. In the final picture the child is confronted by the mother (See Appendix F). This sequence of pictures could lead the instructor and student to discuss the issues and problems associated with child safety and child care.

The way in which the instructor asks questions about the picture is carefully sequenced. First off, the students should be asked to identify the elements of the picture or simply describe the participants. Next, the students should be asked to identify the problem, and also to identify any cultural

differences. Then, the students should be asked if they have had any similar experiences, in an attempt to relate the problem to their own personal experience. The students should then be asked how their personal experience with this particular problem fits into larger realms like their community, or country. Finally, the students are asked to suggest a possible solution to the problem or perhaps to indicate that no solution is viable. For more information on the purposes behind each of these questions and for example of actual questions that would be used during a lesson, see Appendix F.

It is important to note that at all levels, activities should always be structured, whether it be a listening, speaking, reading or writing activity. For example, in a reading activity it is important to make it absolutely clear to the student what you are going to do with the text before they read it. Before reading it is helpful to do a pre-reading activity which involves discussing the topic and taking clues from the title or pictures that may surround the text. This helps the students activate their schema or to access their previous knowledge about the topic, thus making it easier for them to predict what may happen and best interpret the text. Sometimes as part of the pre-reading exercise it is helpful to review comprehension questions before reading the text. This way, the student can keep these questions in mind while reading the text. Unfamiliar vocabulary should not be introduced at the outset. It is more beneficial to the student to try to guess words from context than to be told the meaning. Most likely they will remember the word better if they have guessed it from other clues in the sentence or surrounding text.

The activities that have been discussed thus far are those that relate mostly to the literacy objectives. The activities that will be used in reaching the objectives of survival English instruction and conversational English will be identical to those used for level B. Therefore, they will be discussed in the next section.

Level B

At this level, many of the same activities that were used for literacy training will be used at this level for helping to develop reading and writing skills. For example, the Language Experience method can be used at this level, however, the pieces of writing may be longer. In addition, one activity that can be done with students at this level is a newsletter or mini-newspaper. For

example, at the Saturday classes where a number of students are gathered together in the same classroom, the instructor could conduct a long-term project of creating a student newsletter. The students can work together in groups and each group could come up with a topic that they wished to write about. They could then write about this topic with the help of the instructor through the Language Experience method. The articles would be revised, rewritten and then compiled into a one or two-page newsletter that the students could distribute to the other worshippers at the mosque. In addition, problem-posing activities conducted with students at this level, can be used to help spark ideas for topics or problems that students may wish to write about. Using these two activities at this level in the way described, will help students to work together and at the same time practice different skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) in order to arrive at a common concrete goal, of which they can be proud.

An additional writing activity is having the student keep a log or journal. They can use their journal for whatever purpose it best serves them. Some students may want to keep their journal as a personal record of their experiences or feelings, others may want to use it more as a log or glossary where they keep track of new vocabulary or new language structures. However the student prefers to regard the journal, it will be useful to the student in practicing the creative use of writing, or writing that is focused on their own purposes. The instructor may want to have the student compiete some writing activity as part of their journal each week as a homework assignment. One assignment might be something like "Describe your favorite food." At the next lesson, the instructor can begin by reading the student's journal entry and then asking him/her questions about the topic. Before assigning a topic for journal writing as a homework, the instructor may need to introduce some of the vocabulary that may be needed for the task.

Another activity that can be used at this level is the strip story activity, where a short story is cut up into individual sentences and each sentence is placed on a separate strip of paper. The student then has to recombine the sentences into a complete coherent story. This can easily be done with stories the students themselves write through Language Experience or with stories from other sources, such as a short news piece. This is an alternative to the traditional question and answer method of checking reading comprehension.

Activities that will be used to introduce vocabulary words are activities sometimes described as "What's in the box/bag?" For this type of activity, the instructor brings in a bag or box filled with various realia. The student then reaches into the bag and pulls out an object. There are many different learning activities which can be triggered by this activity. For example, students can learn the name of an object, how to spell it, how the object is used, where one finds this object, how to use the name of the object in a sentence, or how to pronounce the name of the object. This is a good way of introducing vocabulary that is particular to a certain topic, such as health and medicine. The instructor could empty their medicine chest into a bag before coming to class and then go through the various things that one find in a medicine chest and what they are used for. In addition, this activity can also be used to have the student practice asking and answering questions. The instructor can select one of several objects and put it in the bag without the student seeing and then have the student guess what's in the bag. This can be structured similar to the game "twenty questions", where typical questions are "Is it large or small? Is it red?" Can I eat it? Do you use it to comb your hair?", etc.

This type of activity can also lead to TPR activities since, once all the objects have been labeled and identified, the instructor can give the student commands such as "Put the band-aids next to the rubbing alcohol," or "Find the aspirin and tell me what you would use it for." TPR activities also help the students to practice following directions in the new language, which is often such a difficult task since one may be overly concerned with understanding and remembering the directions that they forget to listen carefully to them. How many times has this happened even to native speakers who ask someone for directions on the street only to forget them three minutes later?

As previously mentioned, pictures are good starting points for problem-posing activities, but they are also good for vocabulary development. Finding pictures is easy. Any old magazine will do, especially magazines like Life or Family Circle. Also catalogs, such as the L.L. Bean Catalog, are very useful for identifying all the different types of clothing, coats, hats, pants, dresses, skirts, shirts, blouses, scarves, mittens, gloves, boots, shoes, sneakers, etc. Pictures from The Sears Catalog could be used to identify almost anything one might find in a home. Pictures are also useful in working on grammar points such as verb tenses and Wh-questions. The instructor could find a picture where there

is some action going on, and then ask the student questions like "What are they doing? What did they do yesterday? What do you think they will do tomorrow?"

Another activity or game that can be used to help practice vocabulary and sentence patterns is what can be called the "chain game." In this activity, the instructor begins with a verbal chain. For example, the instructor would say, "I went to the supermarket and I bought apples." Then the student must repeat the sentence but add another item (I went to the supermarket and I bought apples and milk.) This could help also to practice distinctions between count and mass nouns. This activity would work best if used when there are more students such as on Saturday afternoons at the mosque since then all the students could participate by adding different items and practicing with new vocabulary words.

Listening and speaking skills can be practiced through the use of dialogues. The instructor can write down simple dialogues such as the one below, or they can find them in the texts, such as English for Adult Competency.

A: Excuse me, do you have Tylenol?
B: Yes, what kind?
A: The kind for babies.
B: It's in aisle 12.
C: Thank you.

Dialogues should be kept simple and should also include one or two new learning points, whether it's vocabulary or a grammar point. The instructor then presents the dialogue to the student by reading through it. The instructor should read through a few times and illustrate the scene by using gestures or acting out the parts. Then the student takes one role and the instructor takes the other and they read through the dialogue together. Next they switch roles so that the student can have the opportunity to play both parts. From here the student and instructor can elaborate this activity into and actual role play where they pretend they are in a real situation and this time the dialogue does not have to necessarily match the written dialogue. Here the instructor can throw the student a fast ball by responding to A's question with something like, "Oh, I'm sorry were all out, would you like me to order some for you? We can have it here in two days." Now the student has the opportunity to react spontaneously.

From these dialogues and role plays other activities such as field trips can be developed. The student and teacher could plan for the next lesson to go to a pharmacy. After practicing through role-plays and dialogues, the student

would be the one who would ask for the product, successfully find it and pay for it. The instructor would serve as the back-up person in case the student encountered some problems. In addition, the instructor can use the field trip as a learning experience by guiding and structuring the experience. For example, the teacher may have the student ask the pharmacist other questions such as "Can you fill this prescription?", or "How long will it take before the prescription will be ready?", or other similar questions. In addition, there is an abundance of new vocabulary that could be learned simply by walking through the aisles and identifying different products and objects. New expressions like "to fill a prescription" can be learned by directing the student to ask questions to the pharmacist or other employees. As a guide for planning field trips, they should always be kept relatively short, simple and useful. Instructors should prepare the student for the field trip by making sure they have been introduced to the necessary vocabulary and structures, yet limiting new vocabulary and structures to what the student can easily handle. Start the next lesson with a review of what was learned as a result of the field trip. For more information on possible field trips and how to structure the activity see Appendix G.

In keeping with the notions of a task-based syllabus and competency-based education, students will have to demonstrate the tasks that are listed in Appendix A as part of the MELT curriculum. Once the student has practiced the task through other activities, such as role-plays or dialogues, the student will perform the task. This is the time when the instructor should step out of the way and let the student perform the task to the best of their ability. One example is accompanying the student on a field trip and having them purchase a needed product as described above. Another example might be having a student find the nearest location to their home or work where they can buy a bus pass. At the next lesson, the student would have to demonstrate to the instructor that they had successfully completed the task.

At this level, it has been indicated that one of the goals of instruction is pre-employment training or helping the student prepare for work, or get along better in their work environment. Some activities that can be carried out which practice reading and writing skills are filling out job applications, writing about previous employment experience, reading help wanted ads or writing a resume. Listening and speaking skills can also be practiced by taking pictures that show different workers or a work situation (The New Oxford Picture Dictionary is a good source) and discussing issues relating to job duties, requirements for

employment, or advantages and disadvantages of a particular job. All the activities previously mentioned such as role-plays, problem-posing techniques, field trips, task completion, and Language Experience can all be applied to the topic of work and employment. By orienting these activities to the world of work, the students can prepare themselves and practice the language that will be necessary for working.

In summary, the activities selected for practicing a particular linguistic item or function should be structured. The instructor should give clear directions to the student regarding what is to be done during the activity. The instructor may have to demonstrate exactly what s/he intends. Once an activity type becomes familiar to the student the demonstrations should no longer be necessary. During an activity instructors should use vocabulary and structures familiar to the student and should limit new vocabulary or structures to what is comprehensible in the given time period. In addition, the activities should be as real as possible and should make use of natural language. Try not to work with topics, situations or activities that do not relate to the student's life. When conducting an activity with a particular goal or purpose in mind, don't lose sight of that goal, if other problems arise, make a note and return to them in another lesson. Furthermore, the instructor should be sure that linguistic content is sufficiently presented and then elicited and practiced by the learners.

Level C

The types of activities used in level A and B can also be used with students In level C; however, the focus of this instruction is in preparing students to go on to advanced education. As such, much of the focus of instruction will be on improving study skills, reading and writing ability, self-editing skills, and the ability to be effective listeners and communicators.

Reading activities at this level will involve introducing students to specific reading skills such as predicting and anticipating the content of a text, skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context, or inferencing, recognizing the main idea, recognizing the organization of a text, or increasing reading speed (Krahnke, 1993). These skills can be practiced through various activities. For example, one way of practicing predicting or anticipating the content of text is by providing the learner with a cloze paragraph of a text that they have not seen before and asking the student to fill in the word or phrase

that would best fit in the blank. A way to practice recognizing text structure is by having the student outline a text. This can be done with the student's own texts and can also serve as a check to see if their writing is well-organized. In addition, the student may need to be introduced to certain coordinating and subordinating conjunctions. Activities that require students to take a text where the structural clues (items like *first*, *next*, *furthermore*, *however*, etc.) are missing and rewrite the text with the appropriate structural clues is a good activity for both creating and recognizing text organization.

Reading for thorough understanding can be practiced by having students write summaries of texts, or by asking them detailed comprehension questions. Skimming and scanning are useful reading skills especially when one must read a large volume of material as is the case in university. Skimming can be practiced by having a student guess the possible content of a text by having them read the first and last paragraph of a text and then having the student guess what they think the text may be about. Scanning can be practiced by having a student look through a text for a specific piece of information. For example, if the student read a text about their favorite author, the instructor might ask the student to scan the text for the birthdate of the author. When one is required to read large volumes of material, it is also helpful to try to increase reading speed. This can be achieved by having a student read and re-read a text in a given amount of time, gradually decreasing the given amount of time. Also, the instructor can initiate individual reading contests, where the student tries to beat their own record. This could also be done in groups when the students are assembled together for Saturday afternoon sessions at the mosque.

In addition to the reading that is done during lesson time or as homework assignments, instructors should also direct students to sources such as the library for extensive or out-of-class reading about topics that interest them. Extensive reading can benefit the student by introducing them to new vocabulary that they can practice learning by inferencing. It can also help to increase reading speed and other reading skills such as recognizing textual patterns. The extensive reading activities can also help students to practice their critical reading skills as they evaluate the text and its similarity or dissimilarity with their personal experience. The instructor can check that extensive reading has been completed by having students do summaries or

"book reports." In addition, summaries can focus the student's critical reading skills by having the student respond to the text with agreement or disagreement.

Writing can be practiced through the activities previously mentioned such as summary writing or journal writing. In addition, students can practice writing essay questions. The instructor can make up essay questions by using words such as describe, analyze, or evaluate. For example, one essay question could be "Describe at least three characteristics that make a perfect friend/mate." Although this is not a typical essay question, it helps the student to practice writing under pressure. The activity should mimic an actual exam setting by providing the student with a limited amount of time to write. Before beginning the exercise, the student should be reminded about organizing their time appropriately so that they have sufficient time to brainstorm about the idea, outline their essay, write the essay and check it over for errors. By actually having the student carry out activities that they will need to perform in university, the student can prepare for these eventualities in a less pressured and urgent environment.

Students will also need to practice correct punctuation and documentation of their writing. Students will not have to memorize punctuation and documentation rules, but can be introduced to them through reading about them in books like Writing Research Papers, which are suggested as references. The instructor can provide punctuation practice by giving the student a text with all of the punctuation left out and then have the student rewrite the text with appropriate punctuation. Documentation and citation can be practiced by assigning a library task to the student. The instructor could have the student find three books or articles of interest to them and then provide the instructor with a bibliographical reference. After reading one of the books or articles, the instructor could have the student write a summary which would include two direct quotations and two paraphrased quotations with the proper citation information. This is a very meaningful activity since this is typical of the activities that the student will be required to perform in university work.

Speaking and listening skills will also be practiced at level C through similar types of activities that were noted for levels A and B, such as role-plays or problem-posing. However, at level C these activities will be more complex and relevant to these students needs. For example, a problem-posing activity could be described to the student at this level rather than using a picture. An example of a problem-posing activity for this level might be something like, "You go to

see your professor about an assignment that you don't understand and the professor tells you that s/he cannot help you. "S/he says, You must figure it out yourself. My directions were clear. Nobody else came to me with this problem." This is helpful for the student to work out these types of problems before they occur. This way the student and instructor can work together on the vocabulary that might be necessary for expressing him/herself in this difficult situation.

Speaking skills can also be practiced by having the student prepare mini-presentations for the instructor. The student can select a topic of interest and present it to the instructor. Before presenting the material, the instructor should work with the student to help them organize the material in a coherent manner. The presentation can also be a focus for improving pronunciation. Pronunciation can be practiced through modeling or by the student trying to mimic or match the instructor's pronunciation. The presentation activity is a good place for pronunciation practice since even for native-speakers pronunciation is more important in giving presentations. Correcting a student's pronunciation during a role-play is not necessary unless the pronunciation is so abominable that it is leading to miscommunication. During the presentation the instructor can jot down several questions s/he might have and pose them to the student once the presentation has ended. In this way, the presentation activity is identical to the experience a student may have in a university classroom.

Listening skills, or more specifically, effective listening skills necessary for understanding lectures can be developed by having the instructor pick a topic of interest to both the student and the teacher and then lecture on the topic for ten minutes while the student takes notes. A sample topic could be something easy which the instructor does not have to prepare for, such as the advantages/disadvantages of living in Boulder. The instructor should carefully structure their lecture so that they introduce three or four main points and some details to support them. Before beginning the mini-lecture, the student should be instructed to pay close attention and to jot down in their notebook the main points and at least one supporting detail of each. The instructor should let the student know that they should listen carefully for organizational clues like the ones found in texts since these clues will help the student to recognize when a main point or idea is coming. After the mini-lecture the instructor can check what the student has noted to see if there is comprehension. In developing the student's effective listening skills, the instructor is also helping to develop their

note-taking skills. These two skills are very important to success in academic work.

Feedback

Instructors need to be able to provide learners with an appropriate amount of feedback or correction. The instructor should be careful not to over-correct or to attempt to correct every mistake they hear. Mistakes that should be given attention are recurrent mistakes as well as mistakes that lead to miscommunication. During speaking activities, it is not very important to correct the learner's errors and may in fact make the learner feel less confident. The goal of the speaking activities is to get the learner talking; therefore, it would be better not to stop their flow of speech with corrections. When correcting a student's writing, it is helpful to have the student next to you. This way you, when you come across an error, you can ask the student questions like "Is that right? This is the right verb, but the tense is wrong. Which tense do you think you should use here? Is this word spelled correctly?" in an attempt to get the learner to discover their mistakes on their own. This will also help to develop the learner's self-editing skills.

As a general rule, the instructor should never tell the student that an utterance or written phrase is wrong; rather they should let the student know that they understood the message and then model the correction. For example, if a student says "The bus coming.", the instructor should respond by saying something like, "Oh, I see. The bus is coming.". If an instructor does not understand a student's message, the best strategy is to ask the student to repeat what they said or to say something like "I didn't understand you. Could you explain again." These are appropriate and polite ways to respond to a misunderstanding. Phrases like "What did you say? I'm sorry, I didn't get that? or Huh?" are not appropriate since they make the student feel belittled. In addition, some of these expressions are idiomatic and might be difficult for the learner to comprehend if they are not familiar with them.

Assessment and Evaluation

The assessment and evaluation of students at level A and B is built into the program. In other words, by using a task-based and competency-based

program, the student is evaluated each time s/he successfully or unsuccessfully performs a task. Successful completion of a task can be decided upon by the instructor using a rating scale such as the following:

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

The instructor could keep a checklist of the competencies such as those found in Appendix H and mark them off as a student successfully completes each competency. A student would be required to perform the task until they achieved a score of 2. Students should be notified when they are expected to perform a certain task. The "test" should be announced a few days beforehand. Competencies can be tested periodically, or they could be tested on designated days once a month, depending on how the student and the instructor want to handle it.

One drawback with competency performance as a measure of evaluation is the fact that this type of testing is not standardized and does not meet test requirements of reliability and validity. On the other hand, it has relatively good face validity and serves as a good indicator of the student's progress and the overall effectiveness of instruction. A standardized test that is competency-based has been developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics and can be used to asses a student's progress if necessary. It is called the Basic English Skills Test (BEST) and consists of two sections. The first section tests only listening and speaking skills. The second section focuses on reading and writing skills. It is a supplementary test and is only administered if the student obtains a certain score on the first section.

Students at level C will be assessed based on a folder that they maintain which consists of all of their reading and writing assignments. Assignments should be dated so that when the instructor periodically reviews the folder they can determine what progress the student has made. In addition, in reviewing the folders, the instructor should also make notes about particular recurring problems the student may be having so that they can be focused on in subsequent lessons. Since many of the speaking and listening activities noted in connection with level C require some type of writing assignment as a comprehension check, these writing assignments will be put into the student folder as well. The students at level A and B will also use this method of

evaluation for their reading and writing assignments. Competency check lists can also be kept in the folder. In this way, anyone interested in seeing how a particular student is progressing can easily access a student's work by reviewing his/her folder. Moreover, the folder can be used by the student in making self-evaluations and, ultimately, in guiding their learning experience.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

In conclusion, this curriculum design was conceived by following the basic steps of curriculum design as indicated by Smith (1982). The first step is to determine the needs and interest of the learners. This has been accomplished in chapter three which consists of the needs analysis. The second step is setting instructional goals and they have been identified in chapter three following the needs analysis. The basis for the instructional goals is derived from the needs analysis which deals with the contextual issues of the learners and from chapter two which identifies the learning issues. Smith's fourth step is to identify resources. Chapter four begins by identifying the materials and resources available to the program. The final step before conducting the program is to select the program format and activities. The activities are discussed in the remainder of chapter four. Once the program is conducted for a period of time the final step is to evaluate and to follow-up with appropriate modifications. As originally stated, this paper documents the first four steps of Smith's curriculum design procedure. Modifications have been taken into account in this paper since the program was conducted in 1994 and resulting modifications have been taken into consideration in this second writing. After this program has run for a period of time it can also be evaluated for overall effectiveness and further modifications can be made. This concludes the curriculum design. Sample lesson plans as well as Appendices follow.

73

Sample Lesson Plans

Three lesson plans, one for each level, follow. Each lesson is intended for a one and a half to two hour time period.

Level A

TOPIC: Household repairs

PURPOSE: To be able to explain to the landlord about a repair that is needed, to be able to go to the hardware store and buy the necessary equipment to make the repair, or to be able to hire the appropriate service person to make the repair.

MATERIALS: Flash cards, tools, pictures.

1. Review

   - Practice what was taught in the previous lesson. About 15 minutes.

2. Presentation of new material

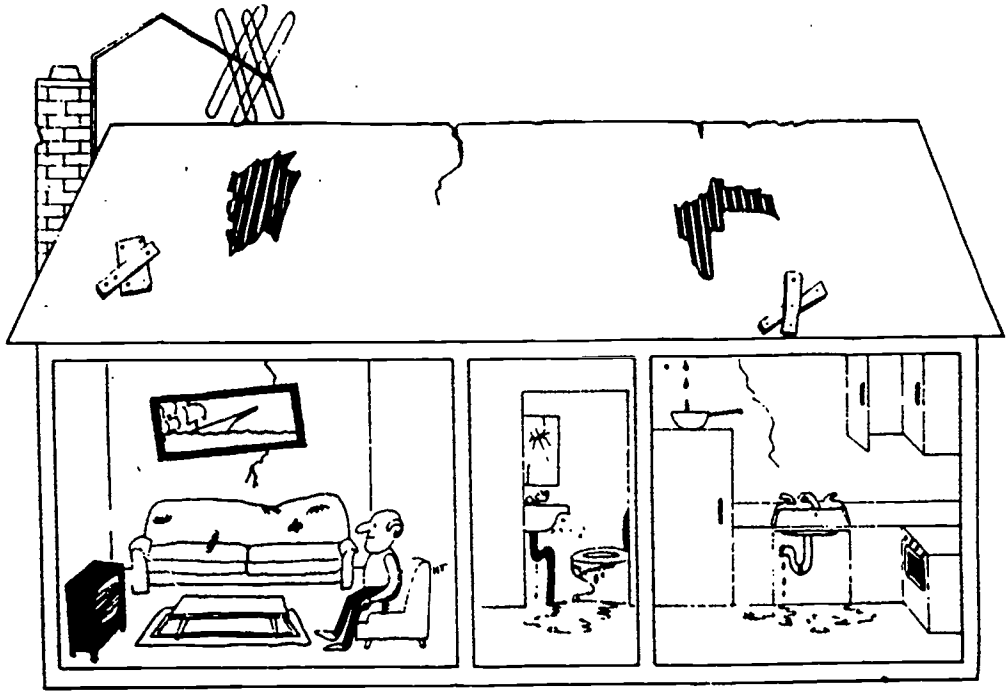
   - Put some tools in a bag and do a "What's in the bag activity" to introduce the student to new vocabulary. Show the picture (below) to the student. Have them talk about the picture. Also, introduce new vocabulary words or phrases such as the ones below, when the student doesn't know the words. About 30 minutes.

The faucets are dripping.
pipes are leaking.
roof is leaking.
paint is chipping.
toilet is overflowing.

The toilet doesn't flush.
sink doesn't drain.
bathtub doesn't drain.

The stove doesn't work.
oven
heater
garbage disposal
refrigerator
freezer

The carpet is torn
drapes are torn.
carpet is stained.
drapes are stained.
chimney is cracked.
outlet is broken.



Keltner, A. & Bitterlin, G. (1990). English for Adult Competency, Book Two, Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, p. 107.

3. Practice new material

   - Do a problem-posing activity with the picture. About 30 minutes.

4. Homework

   - Write several new words on flash cards for the student. Have the student practice writing the new words from the flash cards for homework.

Level B

TOPIC: Transportation

PURPOSE: To be able to ask and respond to some of the typical questions associated with using mass transportation. For example:

How do I get to _____?	Where do I get on/off the bus?
How much is it?	Does this bus go to _____?
What is the fare?	Where is the bus stop?
What time does the bus come?	How long is the bus trip?

Take the number 11 to Broadway.
Transfer to number 34 at the main station.
Walk two blocks and it's on the left.

Get off at Pine Street.
The fare is $0.75.
Give the transfer to the driver.

MATERIALS: Attached picture from the New Oxford Picture Dictionary. A current bus schedule.

1. Review

   - Practice what was taught in the previous lesson. About 15 minutes.

2. Presentation of new material

   Vocabulary

   - Spend 15 minutes introducing related vocabulary words, with the help of the pictures in the dictionary or real objects. Use gestures.

   Language objectives - WH words

   - Spend 15 minutes working with students on the question words, When, Where, What, How much, How long. If they are not already familiar with these words, introduce them in the following pattern.

     Step One: Point to a picture of a simple object, i.e. train.
     T: This is a train.
     S: This is a train. } repeat sequence several times

     Step Two: Point to another object.
     T: This is a bus.
     S: This is a bus. } repeat sequence several times

     Step Three: Ask yes/no questions about the objects.
     T: Is this a bus? Is this a train?
     T: Yes, it is. No, it isn't.
     S: Yes, it is. No, it isn't.} repeat sequence several times.

     Step Four: Ask several no questions about an object)
     T: (pointing to a train) Is this a bus?, Is this a taxi? Is this a plane?
     S: No, No, No.
     T: ***What*** is it?
     S: It's a train.

     Do the same type of drill with other question words.

3. Practice

- Do a role-play activity. Act out a scenario, such as transferring buses, or asking for the nearest bus stop. Also, using the bus schedule, have the student ask for information about bus times. About 30 minutes.

4. Homework

- Have the student complete a related task. For example, Have them locate the bus station and obtain a current bus schedule.

A. Bus

1. cord
2. seat
3. bus driver
4. transfer
5. fare box
6. rider

B. Subway

7. conductor
8. strap
9. car
10. track
11. platform
12. turnstile
13. token booth

Parnwell, E. C. (1988). The New Oxford Picture Dictionary. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, p. 54.

C. Train

14. commuter train
15. engineer
16. ticket
17. commuter
18. station
19. ticket window
20. timetable

D. Taxi

21. fare
22. tip
23. meter
24. receipt
25. passenger
26. cab driver
27. taxicab
28. taxi stand

E. Other Forms of Transportation

29. monorail
30. streetcar
31. aerial tramway
32. cable car
33. horse-drawn carriage

Parnwell, E. C. (1988). The New Oxford Picture Dictionary. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, p. 55.

Level C

TOPIC: Writing paragraphs

PURPOSE: To be able to write a good topic sentence.

MATERIALS: Paper, pencil, exercises and examples from the book The Process of Paragraph Writing.

1. Review previous lesson

   - Review and practice what was taught in previous lesson. About 15 minutes.

2. Presentation of new material

   Vocabulary

   - Spend about 15 minutes explaining the basic organization of a paragraph.

     Topic Sentence
     Supporting Detail #1
     Supporting Detail #2
     Supporting Detail #3
     Concluding Sentence

   - Spend another 15 minutes showing examples of and characteristics of good topic sentences.

     1. Must be a sentence
        Bad examples: How to make chicken soup
        Driving in the U.S.
        The importance of learning English
     2. Must have a controlling idea
        Good Examples: Making chicken soup is as easy as 1, 2, 3.
        Driving in the U.S. is confusing for foreigners.
        There are three important reasons for learning English.
     3. Must not be too general or too specific.
        Too general: Solar energy is good.
        Too specific: The Boulder Public Library is heated by solar energy.
        Good: Solar energy is a viable alternative to other more traditional energy sources.

4. May be a statement of intent, opinion or both.
   Intent: There are seven steps involved in the process of brewing beer.
   Opinion: Brewing beer is my favorite hobby.
   Both: Making Thanksgiving dinner is as easy as 1, 2, 3.

3. Practice

- Do exercises III, 3C and 3F (attached). About 30 minutes.

4. Homework

- Have the student take the following six general topics, narrow them down and write a topic sentence for each.

Women	Books
Cars	Pets
Work	Safety

EXERCISE 3C

Read the topic sentences below. Identify them as either a statement of opinion or a statement of intent. In some cases, the topic sentence might be both.

	STATEMENT OF . . .
1. A pharmacist has two major responsibilities: to prepare drugs accurately and to check their effectiveness.	_____
2. Women in the U.S.S.R. have more problems than men.	_____
3. Living in Florida is better than living in New York.	_____
4. There are two ways to lose weight.	_____
5. Making *hayacas*, a traditional dish, is difficult and complicated.	_____
6. Swimming is my favorite sport.	_____
7. Learning to use the university library is necessary for all students.	_____
8. Doctors' wives lead unusual lives.	_____
9. The burial ceremony in Indonesia has three rituals.	_____
10. Raising the drinking age to 21 will save many lives.	_____

Reid, J. & Lindstrom, M. (1985). The Process of Paragraph Writing. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall., p.49.

EXERCISE 3F

Compare these sets of sentences. Which sentence fulfills the criteria for a valid topic sentence? Circle the controlling ideas. What questions might be answered in the paragraph that will follow the topic sentence?

1. It likes to play.
   My new kitten, Mali, is very playful.

   Questions: _____

   _____

2. My car is a Volkswagen.
   My car has caused me many problems this week.

   Questions: _____

   _____

3. He is a doctor.
   Dr. Smith is a talented pediatrician.

   Questions: _____

   _____

4. This is a chair.
   Steve's favorite chair is ugly, but he loves it.

   Questions: _____

   _____

5. They are funny paintings.
   In his paintings, Salvadore Dali uses strange melting images.

   Questions: _____

   _____

Reid, J. & Lindstrom, M. (1985). The Process of Paragraph Writing. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall., p.53.

EXERCISE III Writing a Topic Sentence to Fit a Reason Paragraph

The topic sentences of the following paragraphs have been omitted. Read the paragraphs carefully; then figure out what purpose the writer had, and suggest a topic sentence that includes both the topic and the controlling idea.

A. _____

_____

The world continues to demand more spices as people increasingly experiment with different types of cuisine. All over the world, hand-labor costs are rising, causing the price of spices to rise also. Political unrest in many spice-producing countries is limiting the supply. Bay leaves from Turkey, cinnamon from Vietnam, and vanilla from Madagascar are all becoming scarce. Substitutes are often harsh and lacking in the pungent* flavors of the authentic* spices. Perhaps soon the producing countries will begin exporting more spices, so the world can once again savor* them in its food.

*pungent—strong, flavorful
*authentic—true, real
*savor—enjoy the taste of

B. _____

_____

First, the rising price of heating oil makes wood economically feasible.* Many people find that wood-burning costs at most one-half the price of oil. Second, in many places, firewood can be gathered free—except for the physical labor involved. Third, many people enjoy their fireplaces. They feel warm in their bodies and in their hearts from using something so natural. As an alternative energy source, wood is economical, clean, and enjoyable.

*economically feasible—affordable

C. _____

_____

The most obvious of these needs is the transportation of food from the farm to the city. Related to this need is the need to move manufactured goods around the country. Also, people need to travel. Every day, people need roads to get to work, to go shopping, to visit family and friends. Commerce* and communication are the reasons most people think of for building a highway system, but there is one even more important reason—protection. Roads allow for easy escape to or from the city. Military forces can move quickly over good roads to subdue* any uprising or ward off* attackers. This military purpose is not the reason why roads are built today, but the roads that led to Rome and made that city the head of an empire had all three purposes: business, communication, and defense. As can be seen, defense, communication, and business are the primary reasons for building roads.

*commerce—business
*subdue—quiet
*ward off—fight off

83

APPENDIX A

CORE CURRICULUM DOCUMENT

PART I — TOPICS AND COMPETENCIES LISTED BY LEVEL

Level 1

BANKING

★ ★	Ban-1	Endorse a check.
	Ban-2	Provide proper ID upon request to cash a check or money order. ([Can I see some identification?])

COMMUNITY SERVICES

★ ★	CmS-1	Read emergency words. (FIRE, POLICE, POISON)
★ ★	CmS-2	Read, say, and dial telephone numbers of emergency services. (FIRE-991)
★ ★	CmS-3	Spell name and address and report an emergency in the home by telephone in simple terms. ("Help!"; "Police!")
★ ★	CmS-4	Ask for stamps at a post office. ("Two airmail stamps, please.")
	CmS-5	Identify basic facilities, services, and commonly seen community workers in the neighborhood/community. ("Bank"; "money"; "teller." "Hospital"; "sick"; "doctor.")

EMPLOYMENT — FINDING A JOB

★ ★	EFJ-1	State previous occupation(s) in simple terms. ("Cook.")
★ ★	EFJ-2	State current job status. ([Do you have a job?] "No." or "Yes.")
	EFJ-3	State desire to work in simple terms. ("I want a job.")

EMPLOYMENT — ON THE JOB

★ ★	EOJ-1	Ask if a task was done correctly. ("OK"?)
★ ★	EOJ-2	Ask simple clarification questions about routine job tasks and instructions. ("Please repeat."; "Do this?")
★ ★	EOJ-3	Respond to simple direct questions about work progress and completion of tasks. ([Are you finished?] "No.")
★ ★	EOJ-4	Ask supervisor or co-worker for help. ("Can you help me?")
★ ★	EOJ-5	Sign name on timesheet.
★ ★	EOJ-6	Respond to simple oral warnings or basic commands about safety. ([Watch out!])

★ ★	Key competency
( )	Language example for competency statement
[ ]	Language example that students are expected to listen to and understand
" "	Language example that students are expected to produce
(CAPITALS)	Language example that students are expected to read and understand

Level 1 - Continued

★★	EOJ-7	Read common warning or safety signs at the work-site. (DANGER)
★★	EOJ-8	Read alpha-numeric codes. (AF 47)
★★	EOJ-9	Give simple excuses for lateness or absence in person. ("I was sick yesterday.")

HEALTH

★★	He-1	State own general condition in simple terms. ("I'm tired.")
★★	He-2	State need for medical help. ("Help. I'm sick.")
	He-3	Read simple signs related to health care. (HOSPITAL; EMERGENCY; PHARMACY; DRUG STORE)

HOUSING

★★	Hou-1	Identify common household furniture/rooms. ("Kitchen"; "bathroom.")
★★	Hou-2	Read exit route signs in housing. (EXIT; FIRE ESCAPE)
	Hou-3	Identify basic types of available housing. ("Apartment; house.")

SHOPPING (INCLUDES FOOD, CLOTHING)

★★	Sho-1	State basic food needs. ("I need rice.")
★★	Sho-2	Ask the price of food, clothing, or other items in a store. ("How much is this coat?")
★★	Sho-3	Read a limited number of basic store signs. (IN; OUT; SALE)
	Sho-4	State basic clothing needs. ("I need a coat.")
	Sho-5	Read aisle numbers. (2B)

TRANSPORTATION

★★	Tra-1	Ask the amount of local bus or train fares. ("How much is a bus ticket?")
★★	Tra-2	Read a limited number of symbols or transportation/pedestrian signs. (BUS STOP; WALK/DON'T WALK)
	Tra-3	Ask for a transfer. ("A transfer, please.")

APPENDIX A

BANKING

★★	Ban-3	Ask to cash a check or money order. ("Can I cash this check?")
	Ban-4	Buy a money order. ("A money order for $50.00, please.")

COMMUNITY SERVICES

★★	CmS-6	Report an emergency in person. ("Help! Fire in Apartment 2A!")
★★	CmS-7	Correctly address an envelope/package, including return address.

EMPLOYMENT — FINDING A JOB

★★	EFJ-4	State own job skills in simple terms. ("I can cook.")
★★	EFJ-5	Copy basic personal information onto a simple job application form. (NAME; SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER; AGE; ADDRESS)
	EFJ-6	Read "HELP WANTED" sign.
	EFJ-7	Identify some common entry-level jobs which can be held by those with limited English ability.

EMPLOYMENT — ON THE JOB

★★	EOJ-10	State need for frequently used materials. ("I need boxes.")
★★	EOJ-11	Report work progress and completion of tasks. ("I'm finished.")
★★	EOJ-12	Find out about the location of common materials and facilities at the work-site. ("Where is the supply room?")
★★	EOJ-13	Follow simple one-step oral instructions to begin and to perform a task which is demonstrated, including simple classroom instructions. ([Put these away.])
	EOJ-14	Ask for permission to leave work early or to be excused from work. ("Can I go home?")
	EOJ-15	Give simple excuses for lateness or absence on the telephone. ("My name's Tran. I'm sick today.")

HEALTH

★★	He-4	Identify major body parts. ("Arm"; "stomach"; "leg.")
★★	He-5	State major illnesses or injuries. ("Sore throat"; broken arm.")
★★	He-6	Make a doctor's appointment in person, giving own name, address, and telephone number when asked.
★★	He-7	Read time and date for a medical appointment from an appointment card. (THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, AT 3:00)
★★	He-8	State a need for an interpreter. ("I don't speak English. I speak Vietnamese.")
	He-9	Follow simple instructions during a medical exam. ([Open your mouth; Take off your shirt; Take a deep breath.])
	He-10	Ask for familiar non-prescription medication at the drug store. ("I want a bottle of aspirin.")
	He-11	State others' health problems in simple terms. ("His arm hurts.")

Level 2 - Continued

	He-12	Determine and report body temperature as indicated by a thermometer. ("My temperature is 100.")
	He-13	Ask for a patient's room number in a hospital. ("What is Sarem Nouan's room number?")
	He-14	Identify oneself, one's appointment time, and doctor's name, if applicable, upon arrival at the doctor's office. ("I'm Sarem Nouan. I have a 2:00 appointment." [Which doctor?] "Dr. Smith.")

HOUSING

★ ★	Hou-4	Report basic household problems and request repairs in simple terms. ("The toilet is leaking. Please fix it.")
★ ★	Hou-5	Report basic household emergencies by telephone — fire, break-ins, etc.; give and spell name, address, and give telephone number when asked.
	Hou-6	Answer simple questions about basic housing needs. ([What kind of apartment do you want?] "I need three bedrooms.")
	Hou-7	Ask how much the rent is. ("How much is the rent?")
	Hou-8	Read common housing signs. (FOR RENT; STAIRS)

SHOPPING (INCLUDES FOOD, CLOTHING)

★ ★	Sho-6	Differentiate sizes by reading tags. (S, M, or L; 8, 10 or 12)
★ ★	Sho-7	Read abbreviations for common weights and measures in a supermarket (LB.; QT.)
★ ★	Sho-8	Read common store signs. (IN; OUT; UP; DOWN; CASHIER)
★ ★	Sho-9	Ask about and read signs for store hours. (OPEN; CLOSED; SAT. 9 A.M.-12 P.M.)
★ ★	Sho-10	Read expiration dates. (EXP. 4/4/84; SELL BY 4/8/82)
	Sho-11	Request size and color for a specific item in simple terms. ("Do you have a small size?")
	Sho-12	Ask for information about places to buy food/clothing/household items. ("Where can I buy rice?")
	Sho-13	Ask for and follow simple directions to locate food/clothing in a store. ("Where are the coats?" [In Aisle 4a])
	Sho-14	Ask for food using common weights and measures. ("One pound of hamburger, please.")
	Sho-15	Order and pay for food at a fast food restaurant. ("A hamburger and a Coke, please.")

TRANSPORTATION

★ ★	Tra-4	Ask for a bus, train, or plane destination. ("Where does this bus go?")
★ ★	Tra-5	Read signs indicating bus/train destinations and street names. (MAIN STREET)
	Tra-6	Ask for information about a location in an airport, bus or train station. ("Where is Gate 10?")

APPENDIX A

BANKING

★ ★	Ban-5	Write a check.
	Ban-6	Fill out a money order, including date, amount, name of addressee, own name and signature.

COMMUNITY SERVICES

	CmS-8	Provide upon request proof of address or other necessary information in order to obtain a library card. ([Can I see your driver's license?] "Yes, here you are.")
	CmS-9	Report location and problem in an emergency outside the home. ("Help! There's a robbery at 10 Main Street!")
	CmS-10	Ask and answer questions about the name of own or child's school, teacher, class, and time. ([Which school does your child go to?] "Lincoln School.")

EMPLOYMENT — FINDING A JOB

★ ★	EFJ-8	Respond to specific questions about previous work experience using short phrases, including occupation(s), length, and dates of employment. ([What was your job?] "Cook." [How long?] "Ten years.")
★ ★	EFJ-9	Fill out a simple job application form, excluding previous or current occupation(s) and dates of employment.
★ ★	EFJ-10	Ask others for help in finding a job, e.g from a sponsor, job developer, or friends. ("I need a job.")
★ ★	EFJ-11	Inquire about job openings and determine a time for an interview in person ("Is there a job opening for a housekeeper?" [Yes.] "What time can I interview?" [Monday, at 9:00])
★ ★	EFJ-12	State own situation in regard to work shifts, starting date, specific hours, and payday. ("I can work 3 to 11.")
	EFJ-13	Answer basic direct questions about pay, work availability, and hours. ([Is $4 00 an hour OK?] "Yes." [When can you start?] "Tomorrow." [Can you work nights?] "Yes.")
	EFJ-14	Express concerns and fears about the job in simple terms. ("The job is dangerous ")

EMPLOYMENT — ON THE JOB

★ ★	EOJ-16	Follow simple oral instructions which contain references to places or objects in the immediate work area. ([Get me the box over there.])
★ ★	EOJ-17	Modify a task based on changes in instructions. ([Wait! Don't use that.]
	EOJ-18	Ask/tell where a co-worker is ([Where's Tran?] "He's in the cafeteria.")

HEALTH

★ ★	He-15	Ask about and follow simple instructions for using medicine. ("How much?"; "How many?")
★ ★	He-16	State symptoms associated with common illnesses ("I have diarrhea ")

APPENDIX A

Level 3 - Continued

★ ★	He-17	Read the generic names of common non-prescription medicines. (ASPIRIN; COUGH SYRUP)
★ ★	He-18	Read and follow directions on medicine labels, including abbreviations. (TAKE 2 TSP. 3 TIMES A DAY.)
	He-19	Ask for assistance in locating common non-prescription medicines. ("Where is the aspirin?")
	He-20	Follow simple oral instructions about treatment. ([Stay in bed. Take one pill every day.])
	He-21	Locate facilities within a hospital by reading signs. (X-RAY; CAFETERIA)

HOUSING

★ ★	Hou 9	Ask for information about housing, including location, number of and types of rooms, rent, deposit, and utilities. ("Where is the apartment?"; "How many rooms are there?"; "How much is the rent?")
★ ★	Hou-10	Identify total amount due on monthly bills. (AMOUNT DUE: $35.87)
★ ★	Hou-11	Arrange a time with the landlord or superintendent to make household repairs, in person. ("Can you fix the furnace this morning?")
	Hou-12	Describe own housing situation, including cost and size and number of household members. ("My apartment is too small.")
	Hou-13	Make simple arrangements to view housing in person. ("Can I see the apartment this afternoon?")

SHOPPING (INCLUDES FOOD, CLOTHING)

	Sho-16	Read prices and weights of various food items and determine the best buy by comparing. ($1.89/LB., $1.99/LB.)
	Sho-17	Respond to cashier's questions concerning means of payment. ([Cash or charge?] "Cash.")
	Sho-18	Request a different size or price ("Do you have a bigger one?")
	Sho-19	Ask for a receipt. ("Can I have a receipt, please?")

TRANSPORTATION

★ ★	Tra-7	Respond to and ask basic questions about one's own or others' departure/arrival times. ("When are you leaving?")
★ ★	Tra-8	Respond to common requests. ([Please move to the back of the bus.])
★ ★	Tra-9	Ask when or where to get off or on a local bus/train. ("I'm going to the post office. Where do I get off?")
	Tra-10	Buy bus, plane, or train tickets. ("I'd like a one-way ticket to Chicago.")
	Tra-11	Read common signs in an airport or bus/train station. (TO GATES 6-14; TICKETS)
	Tra-12	Read common traffic and pedestrian signs (ONE WAY, KEEP RIGHT, NO PARKING)

APPENDIX A

Level 4

BANKING

★★	Ban-7	Fill out deposit/withdrawal slips.
	Ban-8	Buy and fill out an international money order.

COMMUNITY SERVICES

	CmS-11	Read and interpret common signs regarding hours in public areas. (PARK CLOSED 6:00)
	CmS-12	Fill out a change of address form, with assistance.
	CmS-13	Ask simple questions to determine correct postage. ("How much is this letter by airmail?")

EMPLOYMENT — FINDING A JOB

★★	EFJ-15	Read want ads and identify skills needed for a job.
★★	EFJ-16	Describe previous work experience, job skills, qualifications and training, including degrees of ability. ("I can fix trucks"; "I have a lot of experience.")
	EFJ-17	Read signs and notices posted at a work-site, agency, etc., advertising positions available; ask for clarification if necessary. Indicate several general types of entry-level work in the U.S. and their respective duties, qualifications, and working hours. ("Factory work"; "sort parts"; "no experience required"; "full-time.")
	EFJ-19	Answer basic questions about educational background, including dates and location(s) (by country) ([What is your educational background?] "I finished high school in Iraq in 1970.")
	EFJ-20	State long-term work goals. ("I'd like to be a supervisor.")

EMPLOYMENT — ON THE JOB

★★	EOJ-19	Give simple one-step instructions to co-workers ("Put the tools over there.")
★★	EOJ-20	Follow simple two-step instructions on the job ([Take this and put it on the shelf.])
★★	EOJ-21	Respond to supervisor's comments about quality of work on the job, including mistakes, working too slowly, and incomplete work. ("I'm sorry. I won't do it again.")
★★	EOJ-22	Give specific reasons for sickness, absence, or lateness. ("I had the flu. I had to go to the doctor.")
★★	EOJ-23	Report specific problems encountered in completing a task. ("I don't have any more paper.")
	EOJ-24	Read first name and department on employer name tags. (ROSE. DEPARTMENT 10)

APPENDIX A

Level 4 -Continued

HEALTH

★★	He-22	Ask a doctor or nurse about own physical condition or treatment plan using simple language. ("What's the problem/matter? Can I go to work?")
★★	He-23	Describe own emotional state and explain the reason for it. ("I am sad because I think about my family in Cambodia.")
★★	He-24	Make a doctor's appointment on the telephone, giving name, address, telephone number, and nature of the problem, and request a convenient day and time — after school or work hours.
★★	He-25	Change or cancel a doctor's appointment in person. ("I'd like to cancel my appointment on March 10.")
	He-26	Report lateness for a medical appointment by telephone. ("I'm going to be 30 minutes late. Is that OK?")
	He-27	State results of a visit to a doctor/clinic/hospital to employer or teacher. ("The doctor says I can come back to work.")
	He-28	Fill out a simple insurance form with assistance.
	He-29	Respond to simple questions about physical condition or disability. ([Do you have any health problems?] "I have allergies.")

HOUSING

★★	Hou-14	State housing needs and ask specific questions about cost, size, accessibility to transportation and community services, and basic conditions for rental — date available, number of persons allowed, in person. ("When is the apartment available?"; "Where is the nearest bus stop?")
★★	Hou-15	Make arrangements with the landlord to move in or out of housing, including return of deposit. ("I'd like to move in on June 19.")
★★	Hou-16	Question errors on household bills in person. ("There's a mistake on my telephone bill. I didn't make these long-distance calls.")
	Hou-17	Ask about and follow special instructions on the use of an apartment or housing ([Take out the garbage on Thursdays])
	Hou-18	Ask about and follow instructions for using/maintaining common household equipment and facilities — defrosting the refrigerator, lighting the pilot, using laundry facilities. ("How do I turn on the heat?")
	Hou-19	Ask to borrow basic tools and household items from a neighbor ("Excuse me, can I borrow a hammer?")

SHOPPING (INCLUDES FOOD, CLOTHING)

★★	Sho-20	Express a need to return/exchange merchandise and state satisfaction/dissatisfaction with an item in terms of color, size, fit, etc. ("This is too big.")
	Sho-21	Read supermarket/department store newspaper ads or use coupons for comparative shopping. (FLORIDA ORANGES, 5 LB. BAG $1.79)
	Sho-22	Locate items in a supermarket/store by reading common section/department signs (PRODUCE; HOUSEWARES)

Level 4 - Continued

	Sho-23	Read a variety of store signs indicating sales or special prices. (REDUCED; TODAY ONLY)
	Sho-24	Request a particular color or style of clothing. ("Do you have this in light blue?")

TRANSPORTATION

★ ★	Tra-13	Ask where a bus/train is going, where it stops, and which buses/ trains stop at a given stop. ("Which bus stops at Main Street and Second Avenue?")
★ ★	Tra-14	Read an arrival/departure information board in an airport or bus/ train station.

APPENDIX A

Level 5

BANKING

★ ★	Ban-9	Fill out the required forms to open a checking or savings account with assistance
	Ban-10	Read a savings and checking account statement.

COMMUNITY SERVICES

	CmS-14	Write a note or call to explain an absence from school. ("I was absent yesterday because I went to the dentist.")
	CmS-15	Respond to postal clerk's questions regarding custom forms and insurance forms for domestic and overseas packages. ([What's inside?] "Clothing." [What's the value?] "$25.00.")
	CmS-16	Respond to serious weather conditions based on a TV, radio, or telephone warning. ([There's a tornado watch until 10:00 tonight.])
	CmS-17	Inquire about the availability of vocational training or adult basic education programs. ("Is there a welding class that I can take?")
	CmS-18	Read and respond appropriately to written communications from child's school — shortened school day, vacation, parent-teacher meeting.
	CmS-19	Read basic information on child's report card. (P = PASS; F = FAIL)
	CmS-20	Ask for information about and locate on a map recreational facilities and entertainment ("Where can I go fishing?")
	CmS-21	Fill out postal forms, such as letter registration forms, without assistance.
	CmS-22	Arrange daycare or pre-school for own children ("I'd like to enroll my daughter in pre-school.")

EMPLOYMENT — FINDING A JOB

★ ★	EFJ-21	Fill out a standard job application form; ask for assistance when needed.
★ ★	EFJ-22	Begin and end an interview appropriately; answer and ask questions and volunteer information, if necessary.
★ ★	EFJ-23	Find out about benefits for a new job. ("What kinds of benefits are available?")
★ ★	EFJ-24	State own ability to use tools, equipment, and machines. ("I can operate a fork-lift.")
★ ★	EFJ-25	State own strengths related to work ("I learn quickly.")
	EFJ-26	Respond appropriately to an employer's decision about a job, whether accepted or rejected. ([I'm sorry, but the job is filled.] "Do you have any other openings?")

EMPLOYMENT — ON THE JOB

★ ★	EOJ-25	Respond to multiple-step oral instructions without visual references ([Take the box in the hall to the mailroom and put it on the top shelf.])
★ ★	EOJ-26	Briefly explain a technique or the operation of a piece of basic equipment to a co-worker. May use gestures or a demonstration ("You have to loosen the screw and raise it up.")

Level 5 - Continued

	EOJ-27	State intention to resign and give reasons for resigning from a job. ("I'm going to quit my job in three weeks because I'm moving.")
	EOJ-28	Request a letter of reference. ("Could you write a reference letter for me?")

HEALTH

★★	He-30	Telephone or write a simple note to school/work explaining own or child's absence due to illness. ("My daughter was absent yesterday because she had the flu.")
★★	He-31	Read warnings, storage directions, and emergency instructions. (REFRIGERATE AFTER OPENING; KEEP OUT OF THE REACH OF CHILDREN)
★★	He-32	Describe general medical history orally, including names of major illnesses. ("I had hepatitis in 1980.")
★★	He-33	Respond to questions about means of payment. ([Do you have Medicaid or personal insurance?] "Medicaid.")
	He-34	Fill out a simple medical history form with assistance. May use bilingual materials if needed.
	He-35	Explain own and others' health problems in detail. ("My back hurts when I lift heavy objects.")
	He-37	Offer advice for health problems. ("You've been sick for a long time. Why don't you see a doctor?")

HOUSING

★★	Hou-20	Arrange for installation or termination of household utilities. ("I'd like to have a telephone installed as soon as possible.")
★★	Hou-21	Question errors on household bills on the telephone. ("I have one phone. Why am I charged for two phones?")
★★	Hou-22	Explain the exact nature or cause of a household problem ("The bathroom sink is leaking. There's water all over the floor.")
	Hou-23	Read classified ads and housing notices
	Hou-24	Read utility meters and bills.
	Hou-25	Make complaints to and respond appropriately to complaints from neighbors or the landlord. ("Your dog barks too much. We can't sleep. Can you keep him quiet?")

SHOPPING (INCLUDES FOOD, CLOTHING)

	Sho-25	Ask about and follow oral instructions for care of clothing or read labels on clothing in symbols and words. ([Wash it in cold water.] "Can I put it in the dryer?")
	Sho-26	Read names of different types of stores. (HARDWARE; JEWELRY)
	Sho-27	Ask about and understand basic information about store hours, products and prices over the telephone. ("Do you make keys?")

TRANSPORTATION

	Tra-15	Read printed bus/train schedules.

APPENDIX B

CO Component (International Catholic Migration Commission, 1985)

1. To provide language exercises that emphasize "careful listening (taking directions)" and "confirming orders (asking for clarification) when needed" (Day 29)
2. To develop the belief "that self-sufficiency is highly regarded in American society, that upward mobility is possible by hard work and perseverance . . . and that men and women have equal access to employment opportunities" (Day 22)
3. To discourage attending school while receiving welfare (Day 54)
4. To "promote the attitude that it is reasonable for couples to consciously determine the number of children they wish to have and the timing of having them" (Day 45)
5. To "foster the attitude that American police are held accountable by the community for their actions and can be viewed as helpers of the individual and family" (Day 66)
6. To develop "the attitude that . . . the purchasing and use of second-hand items is appropriate" (Day 38)

PET Component (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1984)

1. To accept "the crucial stress on time in the American workplace" (p. 8)
2. To be conscious of safety standards on the job "since American employers expect employees to be safety conscious" (p. 9)
3. To "state how severe the unemployment situation is in the U.S. and why it will probably be necessary to take an entry level job" (p. 265)
4. To measure one's success in resettlement in terms of one's job (pp. 266-267)

ESL Component (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983a)

1. To "identify common entry level jobs which can be held by those with limited English ability" (pp. 31-32)
2. To "answer basic direct questions about pay, work availability, and hours. (Is $4.00 an hour OK? Yes. When can you start? Tomorrow. Can you work nights? Yes.)" (pp. 31-32)
3. To "respond appropriately to an employer's decision about a job . . ([I'm sorry. We cannot hire you.] Do you have any other opening?)" (pp. 31-32)
4. To "ask if a task was done correctly. (Is this right?)" (pp. 33-34)
5. To "respond appropriately to supervisor's comments about quality of work on the job including mistakes, working too slowly, and incomplete work. (I'm sorry. I won't do it again.)" (pp. 33-34)
6. To "ask about appropriateness of actions according to customs/culture in the U.S. (Is it all right to wear my shoes in the house?)" (pp. 46-47)
7. To "ask permission to use or do something. (Can I smoke here? Can I use the phone?)" (pp. 46-47)
8. To "rephrase instructions to verify comprehension" (p. 28)
9. To "identify which part of instructions or explanations was not understood. (I don't understand what to do after I put these away.)" (p. 28)
10. To "read and respond appropriately to written communication from a school (e.g., permission forms)" (p. 29)
11. To "report and describe a crime/emergency to police/proper authorities. Write a note or call to explain an absence from school" (p. 29)

Tollefson, J. (1986). Functional Competencies in the Refugee Program: Theoretical and Practical Problems. TESOL Quarterly.

APPENDIX C

BOSNIAN REFUGEE RESETTLEMENT COMMITTEE, INC.

VOLUNTEER JOB DESCRIPTION

Position Title:	Home Tutor
Qualifications:	Sincere interest in people from other cultures. Ability to keep appointments, be reliable and treat information confidentially. Experience teaching or learning language and/or experience living abroad helpful. Ability to work with individuals who may have little or no understanding of the English language. Patience in helping with use of both spoken and written English.
Responsibilities:	Help a Bosnian refugee gain greater control of English and a greater understanding of American life. Meet with an individual and/or family in the home for 2 hours each week. Enter comments into the Log Book located in the home. Communicate with Program Director or ESL Coordinator on a regular basis.
Time Commitment:	Two hours per week for a minimum of six months; attend family "team" meeting once per month for two months. then at needed times. Attend one ESL class at Paddock or San Juan School with individual or family during the first month. Attend monthly "Tutor Potluck" to share experience, knowledge, if you wish.
Opportunities:	To learn about a different culture. To have a meaningful impact on the lives of refugees. To make new friends!
Training and	Initial orientation with the BRRC Program Director and/or ESL coordinator for four hours on a Saturday afternoon. Ongoing support from PD and/or ESL Coordinator; ongoing support from "Tutor's Potluck" meeting held once per month if you wish to attend.
Supervision:	We are available by phone or appointment to assist you throughout your volunteer experience.
Location:	In the refugee's home in Boulder.
Contact:	Linda Radcliffe. Program Director, 444-2550

APPENDIX D

BASIC VOCABULARY LIST: GROUP ONE

NOUNS Group One

accident
address
afternoon
age
air
airplane
animal
apartment
arm
aunt
baby
back
bank
bed
beginning
bicycle
bird
birthday
boat

body
book
boy
bus
bread
breakfast
brother
building
bus
car
chair
child
circle
city
class
clothes
coat
color*
corner

country
cup
date
daughter
day
desk
dictionary
dinner
direction
doctor
door
ear
earth
end
evening
eye
face
family
father

finger
fire
fish
floor
food
foot
friend
front
fruit
future
garden
glass
girl
hair
half
hand
hat
head
holiday
home
homework
hospital
hotel
hour
house
human being
husband
idea
information
insect
job
juice
land
language
leg
letter
library
life
light
line
lunch
man
meat
mile
minute
mistake
money
month
moon
morning
mother

mouse
music
name
night
noun
nose
notebook
number
office
page
parents
park
part
party
past
pen
pencil
people
pepper
person
picture
place
plant
present
price
problem
question
reason
restaurant
rice
river
room
roommate
school
shoe
side
sister
sky
smile
son
sound
street
student
sun
table
teacher
test
thing
time
town
tree

trouble
uncle
universities
vacation
vegetable
vocabulary
voice
wall
water
way
weather
week
wife
window
woman
word
work
world
year
zoo

VERBS Group One

answer
arrive
ask
be
become
begin
believe
break
bring
build
buy
call
carry
catch
change
close
come
continue
cost
cry
cut
die
do
drink
eat
end
enter
explain

fail
feel
fight
find
finish
fix
get
give
go
grow
happen
have
hear
help
hold
hope
hurt
interest
keep
know
laugh
learn
leave
let
like
listen
live
look
lose
lose
make
mean
meet
move
need
open
pay
plan
put
rain
read
ride
run
say
see
sell
send
sit
sleep
speak
stand

start
stay
stop
study
take
talk
teach
tell
think
touch
try
turn
use
wait
walk
want
wash
watch
work
write
understand
visit

ADJECTIVES Group One - Opposites

bad	good
beautiful	ugly
big	little
big	small
cheap	expensive
clean	dirty
cold	hot
cool	warm
dangerous	safe
dark	light
deep	shallow
different	same
difficult	simple
dry	wet
early	late
east	west
empty	full
fast	slow
fat	thin
first	last
happy	sad
hard	easy
hard	soft
healthy	ill
healthy	sick
heavy	light
high	low
intelligent	stupid
large	little
large	small
left	right
long	short
messy	neat
modern	old-fashioned
narrow	wide
noisy	quiet
north	south
old	new
old	young
poor	rich
private	public
right	wrong
rough	smooth
short	tall
sour	sweet
strong	weak

*British English = flour

All = Appendix 3

Azar, B. (1992) Fundamentals of English Grammar, Second Edition, Volume A. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX D

BASIC VOCABULARY LIST: GROUP TWO

NOUNS (Group Two)

amount
army
art
bag
ball
beach
hill
blood
bottom
bridge
business
cat
ceiling
center*
century
chance
clock
cloud
coffee
college
computer
concert
condition
conversation
course
crowd
definition
difference
distance
dog
dress
earthquake
egg
enemy
example
experience
fact
fall/autumn
fear
field
flower
forest
form
furniture
game
gas(oline)**
gold
government
grass
group
hall
health
heart
heat
hill
history
hole
horse
hundred
ice
individual
industry
island
key
kitchen
knife
lake
law
list
luck
magazine
mail
market
math(ematics)
meaning
member
middle
midnight
milk
million
mind
mountain
mouth
nation
nature
neck
neighbor
newspaper
noise
object
ocean
office
opinion
pain
paint
pair
pants
peace
period
picnic
pleasure
pocket
position
power
pronunciation
purpose
radio
result
ring
rule
salt
sandwich
science
sea
season
seat
shape
shirt
shoulder
situation
size
skin
snow
song
space
spelling
spring
stamp
star
store
subject
success
sugar
storm
suit
summer
tape recorder
tea
telephone
television
theater*
thousand
top
toy
train
trip
trouble
umbrella
universe
valley
value
war
wind
wing
winter
wood

*British English = centre

**British English = petrol

VERBS (Group Two)

accept
act
add
agree
allow
appear
attempt
attend
beat
blow
borrow
burn
cause
choose
collect
complete
consider
contain
control
cook
cross
count
cover
dance
decide
disappear
discover
divide
doubt
draw
dream
dress
drive
drop
enjoy
exist
expect
fail
fill
fit
flow
fly
forget
guess
hang
hate
hit
hurry
improve
include
introduce
invite
join
kill
kiss
lead
lend
lift
marry
notice
obtain
offer
order
own
pass
permit
pick
point
pour
practice
prepare
promise
prove
provide
pull
push
reach
realize
receive
recognize
refuse
remember
repeat
reply
report
require
return
rise
save
search
seem
separate
serve
share
shout
show
sign
sing
smell
spell
spend
spread
succeed
suggest
supply
surprise
surround
taste
tear
thank
tie
travel
wave
wear
win
wish
wonder
worry

*British English = theatre (This spelling is also frequently used in American English.)

Azar, B. (1992) Fundamentals of English Grammar, Second Edition, Volume A. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX D

ADJECTIVES (Group Two)

absent
angry
bald
bright
busy
calm
dead
delicious
delightful
dizzy
essential
famous
flat
foolish
foreign
free
fresh
funny
glad
great
handsome
humid
hungry
lazy
mad
native
nervous
nice
pretty
proud
rapid
ripe
round
serious
sharp
sorry
special
strange
terrific
tough
unique
various
whole
wild
wise
wonderful

ADJECTIVE OPPOSITES

accurate	inaccurate
certain	uncertain
clear	unclear
comfortable	uncomfortable
common	uncommon
complete	incomplete
convenient	inconvenient
dependent	independent
direct	indirect
fair	unfair
familiar	unfamiliar
happy	unhappy
healthy	unhealthy
important	unimportant
interesting	uninteresting
kind	unkind
lawful	unlawful
legal	illegal
logical	illogical
necessary	unnecessary
normal	abnormal
pleasant	unpleasant
polite	impolite
possible	impossible
proper	improper
rational	irrational
real	unreal
regular	irregular
responsible	irresponsible
sure	unsure
true	untrue
usual	unusual
visible	invisible

ADVERBS (Group Two)

actually
afterward(s)
almost
already
anymore
anywhere
apparently
carefully
certainly
completely
constantly
downtown
easily
enough
entirely
especially
everywhere
extremely
fortunately
just
later
next
obviously
perhaps
quietly
rarely
regularly
seldom
seriously
somewhere
still
surely
together
too
well
yet

Azar, B. (1992) Fundamentals of English Grammar, Second Edition, Volume A. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX E

ESL Learning Checklist
Level 1

TOPICS FOR LANGUAGE USAGE:

- ☐ 1. Basic greetings
- ☐ 2. Family members
- ☐ 3. Introductions
- ☐ 4. Give personal information
- ☐ 5. States of being/feeling
- ☐ 6. Simple telephoning skills
- ☐ 7. Making an appointment
- ☐ 8. Telling time
- ☐ 9. Identify common foods
- ☐ 10. Locate foods in store
- ☐ 11. Money and numbers
- ☐ 12. Place names (gas station, etc.)
- ☐ 13. Order from a menu
- ☐ 14. Ask directions/understand reply
- ☐ 15. Parts of the body
- ☐ 16. Describe health problems
- ☐ 17. Clothing items
- ☐ 18. Colors
- ☐ 19. Days of the week/date

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX E

ESL Learning Checklist
Level 11

TOPICS FOR LANGUAGE USAGE

- ☐ 1. Occupations
- ☐ 2. Weather
- ☐ 3. Street signs/car use (turn, etc.)
- ☐ 4. Bus ticket (buy and get information)
- ☐ 5. Shopping for clothes
- ☐ 6. Use telephone book
- ☐ 7. Use newspaper to find jobs and housing
- ☐ 8. House (rooms and furniture)
- ☐ 9. Identify common tools
- ☐ 10. Describé repairs needed
- ☐ 11. Read clothing labels
- ☐ 12. Cash a check
- ☐ 13. Make an appointment for interview
- ☐ 14. Interviewing
- ☐ 15. Differentiate between checking and savings
- ☐ 16. Make a deposit and withdrawl
- ☐ 17. Function in post office

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX E

ESL Learning Checklist
Level III

ACTIVITIES FOR LANGAUGE EXPERIENCE

- ☐ 1. Identify and use local library services
- ☐ 2. Register child for school/day care)
- ☐ 3. Use community resources
- ☐ 4. Good telephone usage (message-leave and take)
- ☐ 5. Insurance
- ☐ 6. Ordinal numbers (date)
- ☐ 7. Retell story in own words
- ☐ 8. Have a phone or utility connected/disconnected
- ☐ 9. Report an emergency
- ☐ 10. Use appropriate responses in life situations
- ☐ 11. Use correct expression/intonation
- ☐ 12. Express emotions in situations (anger, etc.)
- ☐ 13. Listening skill for radio, news, t.v.

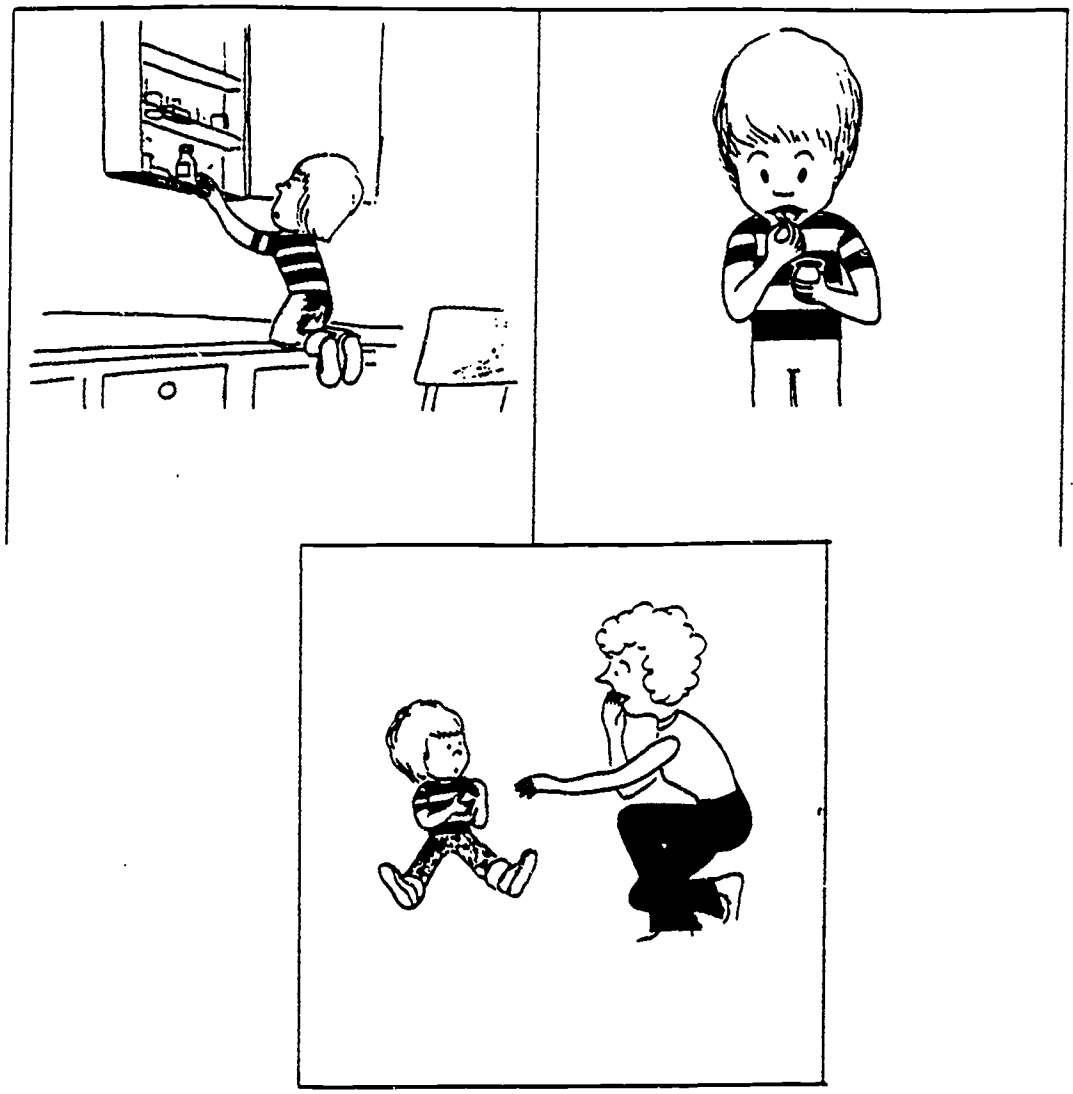
Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX F

CONTENT OF CODE	IMPLICATIONS
Filling out form at welfare.	Learning the welfare process; issues of unemployment.
Eating lunch separately from fellow employees.	Social expectations of co-workers; accepted behavior on the job.
Mom finds lipstick, cigarettes, or other contraband in kids' room.	Generational conflict; different expectations for children in different cultures.
Kids alone in house with matches or lighter.	Safety; child care.
Kids playing in field while parents pick berries.	Child care; work.
Funeral, meeting with funeral director, cemetery.	Differing customs surrounding death; how to arrange what you want.
One kid bullying another on playground (taunting, grabbing toy, pushing).	Child-rearing issues; racism.
Boss yelling at worker.	Differing supervisory behaviors; assertiveness.
Shelf of traditional medicines at Asian market.	Differing theories of health; access to preferred treatment.
Woman at doctor - with kid translating.	Complications that occur in health-delivery system; tension between generations due to responsibility put on child; differences in health care in U.S. and native country.
Angry landlord at door of apartment or with clogged sink.	Responsibilities of landlords and tenants; communication problems; complications of modern technology.
Lots of relatives over for a visit.	Differences between U.S. and student's culture about hospitality and responsibility.
Bumping another car's fender in a parking lot.	Legal responsibilities; insurance.

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX F



Keltner, A., Howard, L. & Lee, F. (1990). English for Adult Competency . Book One, Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall., p. 63.

APPENDIX F

SEQUENCE OF QUESTIONS	PURPOSE	EXAMPLE
Identify elements, describe.	The student uses her language to label her environment.	• What do you see in the picture? • Who are the people? • Where are they? • What are they doing? • How do the people feel? • What are they thinking? • What else do you see?
Identify the problem. or Identify cultural differences.	Recognizes situations. Is aware of the cultural context of events.	• Is there a problem? • Who has the problem? • Is there a different problem for different people in the picture? • How do the people feel about the problem? • How do Americans do (or feel) about this? • How do people in your country react? • What's different about the way you handle this situation here and in your own country?
Relate to personal experience.	Makes the language of the lesson relevant to her own life.	• Have you ever been in this situation? • Do you know anyone who has had this problem? • How were these situations like the one in the picture? • How were they different?
Identify context - how the personal experience fits into a larger perspective.	Develops and exercises critical thinking skills, using her experience to determine causes and generalize information.	• Why is there a problem? • Do all people have this problem? • Is this a problem in every country? • How is it different in your first country and in the U.S.?
Propose solutions or Express preferences.	Uses her knowledge and experience to influence her environment.	• What can the people in the picture do? • How can we solve problems like this? • Which way do you prefer to handle this situation? • What do you like (or not like) about this?

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX G

Here are some suggestions for ESL field trips:

A bus ride	A supermarket	The post office
A ferry ride	The welfare office	A food bank
A picnic at a local park	A fast food restaurant	The laundromat to wash clothes
A restaurant or coffee shop	A pay phone to call a friend	Her child's school to visit teacher
Department of Motor Vehicles to get a driver's license to get an I.D.	Work places small factory garage bakery assembly plant	Shopping KMart thrift stores drug stores department stores
Clothing bank	The Mall	The local zoo
A nature hike	An ice cream shop	A craft fair
A bank to get change to cash a check	The library to get a card to get books	A health clinic to fill out forms to get a checkup
A dental clinic	A sports event	A fishing trip
Furniture bank to fill out vouchers to look for items	Your home to visit to have tea to practice cleaning to practice cooking to practice sewing to practice repairing to practice gardening to practice building	

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX H

Level A

CHECKLIST

SURVIVAL LEVEL STUDENT	CAN	CAN'T
Greet someone and respond to a greeting		
Ask and answer questions about personal information (name, origin, age, birth date, address, phone, marital status, # of children)		
Say good-bye and respond to farewells		
Ask and answer simple questions that begin with: Is, Are, Who, What, What time, and Where		
Follow simple directions (copy, repeat, listen, ask, etc.)		
Express lack of understanding (I don't know; I don't understand)		
Count to 100		
Tell time		
Identify money		
Count money		
Know the rooms and furniture in a house		
Dial a number written on a piece of paper		
Name common foods (fruits, vegetables, meats, drinks, staples)		
Express preferences (I like; I don't like)		
Name clothes items		
Identify common illnesses		
Shop in a supermarket		
Follow classroom routine		
LITERACY FOR A SURVIVAL LEVEL STUDENT	**CAN**	**CAN'T**
Write name, address, phone number, age		
Write numbers 1-100		
Print the alphabet		
Read simple signs (restroom, men, women)		
Read prices		

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX H

Level B

CHECKLIST

BEYOND SURVIVAL LEVEL STUDENT	CAN	CAN'T
Talk about or describe self and family members		
Ask for clarification: What does ____ mean? Should I ____? Do I ____?		
Follow 2-3 directions given at one time (go to the bookcase, get the green book, and turn to page 9)		
Use variations of time expressions (11:45; 15 to 12; quarter to 12)		
Add, subtract, multiply, and divide numbers		
Buy a list of items in stores by oneself		
Take a bus by oneself		
Buy a stamp and mail a letter by oneself		
Use a pay phone by oneself		
Ask for change by oneself		
Order and pay for food in a restaurant		
Give directions		
Translate for another student		
Make a complaint (to teacher, landlord, store manager)		
Make an appointment		
Call to cancel or change a meeting		
Cash a check		
LITERACY FOR A BEYOND SURVIVAL LEVEL STUDENT	**CAN**	**CAN'T**
Write a letter or card in English and address the envelope		
Read a calendar and write dates		
Write down a phone message		
Find a name in the phone book		
Pay bills		
Fill out a job application		

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

APPENDIX H

Level B

CHECKLIST

HIGHER LEVEL STUDENT	CAN	CAN'T
Ask for and respond to complex instructions and clarification from a supervisor		
Identify and explain mistakes or errors		
Describe personal aptitudes, skills, and work experience in detail		
Make and accept or reject a suggestion or some advice		
Ask for and agree or disagree with an opinion		
Report and accident, injury, or incident (describe cause, results, location)		
Obtain information from and respond to a radio or television announcement or recorded phone message		
Explain and compare common practices or activities (e.g., customs, job duties, training programs)		
Persuade someone to do something		
LITERACY FOR HIGHER LEVEL STUDENT	**CAN**	**CAN'T**
Read and write messages		
Extract information from job descriptions and announcements		
Transcribe detailed oral messages		
Read diagrams and reading passages		
Use a dictionary to determine meaning, pronunciation, and spelling		
Transcribe information from a radio or television announcement		
Interpret and demonstrate compliance with safety regulations and licensing requirements (e.g., driving, fishing)		
Scan and interpret newspaper or magazine articles		
Write a resume		
Interpret job announcements, comparing and categorizing titles, duties, salaries, advancement opportunities, etc.		

Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers (1991). Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance.

REFERENCES

Auerbach, E. R. & Burgess, D. (1985). The hidden curriculum of survival ESL. TESOL Quarterly. **19** (3), p. 475-493.

Auerbach, E. R. (1986). Competency-based ESL: One step forward or two steps back? TESOL Quarterly. **20** (3), p. 411-429.

Azar, B. S. (1992). Fundamentals of English Grammar: Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Azar, B. S. (1984). Basic English Grammar. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Barnicle, M. (1984). Their home in America. Boston Globe. December 10, p. 25.

Bassano, S. (1994). First Class Reader! An Integrated Skills Approach to Literacy. Burlingame, CA: Alta Book Center, Publishers.

Bassano, S. (19??). Sounds Easy! A phonics workbook for beginning ESL students. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Alemany Press.

Bloom, B. (Ed.). (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. New York, NY: David McKay.

Candy, P. C. (1991). Self-Direction for Lifelong Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Cathcart, R. L. (1989). Authentic Discourse and the Survival English Curriculum. TESOL Quarterly. **23** (1), p. 105-126.

Center for Applied Linguistics (1983). From the Classroom to the Workplace: Teaching ESL to adults. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Collins, M. (1983). A critical analysis of competency-based systems in adult education. Adult Education Quarterly. **33**, p. 174-183.

Colvin, R. (1986). I Speak English: A tutor's guide to teaching conversational English (revised Edition). Syracuse, NY: Literacy Volunteers of American, Inc.

Colvin, R. & Root, J. (1976). Tutor: Techniques used in the teaching of reading: A Handbook for teaching basic reading to adults and teenagers (Revised Edition). Syracuse, NY: Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.

Cross, K. P. (1982). Adults as Learners. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bas

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. New York, NY: Kappa Delta Pi.

Donia, R. & Fine, J. (1994). Bosnia and Hercegovina. New York: Columbia University Press.

Edelsky, C. (1993). Whole language in perspective. TESOL Quarterly. **27** (3), p. 548-550.

Freire, P. & Macedo, D. (1987). Literacy: reading the word and the world. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Gibbon, E. (1907). Autobiography. (Lord Sheffield, ed.) London: Oxford University Press

Grognet, A. G., & Crandall, J. (1982). Competency-based curricula m adult ESL. ERIC/CLL News Bulletin, **6** (1), p. 3-4.

Granjon, P. & Deloche, P. (1993). Rape as a weapon of war. Refugees. no. 93. August-October 1993., p. 42-44.

Hamilton, V. (Ed.) (1993). World Refugee Survey 1993. Washington DC: U.S. Committee for Refugees.

Hamilton, V. (Ed.) (1994). World Refugee Survey 1994. Washington DC: U.S. Committee for Refugees.

Hiemstra, R. (1976). Lifelong Learning. Lincoln, NE: Professional Educators.

Jolly, J. & Robinson, L. (1988). Real-Life English: A Competency-Based ESL Program for Adults. Austin, TX: Steck-Vaughn Company.

Keltner, A., Howard, L, & Lee, F. (1990). English for Adult Competency: Book One. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Keltner, A., & Bitterlin, G. (1990). English for Adult Competency: Book Two. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Keefe, D. & Meyer, A. (1991). Teaching adult new readers the whole language way. Journal of Reading. **35** (3), p. 180-183.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. (1983). The Natural Approach. New York, NY: Pergamon Press.

Krahnke, K. (1987). Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krahnke, K. (1983). Unit VIII: Teaching Reading. E-526 Course Materials.

Lester, J. D. (1993). Writing Research Papers. New York, NY: Harper Collins College Pubiishers.

Long, M. H. (1983), Process and Product in ESL program evaluation. Paper presented at the Fifth Annual TESOL Summer Meeting, Toronto.

Long, M. H., & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. TESOL Quarterly. **26** (1), p. 27-56.

MacDonald, J. & Clark, D. (1973). Critical Value Questions and the Analysis of Objectives and Curricula, Second Handbook of Research in Teaching, R. M. W. Travers (Ed.). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

MacDonald, J. (1990). Adult Refugee Education in Portland, Oregon, U.S.A. Convergence, **23** (3), p. 71-80.

Mainstream English Language Teaching (MELT) Core Curriculum.

Manners, L. (1993). The Bosnians: An Introduction to Their History and Culture. CAL Refugee Fact Sheet Series No. 8. Washington, DC: Center For Applied Linguistics. ED 354 788.

Marlowe, M., Branson, R. et. al. (1991). Adult basic skills instructor training and experiential learning theory. Adult Basic Education. **1** (3), p. 155-167.

Molinsky, S. & Bliss, B. (1989). Side By Side. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Morgan, B., Holmes, G., & Bundy C. (1976). Methods in adult education. Danville, IL: Interstate.

Oshima, A. & Hogue, A. (1991). Writing Academic English Second Edition. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

Parnwell, E. C. (1988). The New Oxford Picture Dictionary. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Penfield, J. (1986) ESL literacy and the new refugees: Priorities and considerations. Adult Literacy and Basic Education. **10** (1), p. 47-57.

Preston, R. (1991). Is there a refugee specific education? Convergence. **23** (3), p. 3-10.

Reid, J. & Lindstrom, M. (1985). The Process of Paragraph Writing. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Richards-Amato, P. (1988). Making It Happen: Interaction in the Second Language Classroom. New York: Longman Publishers.

Rossman, M. H., Fisk, E. C., & Roehl, J. E. (1984). Teaching and Learning Basic Skills: A Guide for Adult Basic Education and Developmental Education Programs. New York, NY: Columbia Teachers College Press.

Rosten, L. (1965). The Education of H*Y*M*A*N* K*A*P*L*A*N. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanich.

Seaman, D. F. & Fellenz, R. A. (1989). Effective Strategies for Teaching Adults. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.

Shuter, R. (1994). The Hmong of Laos: Orality, Communication, and Acculturation. Intercultural Communication: A Reader. (Eds: Samovar, L. A. & Porter, R.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Soifer, R., Irwin, M. E., Crumrine, B. M., et. al. (1990). The Complete Theory-to-Practice Handbook of Adult Literacy: Curriculum Design and Teaching Approaches. New York: Teachers College Press.

Spears, R. A. (Ed.). (1990). National Textbook Company's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions. Olathe, KA: Ringier America, Inc.

Summers, D. (Ed.) (1987). The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English: New Edition. Singapore: Longman Singapore Publishers Pte. Ltd.

Tollefson, J. W. (1989). Alien Winds: The Reeducation of America's Indochinese Refugees. New York: Praeger.

Tollefson, J. (1988). Covert policy in the United States refugee program in Southeast Asia. Language Problems and Language Planning. **12** p. 30-43.

Tollefson, J. W. (1986). Functional competencies in the U.S. refugee program: Theoretical and practical problems. TESOL Quarterly. **20** (4), p. 649-664.

Tough, A. (1978). Major learning efforts: Recent research and future directions. Adult Education, **28** (4), p. 250-265.

Walsh, R. E. (1984). Basic Adult Survival English with Orientation to American Life, Part I. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Wilkins, D. A. (1976). Notional Syllabuses. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, James D. & Capizzi-Snipper, Grace (1990). Literacy and Bilingualism. New York: Longman Publishers.

Wolf, H. B. (Ed.). (1973). Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary. Springfield, MA: Merriam Webster.

_____. (1991). Tutoring ESL: A Handbook for Volunteers . Developed by the Training Project at the Tacoma Community House, Tacoma, WA. Funded by Washington State Department of Social and Health Service Division of Refugee Assistance. Collated and Updated by Connie Rockwell & Joan Ladd of the Fort Collins Library Literacy Project, LIFE.

_____. (1993). Filibuster here, terror there. The Economist. March 27, 1993. p. 57-58.