# ENGLISH-AS-A-SECOND-LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR VOLUNTEER TEACHERS: GUIDELINES

by

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# CHAPTER I

## ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE: FOCUS ON THE VOLUNTEER

### Background and Need for the Study

Historically, the United States has been a nation composed of peoples from many countries, who came to her shores speaking their own languages and clinging tenaciously to those aspects of their native cultures that they could bring with them and reestablish in the New World. Most of the early immigrants came from European countries and often settled in enclaves identifiable by language and culture markers, such as the German and Dutch communities, which sprang up along the northern Atlantic coast. As the communities became colonies and the young nation began to gain an identity, the citizens recognized that a strong school system was vital to the future of the nation and that uniformity of language would become a key to the success or failure of trade, communications, politics, diplomacy, and education. Unofficially, English became the primary language of the public school system and, consequently, of the emerging nation itself. Even though German, Dutch, and Jewish communities existed (to name only a few of the more

prominent ones), parents within them strongly promoted the learning of English by their children. Consequently, early in the history of colonial schools there were bilingual learning activities in the curriculum, and English was learned as a second language by many.

The goal was to build the nation, and as first-generation immigrants died, the second and third generations of those families and their progeny forgot the languages of their forefathers, and the United States fast became a monolingual society. There are always notable exceptions to generalities. In this case, the preservation of the Chinese language and culture could be cited as one exception evidenced by the famous Chinatown of San Francisco, an enclave that grew up with the immigration of Chinese who helped build the railroad system in the 1800s. A second example would be the Spanish-speaking enclaves around several metropolitan cities, especially New York City and Chicago as well as those southwestern areas that border Mexico and stretch from Texas to California.

As industry developed in the nineteenth century, immigrants were welcomed to enhance the work force, and ghettos of same language/culture groups became common in rapidly developing industrial centers. In spite of growing pluralism within the American society, the "melting pot" theory, which had become a national philosophy in the colonial period, prevailed well beyond the end of the nineteenth century and erupted into nationally embarrassing acts

of prejudice and even violence against non-"Americans" --especially during World War I toward those Germans and during World War II toward those Japanese who had retained their languages and vestiges of their original cultures.

A third period in United States' history was also important in generating the language situation that exists in the United States in the late 1980s. This is the period of internal social revolution of the sixties and of international political upheaval in the seventies resulting in the Korean War, the Vietnam Conflict, and, consequently, in a huge influx of refugees and immigrants from both Cuba and southeast Asian countries. The sixties witnessed Blacks demonstrating to be recognized as Americans equal in every way with whites, women demanding equal rights with men, and the "salad bowl" philosophy replacing the "melting pot" philosophy. Retaining their native languages and cultures became increasingly important to Blacks, to American Indians, and to all minority groups. Their resistance to acculturating into the white society generated both personnel and monetary support for bilingual programs in the public schools; however, the influx of Asians during this period overtaxed such support and resulted in problems in the public schools for which bilingual approaches were not practical, for no bilingual teachers competent in Asian languages were available. Thus, most school systems adopted English-as-a-Second-Language [ESL] approaches to cope with the problems.

Administrators reached into the ranks of professional ESL/EFL [English as a Foreign Language] teachers and arranged for them to present workshops to train teachers. Further, they sought federal funding for grants to support graduate-level degree programs in ESL for their teachers. As a result, the school-age children began receiving training in both language and academic/vocational skills, so that they have been prepared not only to survive but also to succeed in the United States' society. The challenges and difficulties faced by school faculty and administrators should not be minimized, but neither should the contributions of volunteer teachers who aided them.

Efforts to assist the adult refugees proved to be in sharp contrast to those made for the children. Most of the adult refugees arrived stripped of their material possessions, their identities, their youth, and often their health. They carried with them deep senses of loss and anger, and they were filled with anxiety about surviving. If they were lucky enough to bring family members, they worried about maintaining their families in a foreign land. They could not speak English; thus, their professional skills were locked within their language barriers. As this new wave of non-native speakers was disbursed throughout the land, certain organizations that worked closely with the federal government and the immigration services aided the refugees in resettlement efforts, including providing survival English classes. However, the few trained ESL

teachers who were available were not able to serve the tides of refugees completely. As a result, communities began to organize volunteers to help. As their awareness levels were raised, these communities recognized other groups who needed language services and began to develop programs to fill those needs, too. For example, churches in cities with university graduate programs began to recognize that many graduate students were non-native speakers and that some of them were accompanied by non-English-speaking dependents. As a result, they began to sponsor programs to reach out to these family dependents and soon to other learners.

Because of the informal structure and absence of records of such programs, it is difficult validly to reconstruct them or reliably to evaluate their effectiveness. At least two factors, however, affected their stability and effectiveness:

1. the anxiety and immediacy of the need felt by the potential learners in order that they might achieve survival language; and
2. the lack of content preparation by the volunteers for the subject matter.

The first factor struck a responsive chord in church groups who began to muster volunteer teachers. Many in these groups were compassionate and willing but, unfortunately, discovered through trial and error that although they could speak English, they lacked confidence about how to teach it.

The second factor that influenced the stability and effectiveness of volunteer-managed programs was the lack of content preparation by the volunteers for the subject matter. This weakness is the subject of an observation recorded in the December 1985 report written by the ESL Advisory Council of Lawton/Ft. Sill, Oklahoma. It describes the volunteer teachers at the English Language Center, which caters to military wives, as "without adequate training to perform their duties" (2). The frustration of the administrators there is summed up as "the dilemma of having a classroom full of students with no instructors . . . [or with instructors who have only the] minimal amount of preparation" (2). The desire to assist these volunteer teachers and others like them provided part of the impetus for this study.

## Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study has been threefold:

1. to search both professional and fugitive literature in an effort to determine what kind of training has been available to volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language;

2. to provide a theoretical overview of language acquisition and teaching methodologies focusing on the major changes that occurred after World War II, from the late fifties through the eighties, and to distill from this literature the most important tenets of the currently accepted theories of language acquisition and methods of language teaching; and,

3. to construct--based on these tenets--guidelines for use in training volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language.

## Definitions

There have been at least two major concepts integral to this study that merit defining so that decisions concerning proposed training and materials could be made.

I. The first concept that merits defining is the effective volunteer ESL teacher. Although it is very difficult and perhaps risky even to suggest a stereotype, there are certain qualities that are most desirable. One is an awareness of and/or sensitivity to the needs of others; another is a genuine interest in other countries and the cultures of their people. And, of course, greatly to be desired are an obvious understanding of the English language and a willingness to seek a structured approach to teaching it. A 1973 NAFSA publication describes volunteer ESL teachers as follows:

> Volunteers may be retired from active employment, employed persons who give an evening or two a week to helping foreign students with their English, or college students with a little time on their hands. The largest number of volunteers, however, are women who have time for volunteer work. These volunteers vary in age, education, degree of involvement, capability, and direction. While stressing the fact that there is a great diversity among volunteers, a hypothetical composite can be presented. The "typical" volunteer ESL teacher would be a woman between 35 and 65 years of age, moderately affluent, not employed outside the home, quite probably the possessor of a bachelor's or a master's degree, reasonably poised and articulate, fairly well-traveled, interested in world affairs, and intellectually inclined (Guide...NAFSA, 3).

Taken all together then, these characteristics are primary in an effective ESL teacher.

II. The second concept is the range or scope of English services provided to adults by volunteers. (For purposes of this study, the word adult will be used to refer to those people eighteen years of age and older.) At one end of the spectrum are volunteers who aid college-level students, especially in one-on-one tutoring. The college ESL instructor establishes a professional relationship with his students and frequently goes beyond the expected norms in providing not only language instruction but also cultural instruction. But it is the volunteer tutor or host family for a student who can acquaint him through social interaction with the variety of situations that requires knowledge of register, that is, degrees of politeness and ranges of actions and responses, which are important to an understanding of any culture. It is the volunteer who can provide one-on-one conversation and encouragement within whatever subject matter the learner chooses. The financial and matriculation needs of university-level foreign students were recognized in the late forties by the establishment of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), but it was not until much later that this organization added two subdivisions and, thus, recognized its dependence on English-as-a-Second-Language personnel and volunteer community groups for aid in language and culture training. These subdivisions are ATESL (Association of

Teachers of English as a Second Language) and COMSEC (volunteer community groups offering services to foreign students). NAFSA has from its inception addressed its efforts to the college student, both graduate and undergraduate; but the wives of these students (especially graduate students) and of faculty, who were hired in large numbers as demands for science and technology teachers grew, were overlooked for a long period. Consequently, for these wives, church groups developed both individual language tutoring sessions as well as classes on the English language, on citizenship, on the GED (General Education Degree) requirements, on Biblical/church doctrinal topics, and on various crafts. In addition to college students and faculty wives, volunteers also seek to serve non-native dependents of military personnel. Soldiers sent on tours of duty--especially to Europe and Korea--often bring back non-American, non-English-speaking wives. Some military installations have set up English language programs through their Outreach Divisions; even so, budgets often allow salaries only for administrators, so that actual teaching is relegated to volunteers. Volunteers also serve a third group, perhaps the most obvious individuals needing English language services, the refugees and illegal aliens. The latter are usually in the lowest socio-economic and educationally deprived categories. They often are caught in a cycle of poverty and ignorance compounded by language and legal barriers, so that they live in fear of discovery and

deportation. Refugees, on the other hand, represent both ends of the spectrum of humanity and all levels in between. The United States has admitted since the Cuban Conflict of the early sixties through the Korean War and Vietnam Conflict, non-English-speaking refugees from the most disadvantaged to the most advantaged. The scope, then, of English language services provided by volunteers must encompass the needs of international students, their wives, military dependents, illegal aliens, and refugees. Clarification of these two concepts provides a foundation from which an investigation into the amount and appropriateness of training that should be designed for volunteer English-as-a-Second-Language teachers can be made.

## Methodology

The methods employed to determine the need for and the most desired kinds of materials designed to help the volunteer ESL teacher teach adult learners were threefold:

1. investigations and oral interviews were conducted throughout the Lawton/Ft. Sill area of Oklahoma (a cosmopolitan community of 130,000 people), which was identified as typical, or representative, of communities with ESL needs;

2. a survey was designed and administered to volunteer teachers locally, to church-affiliated and military-affiliated volunteers statewide, and to military-affiliated volunteers nationwide; and

3. a discussion session on volunteer programs and problems was attended and ideas and materials exchanged at the TESOL Convention in Chicago (March, 1988).

The local investigations revealed that several agencies offer English language instruction classes to non-native speaking adults. The following utilize trained teachers: Blessed Sacrament Catholic Church, the agent formerly most active in bringing refugees to Lawton; the Refugee American Association (RAA), which works under the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services through Catholic Services, Inc.; Douglass School, part of the Lawton Public Schools system; the Great Plains Area Vocational-Technical School; and Cameron University. All offer adult classes in ESL and/or ESP [English for Specific Purposes], but all employ professionally trained teachers. The local agencies that employ volunteer teachers are the Lawton Literacy Council, the Friends International (a ministry of Southern Baptists), and the Ft. Sill ESL Center, which serves military dependents--primarily wives of soldiers. The Literacy Council basically targets illiterate Americans and offers training in the Laubach method to its volunteers. They have served only a few non-native speakers. The Baptist church volunteers can request training workshops from their state missions office, which keeps records of Baptists from Oklahoma who earn training certification at mission conferences and are willing to share their expertise. The conferences teach participants how to use specific materials and include strong emphasis on teacher-student relationships and evangelism. Their program was also originally based on the Laubach method and still incorporates it to teach reading

skills. The workshops are very abbreviated and usually leave new volunteers with only a minimal approach. To receive certification and be able to conduct workshops, one must spend at least eighteen hours in training.

The last and perhaps largest agency utilizing volunteers locally is the Ft. Sill ESL Center. All Army bases that want to establish ESL programs are given materials developed by the Department of Defense Language Institute, but there is no standardized training offered to their volunteer teachers. They must depend on presentations prepared by the Center's Director or by local ESL teachers who are invited by the Center's Director to address topics that he or she selects; thus, there are no standardized format, quality control, or reliable evaluation of the training.

In summary, the three major local groups that were identified as employing volunteers are the Lawton Literacy Council and Friends International, which base their programs on the Laubach method, and the Ft. Sill ESL Center, which utilizes the greatest number of volunteers but has the least standardized approach to training them.

The second step of the methodology to determine the need for and kinds of materials that would best aid volunteer ESL teachers in their efforts consisted of two parts. First, a survey was designed to elicit information. The following six categories were selected as potentially representing the most vital concerns of volunteer teachers:

(1) Teacher Attitudes; (2) Ways Learners Learn; (3) Cultural Concerns; (4) Lesson Objectives, Lesson Planning, and Classroom Management; (5) Testing for Placement and Achievement; and (6) Curriculum and Resource Development. A seventh category, Comments, was added to allow participants opportunity to add other ideas or to comment on those already contained in the survey. A Lickert Scale was used to determine the results (Appendix B). The survey design being completed, individual surveys were sent with a cover letter to those people in Oklahoma, a total of forty-seven, who had attended the Southern Baptist training sessions or somehow been involved in the Southern Baptist literacy missions program [see Appendix A]. In addition, a list was obtained of names and addresses of all the Army bases in the continental United States identified as bases which might have ESL programs similar to that of Ft. Sill. Another cover letter [see Appendix A] was composed for this audience, and each letter when sent was accompanied by four copies of the survey.

From the forty-seven surveys sent to Southern Baptists, thirty-one were completed and returned (66%). Sixty letters were sent to Army bases across the continental United States; forty-one bases responded (68%). Of these, twenty-four had ESL programs; these returned forty-nine completed surveys. Three of these respondants indicated that their ESL needs were met by community groups and that the surveys had been completed by volunteer teachers in those groups.

Thus, the category Community was established for the nine additional survey participants who checked that category as their affiliate group. A total of eighty-nine surveys were tabulated even though a few were only partially completed.

The results of the survey are regarded as significant and were given strong consideration in the development of the teacher training guidelines. For example, under the first category, Teacher Attitudes [see Appendix B, Table I], number five was selected by the majority of participants for every statement [S]: from a total of eighty-two responses, thirty-five chose number five on S1 [statement 1]; from eighty-two responses, fifty-two chose number five on S2; and from seventy-nine responses, twenty-seven chose number five on S3. These are the statements:

1. I want to know what kinds of teacher attitudes create classroom climates that are most conducive, or positive, to the student's success in language learning.

2. I desire information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work effectively for me.

3. I seek information about when and how most effectively to correct student errors.

Although statements one and three are of great interest to the participants, statement two [S2] obviously elicited the most intense response. So, in the training guidelines, more effort and space have been devoted to providing information about the content of statement two--language-teaching methods and how to make them work. All the responses have been evaluated category by category, and the design of the

guidelines for training reflects the responses to the survey. See Appendix A for complete tabulations of the survey results.

The third step taken to determine whether a need for updated training guidelines for volunteer teachers exists beyond the local level was to attend the discussion session that focused on volunteer teachers and was a part of the annual TESOL Convention held in Chicago in March, 1988. The session was titled "Working with Volunteers: ESL in Adult Education" and was moderated by Jeffrey Bright of Albany Park Community Center, Chicago. The session was attended by twenty-seven people--all of whom held positions as directors or administrators of ESL programs utilizing volunteers as teachers; these representatives came from a wide variety of geographical areas across the United States.

The topics of discussion ranged from administrative problems to student retention and included (of interest here) an expressed need for training materials beyond the beginning level of language teaching and, also, for some theoretically sound and current guidelines for training volunteer teachers. One consensus that the group reached was that some of the problems concerning attitudes and actions of their volunteer teachers could have been avoided --or at least mitigated--if printed guidelines had been available to the program director. All participants expressed a desire to move beyond Direct Method and Audio-lingual Method procedures and materials toward the goal of

communicative competence and toward materials that would accelerate achievement of this goal.

In conclusion, there were three parts to the methodology used to determine the audience for and the kinds of materials desired by volunteer ESL teachers. Through local interviews and investigations, it was determined that church-affiliated volunteers and military volunteers were the two groups who could most benefit from well designed, teacher-training guidelines. These results are considered typical, or representative, of many other communities. Second, a survey was designed and distributed locally, statewide, and nationally (to military installations), and the responses were tabulated in an effort to determine what kinds of information would be of the greatest interest and use to this target audience. Finally, the problems expressed by representatives of ESL programs taught by volunteers across the United States as discussed at the TESOL Convention (1988) by directors and administrators from many geographical areas and their expressed desires for training materials confirmed the perceived need that was a catalyst to this study.

# CHAPTER II

## EXISTING HANDBOOKS FOR VOLUNTEER TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE: A REVIEW

In the late sixties, the need for training, for guidelines that could be used by volunteers willing to aid adult, non-English speakers was recognized and addressed by both federal government and private organizations. They responded by commissioning the preparation of handbooks and volunteer teacher-training programs. Four publications were made available: Guide for the Volunteer English Teacher published by The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs; Resource Manual for Teachers of Non-English Speaking Adults by Gladys Alesi and Joseph Brain and commissioned through the American Immigration and Citizenship Conference; Workshop Leader's Handbook prepared by Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. [LVA]; and a teacher's guide to Laubach Way to English, materials privately prepared by the Laubach Language Association [LLA].

Published in the spring of 1973, the Guide for Volunteer English Teachers developed by the ATESL (Teachers of English as a Second Language) and COMSEC (volunteer

community groups offering services to foreign students) divisions of NAFSA (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs) is primarily written for the volunteers who assist international students who are enrolled in United States colleges and universities and their dependents. The purpose of the guide reflects the following emphasis that is given to defining and separating the professional teacher's versus the volunteer's role in working with the international students: "The purpose of this guide is to make opportunities known to the volunteer, to clarify the volunteer-professional relationship, suggest patterns of cooperation, help the professional visualize ways in which the volunteer can assist in a formal program, and provide the volunteer with basic information in the area of second language learning which will make it possible for this person to match enthusiasm with the requisite skill for success in this venture" (2). However, within the introductory material, the handbook is also offered for use by independent volunteer groups and a mailing address given where more materials can be obtained.

The section entitled "What Every Volunteer Ought to Know" provides very brief but theoretically sound advice on Cultural Considerations, Language Learning Factors, and Methodology. For example, under the first category, these tenets are offered:

> It is easy to assume that one recognizes cultural differences and that these differences are simply an interesting side issue not directly related to language

> teaching. That assumption is totally false on two counts: First, cultural differences are much more intricate and intense than most laymen and many professionals begin to realize; and second, cultural differences are integral and inseparable concepts in second language learning.
>
> It has long been affirmed that no language can be taught without also teaching the culture of the people who speak the language. (8-9)

The authors also incorporate discussions of gesture and space as they represent cultural differences.

The discussion entitled "Language Learning Factors" reflects the philosophy based in behaviorism as evidenced by this passage:

> It should be recognized that learning a first language is a completely different process from learning a second language. . . . First language learning occurs largely at a motor level, and additional languages are acquired largely at the intellectual level . . . .
>
> First language acquisition may be seen as somewhat similar to what biologists call "path learning" in animals. . . . Second language acquisition is totally different because it is learning at the intellectual level and occurs at what could be called "tactic" and "heuristic" levels. (10)

The section of the handbook devoted to the actual teaching of phonology, morphology, and syntax are structured to be used with the Direct or Audio-lingual methods.

These two methods are the only ones briefly described in the section on "Methodology"; the "advent of transformational grammar in 1957" (12) is noted but only to introduce the fact that available ESL materials may be organized differently to accommodate these different methods. Cognitive code learning theory is only mentioned but never described or explained.

The concluding challenge to the volunteer teacher lacks conviction even though it is theoretically sound. It says,

> [W]hat can the ESL teacher, professional or volunteer do? If he is a pragmatist, he borrows from various systems whatever seems to work in the classroom. And, of course, what works depends on the level or levels of English proficiency of the class . . . , the aim . . . , number of students, and a few other factors. Each class must be considered separately and ways, means, and materials tailored to that specific class. Students learn what they are taught. (12)

The final orientation section of the handbook discusses three very important language learning factors: aptitude, attitude, and motivation. It concludes that of the three, motivation is the most important.

In addition to phonology, morphology, and syntax, the lesson-content section of the guide introduces register, vocabulary, and rhetoric, and included at the end is an annotated bibliography of books to which a volunteer can turn for further guidance. This section includes books on language teaching, on languages and related subjects (such as anthropological studies useful in synthesizing language and culture), bibliographies, and useful periodicals. This handbook represents a valuable attitude orientation and introduction for volunteer teachers of university students at elementary levels of learning English. There is little guidance for those teachers whose students' skills are at more intermediate and advanced levels. Further, nothing is written about evaluation either of students as they progress or of the teachers.

A second guide, Resource Manual for Teachers of Non-English Speaking Adults, was released in its fourth edition just a year later. It was prepared by the very reputable language teacher Joseph J. Brain and his colleague Gladys Alesi. This text is divided into three major parts:

I. The Adult Students (discussions include their needs, difficulties in retaining them, initially assessing their levels of fluency, and evaluating their progress);

II. Teacher Preparation (discussions include their knowledge of methods, a self-analysis checklist, a suggested sequence of lexical and structural items to be taught, suggestions for drill activities, and lesson planning);

III. Appendix (presentation of techniques for drills, a sample placement test, and drill activities).

This text is also an important addition to resource materials for volunteer teachers. It provides a dimension of evaluation--both for the student and his level of proficiency and for the teacher as reflected in the self-analysis checklist. It also addresses the retention of students, which can be a major factor in certain programs and which often affects a volunteer teacher's morale. In an effort to strengthen a volunteer teacher's confidence and at the same time answer the question that haunts most new volunteer teachers--How much technical information is essential to the new teacher whose goal is to help her students learn the new language as quickly and efficiently as possible?--the authors write:

> Experienced teachers agree on the following fundamental points:

1. Instruction should lead to a mastery of the structure and the sound of English.

2. Language control is achieved by repetition and drill of sequentially organized patterns.

3. A knowledge of contrasting structure and sound patterns of the student's native language is helpful in diagnosing areas of difficulty. (15)

Statement number two reveals the bias of the writers toward use of Direct Method and Audio-lingual Method techniques while statement three reflects the belief that contrastive analysis, which was in vogue at that time, would be very helpful--even to volunteer teachers. Of course, the knowledge of another language, which might prepare a volunteer to be able to implement contrastive analysis, was not a necessity for the general volunteer, but Mr. Brain was also involved with training volunteers to work with educated, foreign-born adults. In his article on this subject published in the TESOL Quarterly (1968), he describes the volunteer English teachers recruited by The Junior Service League of the City of New York as follows:

> Most of the women are below forty years of age, and very few have had any teaching experience of substantial measure prior to joining the program. The teachers are selected on the basis of their interest, English speech pattern, and a knowledge of another language. The last point is important because we want volunteers who have some familiarity with the pains of learning another language, thereby being better equipped to understand their students' problems in the learning of a new language. (55)

A suggested qualification like this might have proven to discourage some volunteers who were working with average or

even non-educated learners; but, of course, it would be a decided asset.

The final section of this manual is composed of some sixty pages of specific information on minimal pairs, all kinds of drills (substitution, transformation, chain, question and answer, backward buildup, etc.), vocabulary expansion, and the kinds of situational subjects that might appeal to adults interested in survival English. There is not very much information on organizing group learning activities; however, it is mentioned.

There were two other programs that were sought out by many volunteer organizations. Both of these were originally designed for use in teaching illiterate United States citizens. One was produced by the Literacy Volunteers of America; the other, by the Laubach Language Association. Each group developed a training program for volunteers that was to be administered by a trained specialist; as a result, these materials differ from the previous ones presented in that they are to be used by specialists rather than by the volunteers themselves.

Both programs offer eighteen hours of training to their volunteers over a three-day period, but the formats are very different. Neither of these proved to be completely satisfactory. A comparative study of these two groups showed that neither group of volunteers felt very satisfied with the form or content of their teaching. The study, entitled Volunteer Instructional Program for Non-English

Speaking Adults: Final Report, was conducted by Catholic Social Services of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and published in 1983. Those conducting the comparison had observed training sessions and interviewed trainees immediately after the sessions and again by a survey after a lapse of twelve months.

In the conclusion of the report, each training program is described, the description being a compilation of answers to survey questions. The following summary of the comparative study states that the Laubach training was "intense, . . . rigid and inflexible" (13). The training assumed that the trainees would use texts provided by New Readers Press, that trainees needed to memorize and not depart from a prepared script in speaking to their students, and that details of phonics had to be emphasized. The trainees found the lecture format of the program "very patronizing . . . condescending . . . and boring" (13). They were further disturbed that the focus was on the beginning student with very little accommodation for the slightly more advanced student.

The LVA program was a slide/tape presentation accompanied by a manual of English as a Second Language techniques entitled I Speak English. Because LVA volunteers had the freedom to choose the texts they would use, the training program included a brief introduction to several standard ESL curricula. However, participants believed too much material was covered too superficially; and in spite of the

inclusion of trainer demonstrations and participant practice sessions, they found the slides and tapes boring after about six segments. The survey states: "The participants in the LVA training appeared to come away with more teaching strategies but less confidence than the LLA tutors who had concentrated on only a few [strategies]" (14). The report's final statement follows:

> The ideal conclusion as we see it would be if Laubach Literacy Councils used LVA training as an in-service and the LVA affiliates would offer Laubach training as an in-service. The LVA tutors were very appreciative of the Laubach instruction which emphasizes that giant step to literacy and the Laubach tutors were enthralled by the introduction of varying techniques and the use of realia and the focus on life skills to enhance their tutoring. (16)

There were some materials available, then, in the early seventies that had been specifically prepared for volunteer teachers of English and of English as a Second Language. They are primarily oriented toward techniques employed by those who use the Direct Method and the Audio-lingual Method and toward teaching the beginning English-language learner with few suggestions for assisting the intermediate or more advanced learner. They generally reflect current (for that period) developments in language teaching/learning trends, such as the promotion of contrastive analysis and an emphasis on the learner and how he learns language. However, there is a dearth of published manuals since that time.

One notable exception is a paper (available through the ERIC system, #ED 275 807) presented at Texas A&M University

by Joshua Boyd in 1986. Its title is Pre-Service Training for Volunteer Teachers of Adult ESL Learners: How to Facilitate Communicative Competence in the Classroom. The author purposes "to address current research findings and classroom practices in promoting the acquisition of communicative competence and to share some techniques and activities that [he has] used with [his] adult learners to promote oral communication" (1). Some of these research findings that he incorporates include shifting the focus in classroom activities from structure, or form, to content since in normal speech the participants are more concerned with the message than the form (Dulay and Burt 1975); making communicative competence the goal of instruction; structuring activities to provide interaction between the learners and the environment; and focusing on the process of using language (as in negotiating meaning or developing strategies for understanding) (Taylor and Wolfson 1978). He further endeavors to provide in the activities he designs incentives and rewards to the learner and to allow him to participate in course management (Littlejohn 1983). In addition, he seeks to provide learners with information that is "slightly beyond the capacity of individual learners to take in completely" in order to encourage "the pooling of information among all members of the group" (4). Such activities have been discussed by several materials developers, such as Roberts (1983), Taylor (1983), and Johnson (1982). The principle stems from Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982).

Thus, the activities that are included in Boyd's article represent newer trends of teaching that can be used by volunteer as well as professional teachers of English as a Second Language.

# CHAPTER III

## THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR VOLUNTEER ESL TEACHERS

The havoc created by World War II subsided in the early 1950s, but it had permeated all phases of western civilization. One of these phases was that of language teaching. In response to the demands of the United States military to train people to speak different languages quickly, linguists John B. Carroll and Robert Fries had collaborated to develop a language-teaching method, which came to be known as the Audio-lingual Method. It was rooted in behavioral psychology, which had provided a model for teaching almost any behavior through operant conditioning. The Audio-lingual Method [ALM] was also known as the Oral/Aural Method and the Mim/Mem (mimicry-memorization) Method because listening/speaking activities were emphasized (including focuses on repetition and pronunciation), many drills were used, and translation was almost forbidden. This method was highly popular and enjoyed wide acceptance for many years.

At the same time, structural linguistics had provided tools for separating language into its smallest parts and for contrasting two languages "scientifically." However, in

1957, Noam Chomsky published his work on generative/ transformational grammar and contested the beliefs that language could be neatly dissected into linear and discrete units and that it was a hierarchical structure in which all the bits and pieces add up to a single whole. Concurrently, cognitive psychologists began to show that certain aspects of human behavior--especially linguistic behavior--could not be taught by repetition or rote memorizing. Further, language teachers were beginning to realize that the Audio-lingual Method was not working because their students were not learning the communicative functions of language even though they had gained acceptable levels of pronunciation and could produce memorized chunks of language.

During the late fifties and through the sixties, two major changes occurred that became focal points in the revolution in language teaching that took place in the seventies. The first of these changes was rejection of the behaviorists' contention that language is a set of habits. The second was a shift in language teaching from focusing on the teacher to focusing on the learner. The ramifications of these two changes were very far reaching.

As language teachers became increasingly aware that their students were not able to use their target languages in communicative functions, these teachers as well as researchers in the field began to reevaluate their understanding of the term language. The following definitions taken from dictionaries and random texts demonstrate the

scope of interpretations of this term that are possible:

> Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. (Finocchiaro, 8)
>
> Language is a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings. (Pei, 141)
>
> Language is any set or system of linguistic symbols as used in a more or less uniform fashion by a number of people who are thus enabled to communicate intelligibly with one another. (Random House Dictionary of the English Language 1966:806)
>
> Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. (Wardhaugh, 3)
>
> [Language is] any means, vocal or other, of expressing or communicating feeling or thought . . . a system of conventionalized signs, especially words, or gestures having fixed meanings. (Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language 1934:1390)
>
> [Language is] a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings. (Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language 1961:1270)

There are some significant differences among these definitions worthy of note. For example, Finocchiaro, Wardhaugh, and Random House restrict their definitions to humans and, thus, imply that human and animal communication are different. Finocchiaro, Pei, and Warhaugh focus on vocal symbols while both of the Webster's definitions go beyond these to indicate a wider domain included in the concept. If one were to dwell on the implications of each of these definitions, he would find a very wide range of topics

to consider. One might be impressed by the idea that language is systematic; as a result, he would probably focus on syntax or on the grammatical structure of language. Another might be impressed by the emphasis on the vocal symbols and would concentrate on the phonology, or sound system. Some might be more fascinated by the non-verbal symbols, or body language, involved in communication. Still others would be intrigued by the idea that language operates in a speech community or culture and would focus on the ways language shapes the thinking and behavior patterns of a given society. All these ideas--and others--make up the realm or sphere of language that becomes the course content for language teachers.

Determining what language is, then, is an important first step in the building of a theoretical framework for a language teacher. An important second step is understanding how language is acquired.

It is a universally accepted truth that all normal human beings will acquire a language. During the late fifties and sixties, interest in studying language acquisition increased. Chomsky posited that everyone is equipped with a Language Acquisition Device [LAD] through which he processes the pitches, sounds, and symbols of language so that they become systematized and infused with meaning. In Language Two, authors Heidi Dulay, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen summarize Chomsky's findings as follows:

> [T]he innate organizational principles of the language acquisition device govern all human languages, and determine what possible form human language may take. This mechanism permits children to acquire the vastly complicated system that comprises a human language in a relatively short time. Exposure to a language triggers the language acquisition device and provides it with the details of the language to be acquired. . . . "[U]niformities in the output . . . must [be attributed] to the structure of the device if they cannot be shown to be the result of uniformities in the language the learner hears". (7)

Chomsky's view of the language learning process stimulated a great deal of psycholinguistic research. Two researchers, Roger Brown at Harvard and Dan Slobin at Berkeley, among others, began large-scale observation programs of young children as they learned their first languages. They discovered that regardless of the language being learned, there were notable similarities in learning behaviors that were common to all the children. For example, Brown (1973) found that children learn grammatical morphemes in the same order regardless of the number of times they have heard them or of the praise/reward or lack of it their parents give them for producing these correctly. Slobin (1971) studied children learning Hungarian and Serbo-Croatian and discovered that they first learn grammatical markers that come after nouns and verbs, and then those that come before the nouns and verbs. These observations plus discoveries of other regularities support Chomsky's theory that the human brain somehow guides or structures the way young children learn and internalize the language they hear around them. These developments in research caused language acquisition to

become known as "an interaction between the child's innate mental structure and the language environment, a 'creative construction' process" (Dulay, Burt, Krashen, 8).

Another psycholinguist who was at this same time actively studying children as they acquired a first language was James Asher. Like Chomsky, Asher was intrigued with discovering how the brain functioned to systematize and structure sounds into comprehensible language. He, along with others, studied in animals the separate functions of the right and left brains (possible through the severing of the medulla oblongata in cats and through observing brain-damaged victims of accidents, etc.). In his book Learning Another Language Through Actions, Asher makes the following report of his findings:

> The right hemisphere is mute but can express itself by listening to a command in the target language, and then by performing the appropriate action. The left hemisphere can express itself by talking. The left is verbal while the right is non-verbal which means that it can communicate through physical behavior such as pointing, touching, drawing, singing, gesturing, and pantomime.
>
> As a hypothesis, I believe that the infant deciphers the meaning of language in the right hemisphere. The target language is decoded when spoken commands by caretakers "cause" changes in either the infant's behavior or other people the infant observes.
>
> The infant's left hemisphere cannot speak, but for hundreds of hours it observes language "causing" different actions in the infant and others--until the left brain is ready for its feeble attempt to talk. Gradually, the left becomes more and more aware that through talk, it has the power to "cause" events to happen. But throughout the child's development, the left shadows the right. The child's understanding

> as demonstrated in body expressions is far in advance of speaking.
>
> I believe that nature's design continues to operate when an individual--child or adult--attempts to learn a second or third language. Therefore, it seems clear that a logical starting point for any instructional program that intends to teach another language is to structure the content especially for the right hemisphere. (2-24)

In summary, Asher found that children demonstrate understanding of language by body movements long before they are able to produce language. He believes this occurs because body movements are controlled by the right brain, which is mute, and that language is produced by the left brain, which spends a long period in observing and processing sounds before it tries to speak.

Based on his findings, Asher developed a language learning/teaching method which is designed to enter through the right brain, to involve body movements (or motor skills), and to allow a silent period on the part of the learner before verbal production is expected. The method has come to be known as Total Physical Response. A teacher using this method would place himself in front of his students and begin by giving commands in the target language. He would begin with simple imperatives, such as "Stand up," and would model the action as he gave the command. No more than five commands would be given at a time, and these would be modeled by the teacher and practiced by the students until the students demonstrated understanding without the teacher's modeling. Then, other commands, or slightly more complex commands would be added:

Example #1: "Walk to the door; touch the door; open it; close the door; return to your chair."

Example #2: "When Maria walks to Juan and hits him on the arm, Shirou will run to the chalkboard and draw a funny picture of the instructor." (2-25)

Asher is only one of many who have developed teaching methods directly from the findings of their research.

In the report of his findings, Asher reveals his belief that second and third language learning for either child or adult follow the same pattern. Investigating the differences between first and second language acquisition should become a third step in the construction of a language teacher's individual theoretical framework.

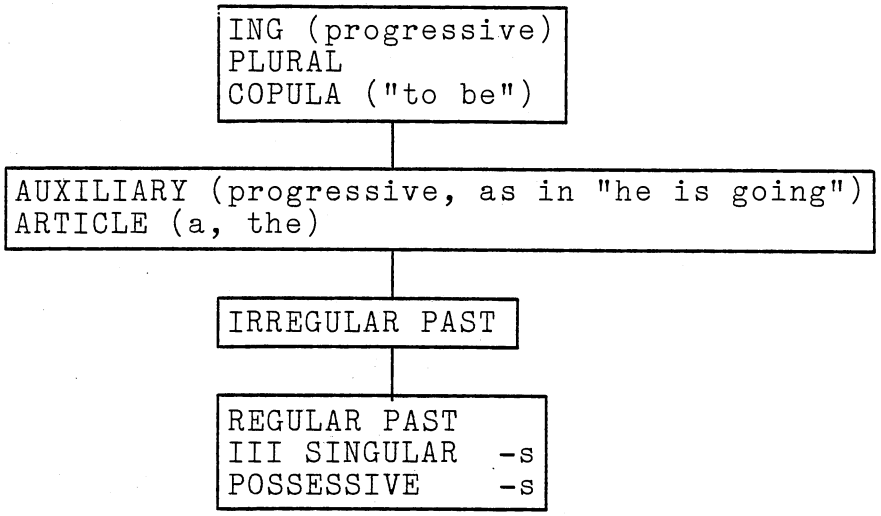
During the sixties and seventies when activity in second language research was increasing, several important ingredients of language learning were brought to light. One has already been mentioned in connection with Asher's work: when language learners are not forced to speak, they usually observe a silent period, a time when they focus on comprehending rather than producing. This period can last from a few weeks to several months. Observing such a period seems to accelerate production. Also, researchers found that the environment most conducive to language learning is one in which language is used naturally for communication. When a learner is focused on expressing and receiving messages and when the messages concern topics in which the learner is interested (even self-invested), acquisition occurs more rapidly than when the environment is an artificial one and

when the learner is expected to deal with memorized dialogues, drills, and mechanical texts.

Certain theories were developed that seemed applicable to both first and second language acquisition. The Natural Order Hypothesis developed by Stephen Krashen in 1977 postulates that the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. His findings were confirmed by Brown (1973) and de Villiers and de Villiers (1973). A short time later, Dulay and Burt (1974, 1975) found that a natural order emerged for children studying English as a second language. The orders varied slightly between acquisition of a first and a second language, but they showed significant similarities. Other investigators, such as Kessler and Idar, 1977; Fabris, 1978; and Makino, 1980, also confirmed Dulay and Burt's work. By using the SLOPE (Second Language Oral Production Exam) test, Fathman (1975) extended the research from fourteen to twenty structures in oral production and further supported the existence of a natural order in child second language acquisition. The experiments were extended to adult second language acquisition and, again, a natural order of acquisition--although slightly different from that exhibited by children--was confirmed by Andersen (1976) using composition; Krashen, Houck, Giunchi, Bode, Birnbaum, and Strei (1977) and Christison (1979) using free speech. When the SLOPE test was used with adults, the natural order of emergence of grammatical morphemes was again confirmed

(Fathman 1975; Kayfetz-Fuller 1978). Figure 1 presents an "average" order of acquisition for these morphemes:

Figure 1: "Average" order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English as a second language (children and adults)




The second theory seemed to come from two sources at the same time. Even though Ellen Bialystok proposed a theoretical model for second language learning organized around Input, Knowledge, and Output, the second model offered by Stephen Krashen (1977) as The Input Hypothesis has gained the wider audience. It pertains to all language acquisition--child and adult, first and second language--and attempts to answer the basic question: How do we acquire language? In other words, if the Natural Order Hypothesis is correct and people do acquire language in a predictable order, then how does a learner move from stage one to stage two, etc.?

In the Input Hypothesis, Krashen states that "1" equals the level of language competence of the learner and that "i"

represents "input" that the learner receives from various sources. He believes that the learner must comprehend "i" before it can be absorbed into "1" at which point the learner will progress to the next level. It is important to note that by "comprehend," Krashen means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning, not the form, of the message. So, the formula, "i + 1" represents the Input Hypothesis, and the key term becomes "comprehensible input." Thus, Krashen is dedicated to a cognitive approach of emphasizing meaning, or message, first and of believing that structure, or form, will follow.

He adds, "A third part of the input hypothesis says that input must contain i + 1 to be useful for language acquisition, but it need not contain only i + 1. It says that if the acquirer understands the input, and there is enough of it, i + 1 will automatically be provided. In other words, if communication is successful, i + 1 is provided" (Principles, 21). His last point in this hypothesis is that speaking ability, or production, just emerges; it cannot be directly taught. However, he emphasizes the importance of providing input that can be comprehended by the learner. He introduces "caretaker speech," speech that is deliberately slower than native speaker tempo, that is simplified so as to roughly fit the comprehension level of the learner, and that incorporates strategies like a reformulation of a question that the learner asked but that was not quite understandable to the

listener or a revision of a statement made by the learner but that was not quite understandable by the listener. Listeners who seek to understand and to communicate with learners provide invaluable sources of input because communication is their goal rather than structure; thus, they "tune" their language to the comprehension level of the learner. Krashen believes that this effort to develop the communicative function of language is the key (the "i + 1") that develops acquisition (and, thus, communicative competence) in learners.

One can find, then, several aspects that are common to learning both a first and a second language. However, though there may be more common factors than the three discussed above, the differences are numerous and significant. Further, many have come to light as a result of the second major trend in language teaching/learning that occurred during these three decades: a shift in emphasis away from the teacher and to the learner. Evidence of this shift was reported by A. W. Hornsey in his article "Aims and Objectives in Foreign Language Teaching" as follows:

> It was the appearance of F. M. Hodgson's book in 1955 which marked the beginning of a significant shift of emphasis. It is not simply a semantic nicety to point out that its title was Learning Modern Languages, whereas Vernon Mallinson's book two years earlier was Teaching a Modern Language. It is 'teaching' which appears in the title of all the books on method in Mallinson's bibliogrphy, apart from two books by Michael West. Mrs. Hodgson always made it clear that she was concerned primarily with the learner, with how we learn rather than how we teach. This shift from teacher to taught is a characteristic of the present situation in which we are forced to take

> into account variations in the ability and social background of our pupils and to attend closely to identifying materials and content appropriate to that variety. Mrs. Hodgson . . . posed the significant question: who is the learner? (2-3)

Hornsey's article appeared in the British anthology titled The Teaching of Modern Languages edited by Geoffrey Richardson, but the shift was occurring in the United States, also. In the same year, 1955, Earl W. Stevick published a manual for teachers of English as a Second Language entitled Helping People Learn English. This new concern with the learner is reflected in the second part of his book under "Teaching Suggestions." He poses the following questions:

a) How old are your students?

b) How much English do your students already know?

c) How often does your class meet?

d) What is the size of your class?

e) Is attendance voluntary?

f) Will your students have time for homework? (78-85)

As researchers tried to compare first and second language acquisition, they realized how many variables would need to be controlled. For example, one could compare the acquisition of first and second languages by a child. Even if one assumed a that child speaks his native language fluently by age five, he would have to recognize that the physical, cognitive, and affective developments of a five-year-old are different from those of a nine-year-old and/or of an eleven-year-old. It is generally accepted that at

puberty certain changes take place in children that also affect their approaches and abilities to learn languages.

Another research possibility would be to compare the second language acquisition of a child and the second language acquisition of an adult. Studies using the language acquisition factor constant with age as the variable have yielded some interesting results. For example, even though children seem to learn faster and demonstrate greater phonological accuracy because of the flexibility of their muscles involved in vocal production, their ability to master vocabulary is more limited than that of adults because of the limitations of their cognitive skills. On the other hand, Arthur Sorenson (1967), who studied the Tukano tribes of South America, reported a unique instance of second language acquisition in adulthood. At least two dozen languages are spoken among the Tukano tribes, and each tribal group, identified by the language it speaks, is an exogamous unit--people must marry outside their group, and hence almost always marry someone who speaks another language. Sorenson reported that during adolescence individuals actively and almost suddenly begin to speak two or three other languages to which they have been exposed at some point. Moreover, "in adulthood [a person] may acquire more languages; as he approaches old age, field observatation indicates, he will go on to perfect his knowledge of all the languages at his disposal" (678). Thus, rather than accept that adult foreign accents cannot

be overcome because of rigidity of the vocal muscles, researchers may have to explore the influence of social and cultural roles which language and phonation play, and the role which attitudes about language play as possible alternatives or supplements to existing theories used to explain adult foreign accents. However, phonological accuracy is not the major criteria in evaluating mastery of a language; one must remember that control of the communicative and functional purposes of language is far more important.

The influence of age as a variable in language acquisition extends beyond the physical domain into both the cognitive and the affective domains. Within the cognitive domain, for example, it affects learning strategies. One learning strategy (which really has two parts) has been identified as field dependence/independence. Field dependence is the tendency to be dependent on a whole, on a totality, so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived; the total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole. Contrarily, field independence is one's ability to perceive a particular, relevant item or factor in a whole field of distracting items. Generally, the "field" may be either perceptual or abstract (if it refers to a set of thoughts, ideas, or feelings) from which one must perceive relevant subsets. There are advantages and disadvantages to both tendencies. A field-independent style allows one to distinguish parts from a

whole, to concentrate on specific activities within an array of activities (like reading a book in a noisy airport or train station), or to be able to analyze separate variables without the encroachment of neighboring variables. Negatively, however, too much field independence can cause one to have cognitive "tunnel vision," so that he sees only the parts and cannot relate them to the whole. A field-dependent style, on the other hand, allows one to see the whole picture, the larger view of a problem, idea, or event. According to Douglas Brown,

> The literature on field independence-dependence has shown that persons tend to be dominant in one mode of field independence-dependence or the other, that field independence-dependence is a relatively stable trait, and that field independence increases as a child matures to adulthood. It has been found in Western culture that males tend to be more field-independent, and that field independence is related to one of the three main factors used to define intelligence (the analytical factor), but not to the other two factors (verbal-comprehension and attention-concentration). Cross-culturally, the extent of the development of a field-independent style as children mature is a factor of the type of society and home in which the child is reared. Authoritarian or agrarian societies, which are usually highly socialized and utilize strict rearing practices, tend to produce more field dependence. A democratic, industrialized, competitive society with freer rearing norms tends to produce more field-independent persons. (91)

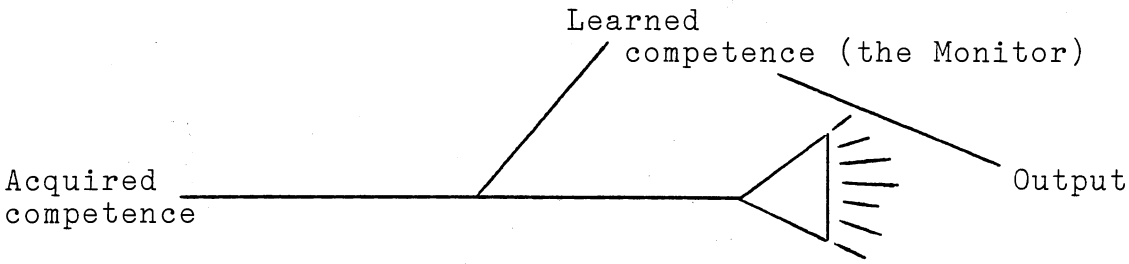
Persons for whom field dependence is the more dominant trait are usually more socialized, tend to be more empathic and perceptive of the feelings and thoughts of others, and often derive their self-identity from those around them. It would seem logical that such people would be good language learners because they socialize easily and can, thus, obtain the input necessary to help them advance in their language

skills. Field-independent persons, on the other hand, tend to be more analytical, independent, self-confident, and competitive. Interestingly enough, research done by Naiman, Frohlich, and Stern in 1975 on English-speaking eighth-, tenth-, and twelfth-graders learning French as a second language in Toronto indicated a positive correlation between field independence and "success" in the classroom. This would seem reasonable as one considers the necessity for focusing on the relevant variables among the distractions produced in a classroom. Further, in language classes one needs to be analytical and precise in distinguishing phonological and syntactic patterns, and able to master exercises, drills, and other analytical oral and written activities. It has also been found that both tendencies exist in most people and that most people have the ability to vary their utilization of field dependence and field independence. The challenge for the learner is to use the appropriate style for a given task; the challenge for the teacher is to understand each learner's preferred style and to encourage flexibility according to the assigned tasks.

Also within the cognitive domain, age is a factor in the specific learning strategy developed by Stephen Krashen and published as The Monitor Model. In the Monitor Hypothesis, Krashen claims that the two separate processes of acquisition and learning operate in very different ways. Acquisition initiates utterances in a second language and is responsible for the acquirer's fluency. Learning, on the

other hand, is only responsible for editing, or changing the form of an utterance once it has been produced by the acquired system. This editing process can take place before or after an utterance has been produced. [See Figure 2.]

Figure 2. Acquisition and learning in second language production.




But this process can only take place if (1) the speaker has time to think about and consciously use grammar rules, (2) the speaker is focused on form (that is, is thinking about correctness), and (3) the speaker knows the rule. Because the three qualifying criteria usually do not apply to children, the Monitor is primarily a strategy used by adults.

Krashen classifies monitor users as "over-users," "under-users," and "optimum-users." Over-users are identified as those who "take too much time when it is their turn to speak, and have a hesitant style that is often difficult to listen to" (Principles, 89). He further observes, "Other over-users of the Monitor, in trying to avoid this, plan their next utterance while their conversational partner is talking. Their output may be accurate, but they all too often do not pay enough attention to what

the other person is saying!" (90) The Monitor is especially useful in prepared speeches and in writing because the three criteria can in those instances more nearly be met.

In addition to being a factor in the physical and the cognitive domains involved in language learning, age is also a factor in the affective domain, which incorporates motivational factors, egocentric factors, and socio-cultural factors. It has been observed that children can suffer feelings of anxiety, depression, homesickness, rejection, etc., similar to those experienced by adults. But, usually, because they adapt to new environments, people, and languages rather quickly, these factors do not impede their language acquisition as seriously as they affect that of adults. Thus, the following discussion will primarily focus on the adult learner.

The hypothesis that affective factors can seriously affect language learning gained attention during the sixties and seventies with the shift in focus from the teacher to the learner. In 1977, Heidi Dulay and Marina Burt in an essay entitled "Remarks on Creativity in Language Acquisition" reported on research through which they attempted to show that many variables, such as those feelings listed above, relate to success in language learning. Krashen later classified these into three groups: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety (Principles, 31). Motivation, generally understood as that which provides the incentive toward the fulfillment of needs, is a complex

emotion; but, generally, two types of motivation are recognized: instrumental and integrative. Used in the context of acquiring a language, instrumental motivation inspires language acquisition toward goals, such as furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, etc. Integrative motivation becomes the inspiration when a learner wishes to become a part of the culture of the second language group, to identify himself with that society and integrate into it. Although it was postulated at first that integrative motivation might be absolutely essential for successful language learning, it is now believed because of research by men like Yasmeen Lukmani in 1972 and Braj Kachru in 1977 that instrumental motivation can be equally as forceful. Recent research further indicates that the two types of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, a Japanese speaker in the United States may desire to learn English both for academic purposes (instrumental motivation) and for achieving partial integration (integrative motivation) within the society while he is here.

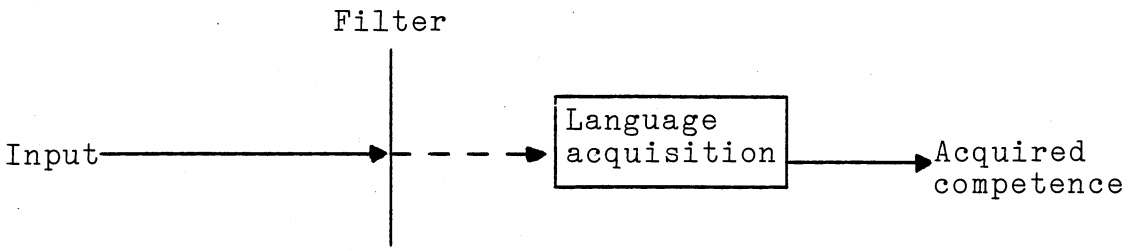
Krashen's second category of affective variables is comprised of self-confidence (or egocentric) factors. If a learner is self-conscious and unwilling or unable to risk making mistakes while learning a language, he will be less successful than a more assertive learner who realizes that he probably will murder the language before he masters it. Similarly, if a person feels his identity is at risk if he

learns the target language and assumes family or peer rejection, these fears will be manifested in great anxiety, which will prevent his processing input or acquiring language. Also, low self-esteem can be a major barrier to learning, and it can be the cumulative result of perceived failures; sometimes these are the result of difficulties in adjusting to a new society or culture. Man is a social animal, and his primary link to society itself is language; thus, the lack of language skills can start a progression of socio-cultural failures that can develop into a cycle and can lead to deep depression. Further, a learner's attitude toward the society and people whose language he aspires to learn can make a great deal of difference. Respect or admiration for the target society increases motivation and reduces barriers to acquisition; conversely, lack of respect and confidence in a society destroys motivation and prospects for success in language learning.

Observation of these factors led Dulay and Burt to formulate the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Recognizing that all normal humans acquire language but attempting to account for differences in achievements in second language acquisition, these authors conceive that between language input and the LAD [Language Acquisition Device], something that they call a "filter" exists; they believe it is controlled by motivational, self-confidence, and socio-cultural factors. They postulate that if a learner is highly motivated, the filter becomes thin so that more input goes

through it to the LAD and becomes acquired. If, however, a learner is burdened with anxiety, low self-esteem, fear of losing his identity, hatred for the society/culture of the language he is supposed to learn, or any of the other affective variables, the filter will thicken and prevent input from reaching the LAD or from becoming acquired. [See Figure 3.]

Figure 3. The Affective Filter




Thus, a language facilitator would desire to take action to remove factors that cause the affective filter to thicken.

No theoretical overview or framework would be complete without including at least brief considerations of trends in error correction. This comprises of fourth step in building a theoretical framework.

The widely respected theory regarding learner errors in the early fifties was that of Contrastive Analysis [CA]. It was acknowledged that "Languages are different"--one of the tenets of Audio-lingualism as cited by William Moulton (Prator, 13). But it was believed that a systematic study of the difference between a learner's native language [NL] and the target language [TL] he sought to learn could enable researchers to predict errors with their variations, account

for their linguistic and psychological origins, and allow insights into the development of a general theory of language based on the discovery of "universals" in language. It was Charles Fries who had given credibility to the theory and use of CA in 1945 when he declared, "the most effective materials (for foreign language teaching) are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (Sridhar, 92). Conflict among theoreticians arose. Proponents of CA cited the experience of foreign language teachers who testified that the origins of many of a learner's persistent mistakes could be traced to his mother tongue; they further stated that such analyses enhanced language contact in bilingual situations, and that CA contributed to the theory of learning. Opponents claimed that interference from one's native language was only one source of errors. Further, they claimed that using CA to predict difficulties was not worth the time spent on it for many of the difficulties predicted never materialized, and that many errors that did occur were not accounted for.

Rather than invest time and effort in CA, many teachers and designers of pedagogical materials simply collected samples of errors (as from students' "free" compositions), identified the areas of difficulty in the TL, and designed remedial drills and lessons in efforts to correct the errors. This procedure was labeled Error Analysis [EA]. Some proponents of this method also included determining the

degree of disturbance caused by the errors. As the controversy progressed, the boundaries of CA became better defined and those of EA were extended.

A milestone paper on the notion of "error" was presented in 1967 by Pit Corder. He compared the second language learner's errors in acquiring a language to those of a child learning a first language and claimed that both learners undergo struggle as they seek acquisition and that during this struggle, they "try out successive hypotheses about the nature of the target language, and from this viewpoint, the learner's 'errors' (or hypotheses) are 'not only inevitable but are a necessary' part of the language learning process" (Sridhar, 105). Corder makes a distinction between "errors" and "mistakes" claiming that the latter are due to performance factors, such as memory limitations (for example, sequences in tenses and agreement in long sentences), spelling pronunciations, etc. Usually, these are random and can be easily corrected when the learner's attention is drawn to them. In contrast, "errors" occur consistently; they are regularized deviations that represent the learner's acquired linguistic system at a given point of development. Corder believes, "The key point is that the learner is using a definite system of language at every point in his development, although it is not . . . that of the second language . . . . The learner's errors are evidence of this system and are themselves systematic" (Sridhar, 105). Then a new development occurred as a result of the insights of British

linguists; it opened up an area of research commonly referred to as Interlanguage [IL].

A crucial factor in the acceptance/usefulness of the IL theory according to Larry Selinker in his article "Interlanguage" published in 1972 is accounting for fossilization, which he defines as follows:

> Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction he receives in the TL. (Sridhar, 109)

In addition to identifying fossilization, researchers delineated other errors; these three categories as defined by Jack Richards in his article "A Non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis" have gained general acceptance:

1. interference errors--those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on his production of the target language;

2. intralingual errors--those originating within the structure of English itself (for example, when the complexity of English encourages overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, or a failure to learn conditions for applying rules);

3. developmental errors--those reflecting the strategies by which the learner acquires the language. (97-98)

Finally, there has been great concern about the correcting of errors: whether they should be corrected; if so, when, which ones, how, and by whom. James Hendrickson's article "Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching" expresses the following observations (my paraphrases) that he has drawn from the literature on the subject, which he describes as both "speculative" and "scant" (167):

1. Correcting oral and written errors improves proficiency more than not correcting them.

2. No general consensus was discovered, but many language educators believe that more harm than good is done by correcting every error and that doing so becomes counter-productive to language learning.

3. Again, a general consensus is lacking, but many educators agree that errors that seriously inhibit communication, errors that cause shame to either the speaker or listener, and errors that occur often should be given the highest priority for correction.

4. Although many techniques for error correction can be found in the literature, there is no experimental evidence to support one more than another. It does appear that direct correction is not very effective.

5. Again, there is no conclusive evidence indicating a preference for either teacher-, peer-, or self-correction. More research needs to be completed. (167-68)

The fifth (and final) step for one who is building a theoretical framework for preparing teacher-training materials is to consider the effects on testing of the two major shifts in theory and their ramifications that occurred between 1955 and 1985.

As the first theory--that language was a set of habits and could be dissected into bits and pieces which, when added together, make up a meaningful whole--was reexamined and devalued, test-makers realized that the popular discrete-point test was not adequate to evaluate a learner's communicative competence, which John B. Carroll defines as "the ability to use the foreign language in real-life situations with appropriate selections of registers, and

native-speaker-like intuitions about contextual meanings" (523). John Oller in an interview published in Readings on English as a Second Language points out that the origins of the discrete-point test pre-dated Chomsky's transformational theory of grammar. Before then (1957), he observes, "It was argued that one point of grammar should be tested at a time, that only one skill should be assessed at a time, that only one aspect of any component of grammar of any skill should be tested at one time. Thus, the discrete-point test is somewhat like a series of well-aimed rifle shots pointing at particular targets" (Croft, 481).

After Chomsky, the rationale changed, and scholars/teachers believed that learning a language meant internalizing a grammatical system; thus, the goal of testing should be, according to Oller, "to assess the efficiency of that internalized grammar. This means that the test should press that grammar into action." He continues, "It's now fairly well established that integrative tests--such as dictation, cloze procedure, essay writing, oral interviews of various types, and other tasks that require the rapid processing of sequences of verbally coded information in the language--qualify as devices for invoking the learner's internalized grammar" (483). Oller's remarks summarize the rationale undergirding the changes that are occurring in testing today.

He makes one further observation that also represents a current trend in testing today: he emphasizes the importance of integrating tests into the curriculum so that they will have instructional value. Finnochiaro and Sako echo Oller and John B. Carroll, who holds the same opinion, when they write the following:

> [T]eaching and testing could be considered two sides of the same coin. "Teaching to the test"--a fear expressed by many educators--will not distort learning if teaching and testing both derive from sharply defined objectives based on a sound inter-disciplinary theory. Far from being a source of apprehension, a good testing program resulting in a student's knowledge that he/she is making definite progress toward clearly specified goals will be a positive motivating force for student and teacher alike. Only a sound, continuous program of objective evaluation can give students and teachers --those who most need to know--the certainty that the obstacles on the long uphill road to language acquisition are being slowly but surely pushed aside. (41)

In conclusion, there were two major changes that occurred during the three decades prior to 1985: a shift in focus from the philosophy that language was a set of habits and that language could be separated into tiny bits and pieces, which, when added together made up a meaningful whole; and (2) a shift from focusing on the teacher to focusing on the learner. The ramifications of these two changes permeated language acquisition research, the development of language teaching methodologies, and ideas affecting error correction and testing. An overview of these changes is essential to a person desiring to construct step-by-step a valid theoretical foundation that will undergird his teaching of foreign languages or English as a Second Language.

# CHAPTER IV

# GUIDELINES FOR TRAINING VOLUNTEER TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

## Introduction

During the 1960s and early seventies, many factors combined to create conditions that were conducive to the establishment of English-as-a-Second-Language programs across the United States. Many of these utilized volunteers as teachers. Certain federally sponsored agencies, like the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs [NAFSA] and the American Immigration and Citizenship Conference, produced handbooks for use by volunteers; these reflected the methodologies and language-acquisition theories that were being used during that period. They also emphasized materials that were most useful in beginning-level classes. Because the need for classes in English as a Second Language [ESL] continues, because the former handbooks are no longer readily available but new volunteers continue to seek training, and because new discoveries have been made in language-acquisition research that have resulted in the development of new language-teaching methodologies and in

attitudes held by teachers both about themselves and their tasks and about the learners they teach, the following guidelines have been developed in an effort to update older handbooks. In addition, certain materials have been included to supplement the resources used for teaching intermediate and more advanced levels of ESL. The following guidelines are divided into three parts: Focus on the Volunteer Teacher, Focus on the Adult Learner, and Focus on Content. See detailed organizational chart in Appendix C.

## Focus on the Volunteer Teacher

As a potential volunteer considers the important contributions that volunteer teachers make to the society, he wonders just who these people are, what personality characteristics make them effective as teachers, and what the scope of their work entails.

First, volunteer ESL teachers come from all walks of life. A few are retired teachers who desire to continue to use their teaching skills; a few are college students with a little time that they want to invest in helping their fellow international students; others are community members who are working daily but are also interested in assisting international students by giving them an hour or two a week; still others are members of churches and other community service organizations--both retired and working--who assist wives of international students and/or military personnel, refugees, and non-English speaking migrant workers. If the volunteer

has had the opportunity to study a language other than English, this is considered a benefit because the volunteer will then better identify with the problems of the learner as he struggles to attain fluency in English; having studied a foreign language is not, however, a requirement for most volunteer teachers in community programs. A 1974 NAFSA survey indicated that the majority of volunteers were non-working women who had the time to do volunteer work, who "possessed at least a bachelor's degree, who were reasonably poised and articulate, fairly well-traveled, interested in world affairs, and intellectually inclined" (Guide . . . NAFSA, 3). (The feminine pronoun will henceforth be used to refer to volunteers.)

No matter what their personal characteristics, there are certain traits that are common to the most effective of these teachers. Primary among these is an awareness of and sensitivity to the needs of others; also extremely important is a genuine interest in other countries and their cultures. Of course, an understanding of English is necessary--not necessarily a grammarian's technical knowledge, but a native speaker's awareness of the different registers of language required for different social interaction, etc. Necessary, too, is a desire to develop a structured approach to teaching English. In addition, effective volunteer teachers demonstrate a willingness to interact socially (at least through conversation) and in a variety of registers with

their students. Finally, they exhibit a commitment to their tasks that is rare among non-professionals.

In addition to examining the identities and characteristics of volunteer teachers, a potential volunteer would also desire to know just what their work entails. In certain programs, volunteers are assistants to professional English teachers. These volunteers often take a designated group of learners and lead them through drills or exercises planned by the professional teacher while the teacher works with another group. In other situations, volunteers work one-on-one with learners to reenforce what the professional teacher has planned. In other programs, the volunteer carries the full burden of planning and executing the lessons; however, usually the testing--either for placement or advancement is done by a supervisor. But two of the most important contributions that a volunteer can make for adult learners of ESL are to provide native-speaker conversation and a personal interest that addresses the needs of the individual. Sometimes that means that the volunteer will help arrange transportation so that the learner can attend class or so that the volunteer can act as a resource person to help the learner find medical, social, or personal services within the community. Thus, the role of the volunteer is not to be confused with that of the professional teacher even though the responsibilities sometimes are the same. The volunteer teacher's activities

go beyond those of the professional teacher in the classroom; they potentially enter the sphere of friendship and human services.

In examining the areas of responsibility that are the same, one can identify at least six similar roles: Master of the language, Student of language acquisition theory, Facilitator of learning experiences, Evaluator of errors, Assessor of progress, and Source of cultural information.

As was mentioned earlier, Master of the language is not meant to imply the technical knowledge of a grammarian. It does suggest that the volunteer teacher has carefully considered what the term <u>language</u> means and understands that it encompasses not only vocal sounds and written symbols but also facial expressions, gestures, and the pitch and tone of the voice. She should also be aware of the different registers that are used in different communicative situations. For example, in the following three dialogues, three different registers are used in making introductions according to the situation and speakers:

#1 PROFESSOR: Mr. Chester, I would like to introduce you to Dr. Smith, director of the language institute. Dr. Smith, this is Mr. Chester, the academic adviser from Barnum College.
MR. CHESTER: How do you do, Dr. Smith?
DR. SMITH: It's a pleasure to meet you, Mr. Chester. I'm glad that we finally have the occasion to meet.

#2 FRIEND: I'd like you to meet my friend, Nancy Johnson. Nancy, this is my brother, Rick.
NANCY: Hi, Rick. Nice to meet you.
RICK: Hi, Nancy.

#3 FRIEND: Hi, Stanley, have you met John?
STANLEY: No, I haven't. Hi, John.
JOHN: Hi! How ya doing?

The volunteer teacher should be able to explain the differences between formal (as illustrated in example #1) and informal (as illustrated in examples #2 and #3) introductions in terms of length of sentences, formality of words and phrases, and relationships between the speakers. In addition, as Master of the language, the volunteer teacher is able to point out differences between the English used in the business and professional worlds (she can often use news broadcasts on television and on the radio as models) and the English used colloquially (among the people). Further, as Master of the language, the volunteer teacher recognizes that communication is the goal of language exchange and that any dialect that she speaks, whether it be southern U.S., New England, southwestern, etc., is acceptable as a model for her students.

As a Student of language acquisition theory, the volunteer teacher needs to understand a few rather universally accepted theories so that she will be able better to comprehend and put in perspective the progress or lack of it that her students are making. For example, before World War II, researchers who subscribed to the tenets of behaviorism believed that language was a set of habits and that language could be dissected into bits and pieces and reassembled to convey certain meanings. Thus, language teachers broke language into chunks, or pieces, and used drills (such as

repetition, substitution, and chain drills) to help their students "learn" the language. They would say (or speak) and have the students repeat what they had heard. This was known as the mimicry/memorization or Audio-lingual Method. It was widely used for many years. However, in 1957, a research linguist named Noam Chomsky challenged the behaviorists' interpretation of how language is acquired and proposed a much more complex theory of language, which has come to be known as transformational/generative grammar. He believed that all normal humans will acquire a first language, that each person is equipped with something like a little black box in his brain that Chomsky called the Language Acquisition Device [LAD]. Further, even though there may be only a few kernel structures in any given language, these go through almost infinite transformations during the language production process so that people express their thoughts--even though the thoughts may be very similar or even identical--in different ways because of the variations possible in the generation or production of language.

Chomsky's ideas caused a revolution in the worlds of language research and language teaching methodologies and even in the language classroom. Equipped with these new ideas, researchers began to try to determine just how children learn their first language. James Asher, both a psychologist and linguist, spent many hours and designed many experiments to study children learning their first

language. He observed the importance of the "critical period" (sometimes called the "silent period") during which children listen to language before trying to produce it. He also observed how children were able to demonstrate through physical responses that they understood commands and the language they were receiving before they could speak. Further, Asher and others sought to understand how the brain processes language. After experimenting with animals and with brain-damaged victims of accidents, etc., he and his colleagues proposed that it is the left brain that analyses matter and actually controls the production of language, but that it is the right brain that comprehends and can cause physical responses to language long before the timid left brain is ready to speak.

From these observations, Asher developed a method of teaching language called the Total Physical Response Method. Using this method, a teacher would begin by giving simple commands in the target language and modeling each command he gives (he would give no more than five commands at a time). For example, sitting in a chair in front of his students, a teacher might say, "Stand up." (He would stand.) "Sit down." (He would sit.) He would repeat these commands until the students could follow these directions without the teacher's modeling them. Then, he would add more simple commands, modeling each as it was added. He uses real objects as much as possible to increase vocabulary, and he increases the complexity of the commands as rapidly as the

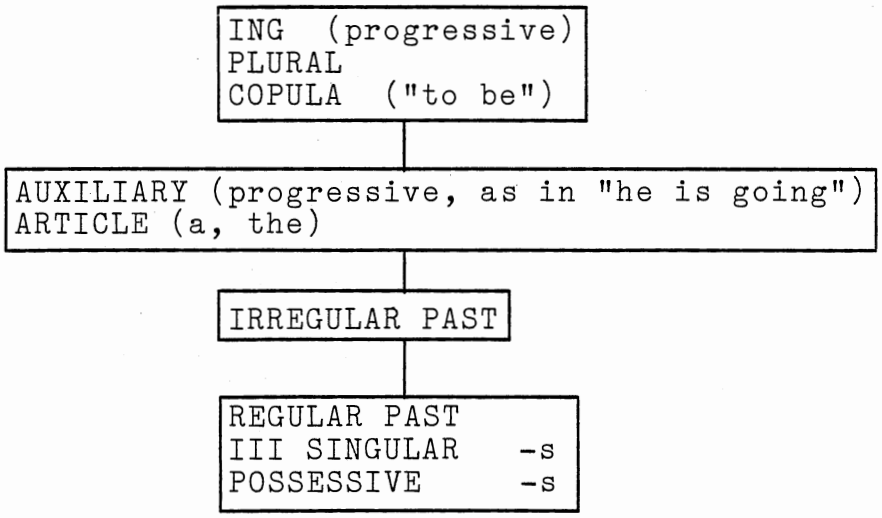
class can keep up the learning pace. For example, a more complex sequence would be the following: When Juan gives the book to Maria, Pablo will run to the blackboard and draw a funny picture of the instructor. Asher believes that novelty in the commands stimulates interest and quickens acquisition. Further, he does not insist on production from his students for approximately ten weeks, for he believes in observing the "critical" or "silent" period. Asher continues to gather data on the success rate of this method; the reports are quite positive.

Other outcomes of research stimulated by Chomsky's ideas include The Natural Order Hypothesis and The Input Hypothesis, both developed by Stephen Krashen. The first hypothesis proposes that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order. It is important to understand the difference between <u>acquired</u> and <u>learned</u> that Krashen insists on by those considering his work. He says,

> [A]dults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language.
>
> The first way is language <u>acquisition</u>, a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication.
> . . . . . .
>
> The second way to develop competence in a second language is by language <u>learning</u>. We will use the term "learning" henceforth to refer to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them. In non-technical terms, learning is "knowing about" a language, known to most people as "grammar" or "rules." (<u>Principles</u>, 10)

After observing both children and adults, Krashen and others determined that no matter what language was being acquired, a predictable pattern of acquisition emerged. There were some variations between the patterns of children acquiring a first language and adults acquiring second and third languages, but the following figure indicates the average acquisition order of grammatical morphemes (the smallest units of language that carry meaning) for English as a second language for both children and adults:

Figure 4: "Average" order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English as a second language (children and adults)




Krashen would never recommend that teachers use this chart as a guide for sequencing lesson materials, but it can be very useful to a teacher in diagnosing the approximate level of acquisition a particular student has reached.

A second theory that Krashen offers to explain language acquisition is The Input Hypothesis. He represents this

hypothesis by the formula "i + 1." "1" represents the level of language competence of the learner and "i" equals "input" that the learner receives from various sources. He believes that the learner must comprehend "i" before it can be absorbed into "1" at which point the learner will progress to the next level. It is important to note that by "comprehend" Krashen means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning, not the form, of the input. "Comprehensible input" becomes the key term for understanding and using this concept. Further, he adds that although input must contain "i + 1" to be useful for language acquisition, "it need not contain only i + 1. . . . [I]f the acquirer understands the input, and there is enough of it, i + 1 will automatically be provided" (Principles, 21). One way to encourage "comprehensible input" is to use "caretaker speech," speech that is deliberately slower than native speaker tempo, that is simplified so as to roughly fit the comprehension level of the learner, and that incorporates strategies like a reformulation of a question that the learner asked but that was not quite understandable to the listener or a revision of a statement made by the learner but that was not quite understandable to the listener. Listeners who seek to understand and to communicate with learners provide invaluable sources of input because communication is their goal rather than structure; thus, they "tune" their language to the comprehension level of the learner. Krashen believes that this effort to develop the

communicative function of language is the key that develops acquisition in learners. Thus, Krashen would encourage volunteer teachers to establish relaxed environments in which natural conversations (roughly tuned to the learner's language competence level) about topics of interest can be held between teacher and learner(s). The teacher should always seek to provide input that is comprehensible plus some that is a little beyond the learner's competency level so that "i + 1" will occur and the learner will progress to the next level.

In addition to being Master of the language and Student of language acquisition theory, the volunteer teacher will be a Facilitator of learning experiences. In this role, she may be asked to take students on field trips. For example, she might be asked to take the students to the community medical facility and to show them the proper procedure for obtaining services. Or, after the professional teacher has presented a unit on safety, the volunteer may be asked to take the students to local police and fire stations, etc. These are usually pleasant assignments, but the volunteer will be most effective if she remembers to reenforce the vocabulary presented by the classroom teacher but to do so in the most natural way possible. Once the volunteer teacher accepts "Communicative Competence" as the primary goal of her efforts, she will become both creative and relaxed in doing her job.

Facilitator of learning experiences applies not only to field trips but also to one-on-one and classroom sessions. No matter which situation the volunteer teacher finds herself assigned to, she will do well to organize and plan the lessons she and her student(s) will share and to determine just which method or methods will best enhance language acquisition. A brief introduction to the following language-teaching methods will increase the total from which the volunteer teacher can select.

In his essay "'Direct Method' Teaching," Geoffrey Richardson cites the early developers of this method and observes,

> They all insisted on the primacy of phonetics as a basis for language teaching; on the importance of oral practice and the necessity for making the reader the center of instruction; on the principle of direct association between the thing referred to and the new word in the foreign language; on the teaching of grammar by inductive methods, and on the avoidance of the written or printed word until the pupil's pronunciation was so sound that it would not be influenced by seeing how the words were spelt. (38)

Only the target language was used in class, and the "unit of language was still considered to be the sentence, not the isolated word or even phrase" (39). Thus, teachers using this method spend twenty per cent of class time modeling and drilling the sounds of the language but integrate those as quickly as possible into sentences. They then ask questions whose answers can incorporate the vocabulary that has just been presented, but they try to stimulate original answers (that is, original combinations of the vocabulary) to the questions as far as possible. Richardson claims that even

though this activity is pattern practice, the emphasis on original answers causes the learners to think about using the language and, thus, to develop communicative competence. When reading passages were used, the teacher asked question after question both to check comprehension and to provide practice in the formulation of answers/statements. This was followed up by a rigidly controlled composition (students could only write what they had spoken and seen), which was often assigned as homework after the structure had been determined. Never were the students allowed to translate or to look up definitions in the dictionary for use in the composition. The intent was to "fix" language in the minds of the learners. This method is especially effective for beginning learners, but it does not allow the learner the opportunity to go through a "silent period" of listening without having to produce. Further, some adults find the rigid control of subjet matter tedious and unfulfilling. Teachers choosing this method need to allow the students opportunities to help select the subject matter with which they will be working.

Another method that was widely used from the forties through the early sixties was the Audio-lingual Method. It has been mentioned before; it is also known as the Mim/Mem Method and the Aural/Oral Method because it is based on the philosophy that language is a set of habits. According to this philosophy, if one hears language, mimicks it, and memorizes it, it should be acquired.

Proponents of the Audio-lingual Method worked out several different kinds of drills: simple repetition, substitution, transformation, and chain drills. The first drill, simple repetition, needs no explanation. In the substitution drill, usually only one item was substituted at a time. For example, the teacher might hold up a book and announce, "This is a book." The class would repeat, "This is a book." Having established the pattern "This is," the teacher would then substitute whatever vocabulary items she was focusing on for that lesson (or as a review): This is a book; this is a pen; this is a notebook; this is a pencil, etc. Substitution drills can progress into more complex exercises, however, and can be made to stimulate sophisticated relationships as in this exercise. The teacher uses a visual aid (a chart or an overhead transparency) to project a genealogical tree. Then, choosing one character from the family grouping, the teacher would begin: Jack is the son of _____. The class (or a designated student) would have to choose the correct family member and give the name. The exercise can be inverted, then, to practice the alternate possessive form: Jack is _____'s son. Further, Jack is Allen's _____. Substitution can be made for any element of the sentence as long as that element is held constant throughout the exercise.

One of the most common transformation drills practices turning a statement into a question or a question into a statement. These drills assist the learner in associating

the "wh" words (what, when, where, who, which one) with the correct information being elicited. For example, Suk is going to Paris (statement). Suk is going where (question)? Or, The party begins at 8:00 p.m. (statement). The party starts when? or When does the party start? (question). (Note that in the latter question, the auxiliary does will need to be explained after the pattern has been established.)

The chain drill is also nearly self-explanatory. For example, the teacher might begin the exercise by saying to the student at the beginning of the first row of seats, "My name is Professor Smith. What's your name?" The student would reply, "My name is Pablo Garcia. I'm please to meet you." He would then turn to the student next to him and say, "My name is Pablo Garcia. What's your name?" That student would answer, "My name is Hee Soon Pak. Hi." (Note the change of register used by a student responding to a professor and a student responding to another student.) That student would continue the chain of introductions and responses until everyone in the class had participated. Chain drills can be used to reenforce many patterns. For example, they can be used to practice tense: Student One: "Last night I went to the movies; tomorrow I will play tennis." Student Two: "Last night I played tennis; tomorrow I will go shopping," etc.

Finally, minimal pairs are sometimes classified under the category "Drills." Minimal pairs are pairs of words,

phrases, or short sentences that differ in meaning but are identical in structure except in one point. In words, the differences can occur in any of three positions: initial, medial, or terminal. For example, "pray / play" and "low / row" have initial differences; "Willie / weary" and "miller / mirror" illustrate medial differences; and "play / plague" and "pill / peer" depict terminal differences. The differences are usually thought of in terms of vowels or consonants, but minimal pairs can extend to short sentences, too: "He hurt his chin" / "He hurt his shin"; "Where do they go to play?" / "Where do they go to pray?" These can be used effectively if students are guided to differentiate, identify, and mimick the focal sounds, especially at the beginning levels of language learning.

Other characteristics of the Audio-lingual Method in addition to extensive use of drills (mimicry/memorization) include exclusive use of the target language; step-by-step progression of materials based on linguistic sequencing; use of language comparison (contrastive analysis) to "predict " errors; mastery of language systems (in pronunciation classes, grammar classes, reading classes, conversation classes, and writing/composition classes); structures and rules learned by example, by demonstration not formulation, and by analogy rather than analysis; strict vocabulary control at beginning stages (emphasis on words with regular spelling and pronunciation and high in frequency); and emphasis on speaking.

Although students trained by the Audio-lingual Method often developed excellent accents and pronunciation skills, they and their teachers discovered that most were unable to generate original statements or to communicate spontaneously in real-life situations. Their memorized chunks of language did not sufficiently equip them for the mobility they desired in the target language and culture.

Two other methods deserve description and further investigation by volunteer teachers desiring to extend their repertoires of methods from which to choose: The Natural Approach and Interactive Teaching.

The Natural Approach was developed by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen for use by high school, college, and adult language learners. This method attempts to abide by the tenets of the Input Hypothesis and can be characterized by the following four principles as paraphrased from Krashen's Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition (138):

1. Classtime is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition, and a great effort is made to insure that input is both interesting and relevant to the students. For example, in order to establish a group feeling, a teacher might pose this exercise: "Suppose you are a famous person, and there is a newspaper article about you. Tell at least one thing about yourself which is mentioned in the article." Later students discuss their past histories, and eventually they are able to talk about their hopes and plans for the future.

2. The teacher speaks only the target language in the classroom although students are permitted to speak in either their native or the target language. If they do choose the target language, the teacher does not correct their errors unless communication is greatly impaired.

3. Homework may include formal grammar work. It is always checked, and errors are corrected.

4. The goals of the course are to enable students to talk about ideas, perform tasks, and solve problems. Conversation management strategies are taught from the very beginning.

Interactive teaching (sometimes called Cooperative Learning) techniques also fulfill the requisites of the Input Hypothesis. The two keys to interactive language teaching are developing activities that are to be done by groups of learners and making input comprehensible. These techniques, also, are particularly appropriate for the intermediate and advanced rather than beginning learners. There is a similarity between these techniques and what Asher incorporates into Total Physical Response: once a theme is introduced, the groups are given opportunities to work with that theme in as many ways that involve motor skills (and/or realia) as possible. For example, a teacher might present a unit on different kinds of jobs and professions. After the initial preparations, she would divide the class into groups (being careful to mix language groups to encourage communication in the target language) and give each group a suitcase (or some container acceptable as a suitcase) filled with various items. These items serve as clues to the identity of the owner of the suitcase. It is the goal of each group to examine and discuss each item and reach a consensus on the identity of the owner. Upon reaching that goal, half the members of each group move to another group and the members of the new group then tell

each other about the owners of the suitcases they examined and how they reached their conclusions. Joshua Boyd's article listed in the bibliography contains several activities based on interactive principles and directed toward the intermediate and advanced learners.

Once a volunteer teacher has acquired enough knowledge of methods to envision presenting materials, her next challenge is preparing the lesson plan. As early as possible, she should begin taking notes about the language proficiency levels of her students and about topics that interest them. These will be invaluable resources for future lesson planning. One of the first steps in developing a plan is to decide on the theme and content of the lesson. It is necessary to determine what vocabulary needs to be explained (made comprehensible) and in what fashion. Then, goals for the student(s) should be established and the methods for reaching those goals chosen. Further, it is important to collect any realia or visual aids that will enhance the presentation, to block out the class time into segments, and to prepare any drills, exercises, or games that will be needed during the class period (games offer a good change of pace and stimulate interest; they should be thematically related to the lesson). Several models of lesson organization are discussed in Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil's book Models of Teaching. One that is often used in language teaching is the Advanced Organizer Model, which allows the teacher to present an overall outline of the

session's goals, theme, and lesson segments at the beginning of the class. Such organization is particularly helpful to field dependent students at the beginning of the class and is helpful to most students at the end of the class as they review and evaluate accomplishments for the day.

Thus, as Facilitator of learning experiences, a volunteer teacher may be asked to take students on field trips, to work with a group or groups while the professional teacher works with others, or to assume the responsibility for totally planning and conducting classes. A knowledge of methods for teaching and structures for organizing lessons is very helpful.

In addition to being a Master of the language, a Student of language acquisition, and Facilitator of learning experiences, a volunteer teacher also serves as Evaluator of errors. This role requires sensitivity and knowledge both of the kinds of errors that students make and of the purpose behind the student's communication effort in which the error was made. First, it is important to encourage students to communicate, to practice using the target language as soon as they are willing to try to do so. It is also important to help students achieve a sense of accomplishment. Therefore, when the teacher understands a student's message, communication has occurred, and the goal has been achieved. For correction to be made of a mistake or mistakes at this point would diminish the student's sense of accomplishment. Only if the communicating of the message was seriously

impaired or if the mistake would bring embarrassment to the student should the teacher correct the student who is trying to communicate. If, however, the focus is on form--as when students are being drilled, then correction should be made. The following distinction is often made between mistakes and errors: mistakes are caused by performance factors, such as memory limitations (for example, sequences and agreement in tenses in long sentences); errors occur consistently and are regularlized deviations that represent the learner's acquired linguistic system at a given point of development. Pit Corder states, "The key point is that the learner is using a definite system of language at every point in his development, although it is not . . . that of the second language. . . . The learner's errors are evidence of this system and are themselves systematic" (Sridhar, 104). Thus, deciding whether and when to correct mistakes/errors requires sensitivity and knowledge. It might also be helpful to be aware that there are many different kinds of errors and that there are many journal articles available to teachers desiring to learn more about errors and error correction. Three categories of errors that have generally been recognized are the following:

1. interference errors--those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on his production of the target language;

2. intralingual errors--those originating within the structure of English itself (for example, when the complexity of English encourages overgeneralization as in the forming of the past tense when a learner adds <u>-ed</u> rather than uses the irregular form: "He buyed" rather than "He bought");

3. developmental errors--those reflecting the strategies by which the learner acquires the language. (Richards, 97-98)

Mistakes are usually easily corrected when the attention of the learner is drawn to them. On the other hand, the teacher needs some knowledge of the different kinds of errors and of the level of proficiency of the student to deal with true errors.

Other roles the volunteer teacher must play are those of Assessor of progress and Source of cultural information. In these roles, the teacher is concerned not only with language development but also with cultural adjustment. According to studies that have been made, adults new to the United States go through rather predictable cycles of adjustment depending on their goals and motivation. Gregory Trifonovitch classifies these as (1) the Honeymoon Stage in which the new arrival is caught up in the realization of his dream of coming to the United States and is buffered from reality by agencies, government officials, sponsors, and even teacher--all of whom are there to help him. He is initially shy but cooperative, interested, and excited. As he is accepted into the society (as in the classroom), more is expected of him, and he begins to withdraw and to exhibit rather negative characteristics of his culture that are often neither understood nor tolerated by the U. S. culture. This can lead to negative responses toward him from others and to the second stage. (2) The Hostility stage is characterized by negativism, which can intensify to

manifestations of aggressiveness and even violence. In this stage, students display a disregard for authority, frequent absenteeism, lack of interest, lack of motivation, and sometimes complete withdrawal. Unfortunately, other students and often teachers, too, react toward the student in the same way. However, recognition of these symptoms should be sufficient for the teacher to extend his patience and anticipate the third stage. (3) The Humor stage is welcome because the new arrival begins to feel more relaxed in his new environment and begins to laugh at minor mistakes and misunderstandings that previously had caused him many difficulties as he progressed through the hostility stage. Trifonovitch observes, "It is important for the teacher to be able to recall some negative classroom experiences and re-interpret them so they will produce laughter and humor, thus assisting the new student in moving completely out of the hostility stage and into the humor stage" (556). Finally, the student reaches stage four. (4) The Home stage marks the period in which the student both retains his allegiance to his own culture and begins to "feel at home" in his new one. In this stage, the teacher must be capable of enhancing the bicultural aspects of the classroom situation and accentuating the values of both cultures.

At this point, the teacher's role as Source of cultural information is better recognized by the student and is frequently tapped. It has been argued that culture is "caught" and not "taught" and that culture is inextricably

bound to the language of a given society. Indeed, just trying to determine what comprises culture poses many problems. There have been more than four hundred definitions offered for the term culture; and although agreement to accept only one is not forthcoming, it is generally agreed that one becomes more aware of those elements which make up his own culture when he contrasts his culture with that of another society. The volunteer ESL teacher needs to be aware that differences in attitudes toward learning, toward the authority figure in the classroom, toward the amount of space allowed between two people holding a conversation, toward certain gestures, and toward concepts, like time, are conditioned by one's native culture and language. She needs to examine her own attitudes first, and to attempt to recognize any prejudice or prejudgment she may feel toward any given cultures as well as her own degree of ethnocentrism (the belief that her own culture is the "best" culture) because these can be real barriers to cross-cultural communication and learning. Then, as she allows and even promotes cultural comparisons in the classroom and increases her own cultural awareness, she will recognize that many things that are automatic in her behavior--such as understanding the connotative meanings of Texan or Yankee or as choosing which register of language to use when speaking to older persons, persons of great stature, peers, and children--are things she knows because she is a native of the United States and a speaker

of English. By virtue of these two factors, she becomes an expert Source of cultural information. As an astute teacher who is ultimately committed to the successful language learning of her students, she will not attempt to "teach" culture directly but will use indirect approaches, as in choosing themes that allow both progress in communicative competence and in cultural development. For example, she will take advantage of major holidays celebrated in the United States as thematic units and will encourage comparisons by the students with similar holidays celebrated in their countries. Thus, the roles of Assessor of progress and Source of cultural information are linked.

If formal assessments of progress are required, however, one further aspect of assessment should be mentioned: testing. Usually, it is not the responsibility of a volunteer teacher to design or to choose tests to be given to students for placement or program exit purposes. Thus, this discussion will be limited to three kinds of tests that are especially useful for assessing the progress of intermediate and more advanced students: the cloze test, the dictation, and the composition.

The cloze test is a coherent paragraph from which every $\underline{n}^{th}$ word has been omitted; for example, in an average cloze test, every seventh word will be omitted. The test can be made easier by increasing the number of words between omissions, or it can be made more difficult by decreasing the number of words between omissions. If every tenth word

is omitted, more contextual clues will be given, and the test will be easy. The point of the test is for the student to provide the correct word to fill each blank representing an omitted word. This test is effective if administered both before and after a thematic unit is presented. When administered before, it reveals level of knowledge of the subject matter as well as comprehension and vocabulary development. If administered again after the presentation of the content material, the test will measure progress in all the same areas. Using a test in this way helps provide focus for the student during the content presentation. The test paragraph, of course, should be carefully selected to reenforce the content material.

The dictation is another test that calls forth "expectancy grammar," or a wide range of the student's language skills from discrimination of sounds to recognition of sentence structure and variables within that (subject-verb agreement, tense agreement, pronoun agreement, proper use of conjunctions, etc.) to choices of vocabulary to achieve meaning. Again, a paragraph is selected by the teacher, who is conscious of the unit's theme and of the levels of competency of her students. She instructs the students that she will read the paragraph three times--the first time at a normal speed; the second time, more slowly so that the students can write what they hear; and the third time, rather slowly so that the students can check to verify that what they have written matches what they hear. Although

this, too, is a sophisticated test best utilized for more advanced students, it is an excellent teaching tool as well.

Perhaps the most sophisticated test of all is the original composition. Writing is the most difficult of the four language skills, and the composition (whether rigidly controlled or free) is the assessment tool that requires the greatest effort in language production by the student. It, too, can be used as a teaching tool and point of focus for a lesson if used at the beginning as well as at the end of a lesson presentation. In teaching situations, such as those conducted by volunteer teachers, journals are good beginning points through which to approach more formal compositions.

All three of these tests--the cloze, the dictation, and the composition--represent integrative tests, that is, tests that seek to evaluate a broad spectrum of language skills. Before the fifties, discrete point tests were very popular; they sought to test only one language skill at a time. Usually, they contained a group of sentences, which were not related to each other nor to the theme of the unit of instruction. But the current trend of thinking is that a well designed, integrative test can be used to great advantage as a teaching tool rather than strictly as an evaluation instrument. As was mentioned above, one way to do that is to present the test at the beginning of the session, allow the students to discover what they do and do not know through taking the test, and use the test as a skeleton of the presentation of the material for the class;

then, administer the test again at the end of the period to review the material and evaluate the students' progress in learning.

## Focus on the Adult Learner

In addition to understanding the roles that she is expected to fulfill, the volunteer teacher also needs to understand as much as possible about her students as individuals and as members of a broader group--language learners. Research and experience have provided records from which teachers can benefit. These indicate that there are two major categories with which the language teacher should be particularly concerned: learner identification and learner characteristics.

The first category, learner identification, should be considered in two parts. First, when a non-native speaker seeks training in learning a second language, he brings to that study an identity formed through his native language and culture. For example, some refugees arrive in the United States unable to speak English and are, as a result, condemned to doing the most menial of tasks to earn a living even though they may have been highly trained, successful professionals in their own countries. Such a change in economic and social status can be very demeaning and can bring about great personal depression, which is detrimental to acquiring a language. Thus, a language teacher would do well to acquaint herself with the past history of her

students--in so far as that is possible. She must be sensitive to the students' emotional state and should not demand information that the student cannot easily provide. She should be creative in facilitating opportunities for them to share past experiences, however, so that they can establish a group rapport and begin to move beyond the past into the future, or beyond the first part of this category into the second part: the new identity.

Language class provides an excellent place for role playing, for experimenting with new identities. Students can be encouraged to assume new names (those associated with the target culture) and to assume different job identities and social positions through role playing. Such acting out of new social roles seems to encourage the motivation that is so necessary for success in language acquisition. Above all, the teacher can become a key figure in helping each student feel that he is a valued member of the new society. The volunteer teacher has opportunities limited only by her own time and willingness to assist the learners not only in mastering the language but also in adjusting to the new environment. If she is truly interested in assisting with cultural adjustment, she will make lists of agencies and their addresses that provide social services and will apprise herself of contact persons, times, and addresses of community helpers. Most of all, she will be sensitive, understanding, and caring and will seek to communicate that

the newcomer is a valued member of the target society--even when he undergoes the hostility stage of adjustment.

The second category, learner characteristics, is one that has been intensively studied during the past twenty-five years. The three subdivisions of this category that most merit the attention of the volunteer teacher are the physical domain, the cognitive domain, and the affective domain. Regarding the physical domain, some mention has already been made about the influence of age on language learning. The older a learner is, the more difficult it seems to be for him properly to form the sounds of the new language. Age seems to be a factor in the rigidity of vocal muscle control; however, there have been studies of South American Indians, the Tukano tribes, that indicate that even adults are capable of acquiring several new languages and of speaking them fluently. Thus, age may only be a minor factor. Further, age is not always a negative factor, for although children seem to mimick and pick up target language that is used on the playground and in basic interpersonal communication situations, adults who acquire second languages seem to retain these longer, for they have a more sophisticated understanding of the concepts of life experiences with which to associate the new language. Thus, the physical domain, while important, is perhaps the least important of the three subdivisions.

Studies of the cognitive domain have produced significant insights into the strategies language learners use.

For example, according to research, there are two strategies that all learners possess and most learners can use at will: field dependence and field independence. Field dependence is the tendency to be dependent on a whole, on a totality, so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived; the total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole. Persons for whom field dependence is the more dominant trait are usually more socialized, tend to be more empathic and perceptive of the feelings and thoughts of others, and often derive their self-identity from those around them. It would seem logical that such people would be good language learners because they socialize easily and can, thus, obtain the input necessary to help them advance in their language development. On the other hand, field independence is one's ability to perceive a particular, relevant item or factor in a whole field of distracting items. Generally, the "field" may be either perceptual or abstract (if it refers to a set of thoughts, ideas, or feelings) from which one must perceive relevant subsets. A field-independent style allows one to distinguish parts from a whole, to concentrate on specific activities within an array of activities (like reading a book in a noisy airport or train station), or to be able to analyze separate variables without the encroachment of neighboring variables. Field-independent persons tend to be more analytical, independent, self-confident, and competititve. Research done by Naiman, Frohlich, and Stern in 1975 on English-

speaking eighth-, tenth-, and twelfth-graders learning French as a second language in Toronto indicated a positive correlation between field independence and "success" in the classroom. This seems reasonable because of the tendency to be able to focus on relevant variables, to analyze and be precise in distinguishing phonological and syntactic patterns, and to be able to master exercises, drills, and other analytical oral and written activities. It has been found, however, that both tendencies exist in most people and that most people have the ability to vary their utilization of field dependence and field independence. The challenge for the learner is to use the appropriate style for a given task. The challenge for the teacher is to understand each learner's preferred style and to encourage flexibility within the assigned tasks.

Also within the cognitive domain, another learning strategy was studied by Stephen Krashen and described as the Monitor Model Hypothesis. In this hypothesis, Krashen claims that the two separate processes of acquisition and learning operate in very different ways. Acquisition initiates utterances in a second language and is responsible for the acquirer's fluency. Learning, on the other hand, is only responsible for editing, or changing the form of an utterance once it has been produced by the acquired system. This editing process can take place before or after an utterance has been produced, but it can only take place if the following three conditions exist:

1. the speaker has time to think about and consciously use grammar rules;

2. the speaker is focused on form (i.e., is thinking about correctness); and

3. the speaker knows the rule.

In addition, Krashen classifies monitor users as follows: "over-users"--those who take too much time when it is their turn to speak and who pay more attention to planning their next utterance than to what is being said around them; "under-users"--those who are less concerned about correctness than about communicating and are, thus, unwilling to focus on form and rules before/after speaking; and finally, "optimum-users"--those who are concerned enough about correctness to focus on the grammar rule and on form but who balance this concern with attending to the conversation and reactions of those around them. The Monitor is especially useful in writing because learners can more nearly fulfill the three criteria while participating in that activity.

Within the third domain, the affective domain, there are three types of factors that influence language learning: motivational, egocentric, and sociocultural factors. The first of these, motivational factors, is probably the most important and most all-encompassing. If a learner is not sufficiently motivated to overcome the emotional and sociocultural factors, then he probably cannot be successful in learning the target language.

Researchers have identified two different kinds of motivation: instrumental and integrative. Instrumental motivation is motivation toward achieving an identified, specific goal, such as learning a target language in order to gain a promotion or new job assignment. Integrative motivation, on the other hand, provides the impetus for becoming part of a group, usually the society of the target language. Recently, researchers have admitted that these two are not necessarily mutually exclusive: for example, a Japanese student studying in the United States for a specific period (two to four years) might display instrumental motivation in that he works hard to acquire enough language to attain an academic goal (a university degree, for instance) but at the same time recognizes that attaining English is the key to his acceptance into social groups on campus. Thus, even though he may not want to acculturate completely, he may desire to integrate into the culture while he is in the United States.

Also within the affective domain are all the egocentric factors that determine a learner's level of self-confidence and self-esteem. One of these is introversion/extroversion. Whereas the introvert is withdrawn into himself and usually timid about initiating or carrying on conversations with people who are not well known to him, extroverts are usually more willing to initiate opportunities for conversing and are greater risk-takers in trying to practice the target language. Extroverts usually learn conversation-management

skills quickly so that they can keep conversations going; and they are seldom Monitor over-users, for their main objective is to communicate and to practice conversational skills. They seem to understand innately that it is in conversing, in having to draw upon one's vocabulary bank and knowledge of sentence structure--no matter how sketchy--that one gains the personal practice and the input from native speakers that will help him acquire the sounds, rhythms, and idioms of the target language.

But if he succumbs to anxiety, depression, homesickness, and feelings of rejection or if his ego is overwhelmed by perceptions of the contrasts between his native and the target culture so that he feels too different to integrate, then he will not be able to accept or acquire the language of the target culture. The astute language teacher can ease these painful periods of adjustment by using lesson material that portrays the struggles that others in similar circumstances have undergone and by constantly encouraging and pointing out similarities in human experiences, etc.

Sociocultural factors are very strong influences on learner success, for if a learner rejects the target culture and people, he will also reject the language. Research indicates that there is a positive correlation between the distance between the native and target cultures and learner rejection of the language. When cultures are somewhat similar--as in Western European cultures and the culture of the United States, integration occurs more readily and more

easily. When they are very different--as in Asian cultures and that of the United States, integration is more difficult.

In summary, some knowledge of the former identity of her students and of the general characteristics that distinguish good language learners from less successful ones will aid the volunteer ESL teacher in establishing teacher/student relationships and classroom environments that will be most conducive to learner success. The volunteer English-as-a-second language teacher has a special opportunity to assist her students not only in learning the language but also in making a satisfactory adjustment to a new culture.

## Focus on Content

Some discussion concerning content for teaching English as a Second Language has already been integrated into the previous sections. Only a few tips and brief outline of ideas will be presented here.

It is possible to consider content in five general categories: phonology, morphology, syntax, writing/rhetoric, and guided conversation. The most attention will be concentrated on phonology in the lowest level of language teaching, for it is the study of the sounds of the language. It is important that learners learn to distinguish the distinctive sounds of English. Good sources for developing lesson plans focusing on phonology are the following:

Improving Aural Comprehension by Joan Morley (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1972); English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice by Mary Finocchiaro (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964); and Helping People Learn English by Earl Stevick (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1957).

A morpheme is the smallest unit of language that carries meaning; morphology is the study of the forms of words or the system of forms in a language. Within this category comes the study of roots, prefixes, and suffixes of words as well as vocabulary itself. This category is valuable in the teaching of all levels of language, and good source material may be found in English books from the fourth-grade level through university-level texts. In addition, cross-word puzzles from newspapers and magazines and word-building articles from magazines, such as "Building Your Word Power" from The Reader's Digest, can be utilized by ESL teachers.

Syntax refers to the ways in which words are arranged to form phrases and sentences. At the lower levels of language teaching, basic word order for statements and then for questions should be stressed, and drills can be utilized to help students gain mastery of the basic sentence. At the higher levels, embedded elements (like clauses and verbals) can be introduced, and work with tenses (including modals) must continuously be pursued.

When one is assigned to teaching writing, that can mean teaching the letters of the alphabet and how to form them at the lowest levels, to teaching the organization of a formal essay at the highest levels. But there are many stages in between: sentences, filling out forms, writing personal notes and letters, and writing resumes and business letters. Volunteers should take their cues from their students and attempt to design writing lessons around those items that the students feel the greatest urgency to learn.

The final category is that of guided conversation. At beginning levels, students need to be able to communicate very basic information--names, addresses, body parts (in case they need medical attention), information concerning the exchange of money, food purchases, etc. As students progress, they need to learn conversation-management skills, how to talk on the telephone, and how to complain, compliment, negotiate, argue, persuade, accept or reject invitations, etc. There are many good materials available from several publishers that are useful in all these areas. Catalogues can be obtained from the publishers listed below:

The Alemany Press
2501 Industrial Parkway West
Hayward, CA 94545
(415) 887-7070

Cambridge University Press
32 East 57th Street
New York, NY 10022
(800) 872-7423

Delta Systems Co., Inc.
570 Rock Road Dr., Unit H
Dundee, IL 60118
(800) 323-8270

Oxford University Press
200 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10016
(212) 679-7300

Finally, as you pursue teaching English as a Second Language, the following classroom tips should be useful to you:

Classroom Tips

DO RESPECT STUDENTS AS PEOPLE WITH CONCERNS AND NEEDS.

DO TREAT EACH STUDENT AS AN INDIVIDUAL ADULT.

DO CONVERSE NORMALLY WITH STUDENTS. (They're usually missing an education, not ears.)

DO REMEMBER THAT MANY OF THEM ARE POOR, BUT HAVE PRIDE.

DO BE PATIENT. Many of the students will not do well in verbal communication because of a limited vocabulary.

DO PAY ATTENTION. The students often rely heavily on non-verbal communication--gestures and facial expressions--to get the message across.

DO BE UNDERSTANDING, BUT ASSERTIVE. Poorly educated adults often distrust authority--though respecting it.

DO BE FLEXIBLE. Adult education students, often poor, frequently have real difficulties in meeting regularly (transportation, health, child care, and other problems interfere).

DO BE ENTHUSIASTIC. A smile, a small success you show a student--these go a long way toward overcoming prior failure or frustration with the educational environment.

DO BE RELIABLE. Students will often come to depend on your classroom presence. When you're not there, they wonder why. (Did you forget them? Did they do something wrong?)

DON'T BREAK PROMISES TO STUDENTS. AND DON'T MAKE PROMISES YOU CAN'T KEEP. A small problem for you can be a personal disaster for an insecure student.

DON'T USE THE WORD '<u>TEST</u>' IN ADULT EDUCATION CLASSES. When you were in school, you may have felt concern over testing. For many of the adult education students, the idea of tests brings back memories of frustration, failure, and fear. Incoming adult students are <u>assessed</u> (often informally) to determine class placement, given <u>progress checks</u> as they go along, and are <u>never</u> given grades. In fact, normal curves (those old "bell curves") and grades do not belong in adult basic education or ESL education. Any given student may exit from a program educationally better than before--yet at a different "level" than another student.

Sincere GOOD LUCK in your venture as Volunteer ESL Teacher!

# CHAPTER V

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## Summary

In the late seventies and early eighties, opportunities to learn how to teach English as a Second Language [ESL] were very limited in Oklahoma, even for professional educators. Many refugees had come to the Sooner State as a result of the conflicts in Cuba, Korea, and Vietnam. Refugee children entered school systems, which were forced to establish bilingual and ESL programs for them. But although some adult classes were started through the public schools, there were not enough funds or personnel to provide adequate language training for all of the adults. Thus, compassionate community organizations offered to help fill the need and mustered volunteer teachers who also wanted to serve. However, because of the dearth of training programs for volunteer teachers and of specifically designed ESL materials for adult learners, volunteers turned to training and materials that had originally been developed for illiterate Americans.

Two particular programs were widely used: the Laubach Method and the training provided by Literacy Volunteers of America [LVA]. According to the final report of a study conducted with the purpose of comparing the two training systems, neither was completely satisfactory alone. The report recommended that the two be combined in some way so that the strong points of each could be retained and the weaknesses discarded.

The LVA handbook was published in 1974 but is no longer available from the address published in the book itself. The Laubach Method, product of a private business firm, continues in use without changes from the date of the report (July 1983). The end products of Laubach training seem to be clones. People using Laubach methods can make them work if they do not deviate from the prescribed procedures. A third program that was being used on military bases was developed in the forties at The University of Michigan for The Defense Language Institute. Its procedures have not been updated to incorporate the latest findings from research in language acquisition.

Consideration of all these factors resulted in this problem: could a training program for volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language be developed that would incorporate the most important results of research in language acquisition since 1955? Steps to resolve this problem were organized as follows:

1. Search the relevant literature, both published and fugitive (as far as possible).

2. Determine what the major findings of research in language acquisition have been and whether these represent major changes.

3. Investigate the impact this research has had on language teaching methodologies.

4. Determine through a survey what volunteer ESL teachers perceive their needs to be.

5. Develop training guidelines for volunteer teachers or teacher trainers that incorporate the results of steps two, three, and four.

6. Attend the national TESOL convention and discuss the need with administrators of programs using volunteer teachers across the United States.

This dissertation represents the record of discoveries made in pursuit of resolving this problem according to these steps.

## Conclusions

Several conclusions have been drawn as a result of this study. First, in the overall approach to language teaching, the focus has shifted from the teacher to the learner. This change greatly affects teachers' attitudes toward their students and toward their presentation of materials. It has also allowed investigation into the factors that affect language learning from the learner's perspective. Second, in attempting to synthesize and comprehend the results of research in language acquisition, one becomes poignantly aware that there is still much research that needs to be done, for there are many questions still unresolved. But one major outgrowth of research has been the revoking of the

idea that language is a set of habits. That idea held sway for many years and undergirded the rise of Audio-lingualism.

Additionally, one can conclude that language acquisition research--especially when combined with research in sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics--does inspire the development of new language teaching methods. Probably one of the best examples of a researcher who has based his method totally on the principles of research in language acquisition and psycholinguistics is James Asher, the developer of Total Physical Response. Another prominent researcher is Stephen Krashen; with Tracy Terrell, he has developed The Natural Approach. However, because each of these (and they are typical of most researchers, it seems) focuses sharply on only one or two of the discoveries each has made and develops a methodology designed to take advantage of the focal point, the resulting methods are quite different. More research is needed to validate current theories and support the use of current methodologies.

Another strong impression that has grown out of this study is that it is difficult to transmit the findings of researchers through the network of applied linguists all the way to the classroom teacher. There are several factors involved in this chain or system from discovery to distribution, but a major link in the chain becomes the university teacher who must assume a primary responsibility in keeping

abreast of recent findings and sharing those with teacher trainees.

And, if it is difficult for university professors to be aware of recent developments, it is even more difficult for volunteer teachers either to receive information or to comprehend the implications of that information if they have no opportunity to acquire at least a minimum of background knowledge. They should be able to be more effective teachers if they understand why they are admonished to teach in a certain way rather than if they are simply treated as robots.

Finally, it is gratifying to read more and more statements that endorse an eclectic approach to language teaching. There can never be one universal approach that is right for every learner; it is time that language teachers examine their own individual strengths as teachers and learn to use those to advantage rather than feeling bound to a particular book or method devised by someone else. But the other side of that freedom is the responsibility to examine thoughtfully the foundations and principles of new methods that emerge.

Working through this project step by step from identifying the problem to reaching the above conclusions has brought real growth to me both professionally and personally. It has provided me an opportunity to read reports of language acquisition research that I have not been able to read before, and I am surprised to find how

inexact the science is and how much still needs to be done in this area. I had not realized that the field was relatively uncultivated and that researchers are still having difficulty even in agreeing on definitions of terms. Further, because of advanced marketing techniques by book publishers, the layman's task in trying to choose the best materials to fit his needs may be more difficult today than it has been in the past.

The project has been a liberating one for me, too. I feel much more confident in planning and executing lessons for my language classes and can now understand better how to help my students turn "input" into "comprehensible input" and, as a result, reach higher levels of language proficiency more easily and quickly.

The most difficult part of designing the training program guidelines was deciding what to include and what to omit. The discipline English as a Second Language is coming of age. It encompasses a vast area, and within the last thirty years there have been individuals who have concentrated their energy, intellects, and creativity in each of these areas so that there is much sophisticated material available. I trust that my selections will prove both beneficial and interesting to the volunteers who use the guidelines.

## Recommendations

There are many tasks yet to be undertaken in developing further the discipline English as a Second Language, but there are four that need immediate attention.

First, there needs to be a reconciliation of terminology used in language acquisition research. This would be a major task but one that would benefit both researchers and those trying to use the results of that research.

Second, researchers need to explore the influence of social and cultural roles which language and phonation play as possible alternatives or supplements to existing theories used to explain adult foreign accents.

Third, the shift that is occurring from discrete point testing to integrative testing has created both challenges and opportunities. More work needs to be done in developing valid integrative tests and in helping instructors learn to use tests as teaching tools.

Finally, one of the most vital areas in the discipline at present is that of culture--especially determining the actual content that can be used for lessons focusing on culture. As Frederick Jenks points out:

> We are not experiencing a shortage of techniques and rationales for teaching culture. We have plenty of "why's," "how's," "where's," and "when's." We lack "what's." The actual information, the findings of current sociological research, and the information concerning the various cultures is and will continue to be a soft spot in the teaching of culture. This places the foreign language teacher in an unenviable position--the delivery systems are here but we have not located much that we need to deliver (Croft, 532).

It is time for ESL teachers to begin identifying the expressions, actions, events, and personalities that are unique to United States culture and collecting this data into usable forms that can be accessed by all persons who are interested in teaching or promoting it.

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# APPENDIXES

# APPENDIX A

# SURVEY AND COVER LETTERS

## SURVEY OF NEEDS/CONCERNS OF VOLUNTEER TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

**Preface:** In order for the writer/researcher to develop a resource guide to assist volunteer teachers of ESL in their efforts to teach adult, non-native-English speakers, you are being asked thoughtfully and honestly to complete this survey. In rating the following suggested concerns, please use the number five (#5) to signify the most important or intense response, one (#1) to signify the least important or intense response, and the intermediate numbers to show degrees of responses between the two extremes. You are strongly encouraged to propose under "Comments" areas of concern not listed in the survey or to suggest which of the areas represented need the most elaboration or development in the proposed guide so that it will best benefit you or others in your position. Your input will be invaluable whether you are new to the field of volunteer ESL teaching or whether you are a teacher with several years' experience.

Please return the survey by March 1 to MariLyn Beaney, Cameron University, Lawton, Oklahoma 73505. An addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation!

| | **Circle one number** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **A. TEACHER ATTITUDES** | | | | | |
| 1. I want to know what kinds of teacher attitudes create classroom climates that are most conducive, or positive, to the student's success in language learning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I desire information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work effectively for me. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I seek information about when and how most effectively to correct student errors. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| **B. WAYS LEARNERS LEARN** | | | | | |
| 1. I want to know briefly what research reveals about the language learning process. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I want to know what the characteristics of a good language learner are. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I seek to learn how to develop good language learning techniques in my students. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. I desire information on retaining students in volunteer programs. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| **C. CULTURAL CONCERNS** | | | | | |
| 1. I desire guidance on just what "teaching cultural concepts" really encompasses. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I need suggestions on how to teach culture in a volunteer program. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I seek information concerning cultural differences among my students and on how to avoid conflict among them within my class. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. I would use a suggested reading list of books discussing the cultures appropriate to my students. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

D. **LESSON OBJECTIVES, LESSON PLANNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Since I am not a trained teacher, I need information on establishing lesson objectives--that is, on how to set learning goals lesson by lesson. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I need guidance in planning a lesson and in determining how much material is sufficient, how many ways the material should be presented, and how strictly I should adhere to the lesson plan. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I want to know what some of the positive and negative factors of managing a classroom are. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

E. **TESTING FOR PLACEMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I need to know how to recognize and establish simple criteria for basic testing. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I would like to know at least some basic factors that affect test results. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I would like to see some samples of effective/efficient tests in all four basic language areas: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. I would like some information on when and why tests are given. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

F. **CURRICULUM AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I would appreciate some guidance in basic curriculum design. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. I desire information on applying curriculum design to the various language skills areas. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. I would use a list of resource materials. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

G. **COMMENTS**

CAMERON UNIVERSITY

Department of Language and Communication

2800 West Gore
Lawton, Oklahoma
73505-6377

February 16, 1988

Evelyn Craig
Rt. 1 Box 48
Depew, OK 74028

Dear Co-Worker in Christ:

You are a valuable resource person whose "input" (through your answers to the enclosed survey) would be greatly appreciated.

Some of you may remember me from the trip to the Literacy Missions Conference held at Glorieta in May, 1986. Even then I was interested in learning what the most pressing concerns of volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language were. My curiosity has increased and has led me to a dissertation topic in pursuit of a doctoral degree from Oklahoma State University. But in order to complete the dissertation, I need a significant number of responses to the survey. Thus, may I ask a favor? I know that most of you are now well-trained teachers, but would you go back in your memories to the point at which you were just beginning to learn what teaching English as a Second Language was all about and respond to the survey statements from that point in your pilgrimage? Your answers will certainly be useful to me as I seek to complete a task that I feel the Lord has led me to!

Thank you so much for your time and cooperation! A stamped, addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience in returning the survey. A quick response (before March 10) would be appreciated--as would your prayers in my behalf!

In His Service,

MariLyn Beaney

MariLyn Beaney
ESL Coordinator

MLB/srp

Enclosures (2)

February 10, 1988



Dear Program Director:

You are a valuable resource person whose input can influence the development and possible adoption of a new training manual for volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language.

In 1982, the Army Community Service Center at Ft. Sill, Oklahoma, began to address the need for English language support services to dependents of military personnel. In only five years, the number of dependents who enrolled in the program has grown from fifteen to one hundred twenty-five. There have been many challenges in establishing and continuing the English as a Second Language (ESL) program. One of the greatest of these has been providing adequate, efficient training of the volunteer teachers on whom the success of the program truly depends. Obviously, we are doing something right because the Ft. Sill program was cited as "Outstanding" during 1986.

As the ESL Coordinator and a professor at Cameron University (located near Ft. Sill), I have worked closely with Ft. Sill's Community Services Director and staff and have provided, without pay, several training workshops. Now the time seems right to standardize training for ESL volunteer teachers. Thus, I am writing an ESL Volunteer Teacher Training Manual but need two types of information. I would appreciate very much your responses to the following requests.

First, I want the manual truly to address the areas that most concern volunteer teachers. I have, therefore, devised a survey through which such teachers can indicate their concerns. Enclosed are four copies of this survey. Please feel free to make more copies if you need them. Would you distribute these to any current volunteer ESL teachers in your program or people who have been volunteer ESL teachers in the past? Second, if you have an ESL program and believe your teachers would benefit from training specifically designed to fit their needs, would you please write me a letter indicating your support for such a manual, which could be distributed to all appropriate Army centers?

Thank you very much for your assistance. I hope to receive the completed surveys by March 10 and have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience in returning them. I hope, also, to be of service to your center in the near future.

Sincerely,

Professor MariLyn Beaney
ESL Coordinator, Cameron Unviersity

MLB/srp

Enclosure (5)

# APPENDIX B

## SURVEY TOTALS

TABLE I:

CUMULATIVE TOTALS

| | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. TEACHER ATTITUDES | | | | | |
| 1. What attitudes are most conducive or positive to student's success..... | 35 | 20 | 19 | 5 | 3 |
| 2. Information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work for me..... | 52 | 20 | 9 | 0 | 1 |
| 3. When and how to correct student errors.. | 27 | 9 | 28 | 11 | 4 |
| B. WAYS LEARNERS LEARN | | | | | |
| 1. What does research reveal about language learning process..... | 20 | 19 | 29 | 10 | 3 |
| 2. What are characteristics of a good language learner..... | 13 | 20 | 28 | 8 | 6 |
| 3. How to develop good language learning techniques in my students..... | 50 | 22 | 10 | 1 | 1 |
| 4. How to retain students in volunteer program..... | 17 | 18 | 23 | 11 | 10 |
| C. CULTURAL CONCERNS | | | | | |
| 1. What does "teaching cultural concepts" encompass..... | 24 | 20 | 19 | 11 | 4 |
| 2. How do I teach culture in a volunteer program..... | 22 | 21 | 19 | 9 | 8 |
| 3. Need cultural information about my students and how to avoid conflict..... | 21 | 24 | 18 | 10 | 8 |
| 4. Would use a suggested reading list of books about culture appropriate to my students..... | 21 | 25 | 18 | 7 | 9 |
| D. LESSON OBJECTIVES, LESSON PLANNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to set learning goals lesson by lesson..... | 29 | 17 | 18 | 5 | 10 |
| 2. How much material? How to present it? Adherence to lesson plan?..... | 30 | 18 | 18 | 4 | 12 |
| 3. What are positive/negative factors of managing a classroom..... | 21 | 16 | 16 | 10 | 16 |
| E. TESTING FOR PLACEMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to establish simple criteria for basic testing..... | 26 | 18 | 21 | 8 | 8 |
| 2. Basic factors that affect test results.. | 12 | 22 | 27 | 11 | 8 |
| 3. Want to see samples of effective tests: listening, reading, writing and speaking | 34 | 27 | 8 | 9 | 2 |
| 4. Information on when and why tests are given..... | 10 | 17 | 21 | 16 | 15 |
| F. CURRICULUM AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT | | | | | |
| 1. Need guidance in basic curriculum design | 28 | 13 | 23 | 10 | 5 |
| 2. Guidance in applying curriculum design to the various language skills area..... | 22 | 21 | 24 | 6 | 5 |
| 3. Would use a list of resource materials.. | 31 | 18 | 16 | 7 | 10 |

5 = most important
4, 3, 2 = degrees of response between the two extremes
1 = least important

TABLE II:

CHURCH AFFILIATED RESPONSE TOTALS

| | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. TEACHER ATTITUDES | | | | | |
| 1. What attitudes are most conducive or positive to student's success..... | 13 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 2 |
| 2. Information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work for me..... | 17 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. When and how to correct student errors.. | 7 | 2 | 11 | 6 | 1 |
| B. WAYS LEARNERS LEARN | | | | | |
| 1. What does research reveal about language learning process..... | 5 | 7 | 13 | 3 | 0 |
| 2. What are characteristics of a good language learner..... | 3 | 9 | 9 | 5 | 2 |
| 3. How to develop good language learning techniques in my students..... | 15 | 9 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. How to retain students in volunteer program..... | 5 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 6 |
| C. CULTURAL CONCERNS | | | | | |
| 1. What does "teaching cultural concepts" encompass..... | 9 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 1 |
| 2. How do I teach culture in a volunteer program..... | 7 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 3 |
| 3. Need cultural information about my students and how to avoid conflict..... | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 3 |
| 4. Would use a suggested reading list of books about culture appropriate to my students..... | 6 | 11 | 6 | 2 | 3 |
| D. LESSON OBJECTIVES, LESSON PLANNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to set learning goals lesson by lesson..... | 12 | 3 | 10 | 2 | 2 |
| 2. How much material? How to present it? Adherence to lesson plan?..... | 11 | 6 | 9 | 0 | 4 |
| 3. What are positive/negative factors of managing a classroom..... | 7 | 4 | 9 | 3 | 5 |
| E. TESTING FOR PLACEMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to establish simple criteria for basic testing..... | 7 | 9 | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| 2. Basic factors that affect test results.. | 3 | 9 | 8 | 4 | 3 |
| 3. Want to see samples of effective tests: listening, reading, writing and speaking | 10 | 10 | 1 | 5 | 1 |
| 4. Information on when and why tests are given..... | 3 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 5 |
| F. CURRICULUM AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT | | | | | |
| 1. Need guidance in basic curriculum design | 10 | 2 | 10 | 3 | 2 |
| 2. Guidance in applying curriculum design to the various language skills area..... | 10 | 2 | 10 | 3 | 1 |
| 3. Would use a list of resource materials.. | 10 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 1 |

5 = most important
4, 3, 2 = degrees of response between the two extremes
1 = least important

TABLE III:

MILITARY RESPONSE TOTALS

| | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. TEACHER ATTITUDES | | | | | |
| 1. What attitudes are most conducive or positive to student's success..... | 19 | 11 | 11 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. Information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work for me..... | 32 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| 3. When and how to correct student errors.. | 15 | 7 | 14 | 4 | 3 |
| B. WAYS LEARNERS LEARN | | | | | |
| 1. What does research reveal about language learning process..... | 14 | 11 | 12 | 4 | 3 |
| 2. What are characteristics of a good language learner..... | 9 | 10 | 13 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. How to develop good language learning techniques in my students..... | 30 | 9 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| 4. How to retain students in volunteer program..... | 10 | 12 | 10 | 8 | 3 |
| C. CULTURAL CONCERNS | | | | | |
| 1. What does "teaching cultural concepts" encompass..... | 13 | 12 | 8 | 5 | 3 |
| 2. How do I teach culture in a volunteer program..... | 13 | 12 | 9 | 4 | 4 |
| 3. Need cultural information about my students and how to avoid conflict..... | 11 | 15 | 10 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. Would use a suggested reading list of books about culture appropriate to my students..... | 12 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 5 |
| D. LESSON OBJECTIVES, LESSON PLANNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to set learning goals lesson by lesson..... | 16 | 11 | 8 | 2 | 5 |
| 2. How much material? How to present it? Adherence to lesson plan?..... | 17 | 9 | 9 | 2 | 6 |
| 3. What are positive/negative factors of managing a classroom..... | 11 | 11 | 7 | 4 | 9 |
| E. TESTING FOR PLACEMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to establish simple criteria for basic testing..... | 19 | 7 | 12 | 3 | 3 |
| 2. Basic factors that affect test results.. | 9 | 12 | 15 | 5 | 3 |
| 3. Want to see samples of effective tests: listening, reading, writing and speaking | 21 | 15 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| 4. Information on when and why tests are given..... | 6 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 6 |
| F. CURRICULUM AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT | | | | | |
| 1. Need guidance in basic curriculum design | 17 | 10 | 9 | 4 | 3 |
| 2. Guidance in applying curriculum design to the various language skills area..... | 12 | 15 | 11 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Would use a list of resource materials.. | 18 | 10 | 8 | 1 | 5 |

5 = most important
4, 3, 2 = degrees of response between the two extremes
1 = least important

TABLE IV:

COMMUNITY RESPONSE TOTALS

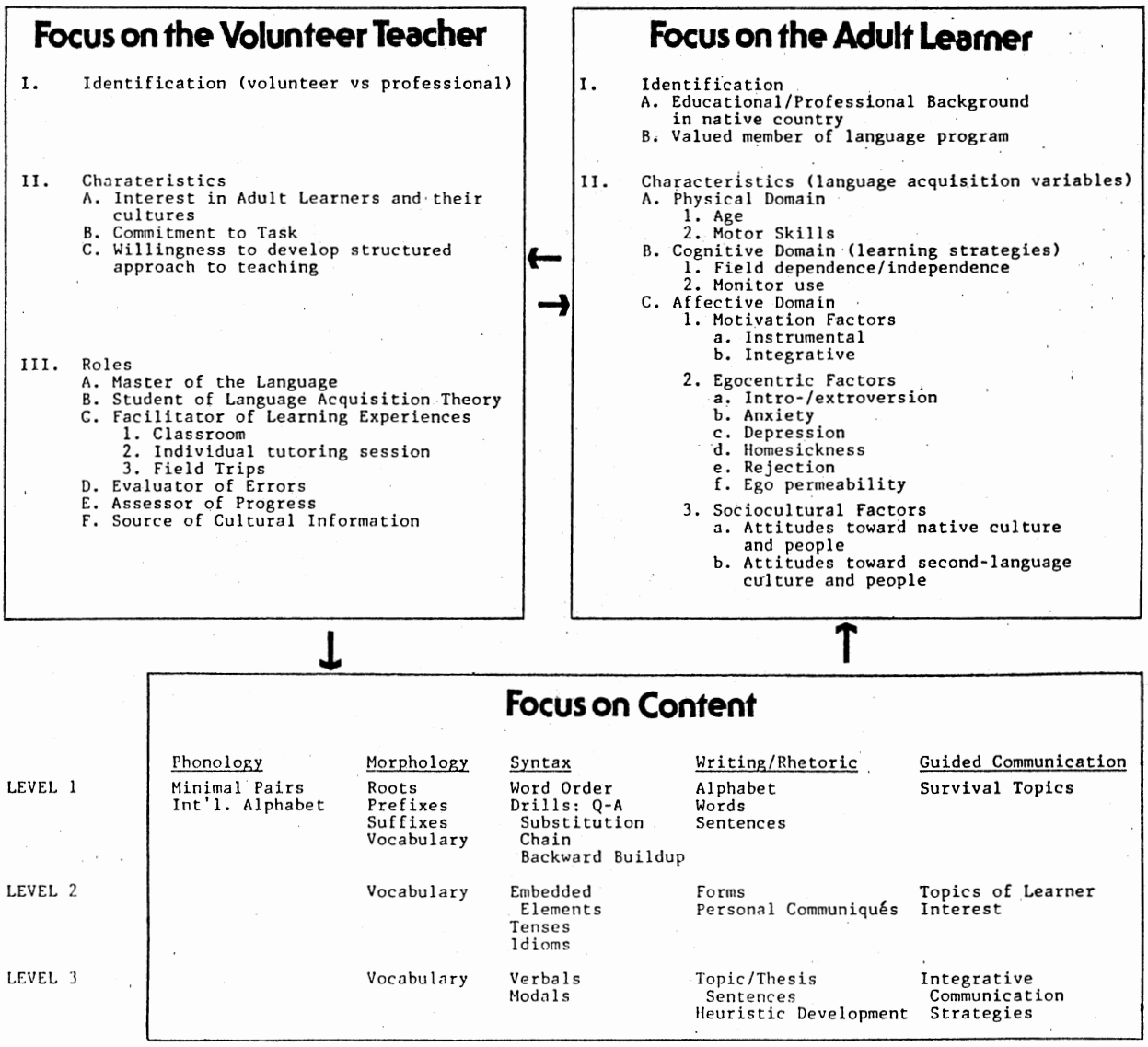
| | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. TEACHER ATTITUDES | | | | | |
| 1. What attitudes are most conducive or positive to student's success..... | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 2. Information about effective language-teaching methods and how to make them work for me..... | 3 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. When and how to correct student errors.. | 5 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| B. WAYS LEARNERS LEARN | | | | | |
| 1. What does research reveal about language learning process..... | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 0 |
| 2. What are characteristics of a good language learner..... | 1 | 1 | 6 | 1 | 0 |
| 3. How to develop good language learning techniques in my students..... | 5 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. How to retain students in volunteer program..... | 2 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 1 |
| C. CULTURAL CONCERNS | | | | | |
| 1. What does "teaching cultural concepts" encompass..... | 2 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 0 |
| 2. How do I teach culture in a volunteer program..... | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| 3. Need cultural information about my students and how to avoid conflict..... | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. Would use a suggested reading list of books about culture appropriate to my students..... | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| D. LESSON OBJECTIVES, LESSON PLANNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to set learning goals lesson by lesson..... | 1 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| 2. How much material? How to present it? Adherence to lesson plan?..... | 2 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| 3. What are positive/negative factors of managing a classroom..... | 3 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| E. TESTING FOR PLACEMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT | | | | | |
| 1. How to establish simple criteria for basic testing..... | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 |
| 2. Basic factors that affect test results.. | 0 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 3. Want to see samples of effective tests: listening, reading, writing and speaking | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 4. Information on when and why tests are given..... | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| F. CURRICULUM AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT | | | | | |
| 1. Need guidance in basic curriculum design | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 0 |
| 2. Guidance in applying curriculum design to the various language skills area..... | 0 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| 3. Would use a list of resource materials.. | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 |

5 = most important
4, 3, 2 = degrees of response between the two extremes
1 = least important

# APPENDIX C

## ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

# A Schematic for Training Volunteer Teachers of English as a Second Language



VITA

MariLyn Hale Beaney

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: ENGLISH-AS-A-SECOND LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR VOLUNTEER TEACHERS: GUIDELINES

Major Field: Curriculum and Instruction

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Fairfax, Oklahoma, May 4, 1935, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Roy Willis Hale.

Education: Graduated from Fairfax High School, Fairfax, Oklahoma in May, 1952; attended Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma, 1952-54; received Bachelor of Arts Magna Cum Laude With Honors from Oklahoma Baptist University, Shawnee, Oklahoma, in May, 1956; completed residency requirements at The University of Oklahoma and incidental requirements at The University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut, for The Master of Arts which was awarded in July, 1975; began a doctoral program through the TESOL Summer Institute conducted at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, in the summer of 1982, studied at The University of Grenoble, Grenoble, France, in the summer of 1984, and completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree primarily at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 1988.

Professional Experience: Teaching Assistant in Department of English at The University of Oklahoma, 1956-58; part-time teacher of Sophomore and Junior English at Shawnee High School, Shawnee, Oklahoma, 1959-60; Graduate Assistant at Oklahoma Baptist University, 1960-61; substitute teacher in Wilton Public Schools, Wilton, Connecticut, 1972-76; Instructor in English at Cameron University,

Lawton, Oklahoma, 1976-79; Assistant Professor at Cameron University, Lawton, Oklahoma, 1979 to present. Fulbright Lecturer, Mauritania, West Africa, 1988-89.

Professional Organizations: TESOL [Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages]; OK-TESOL [Oklahoma Chapter of TESOL]; OFLTA [Oklahoma Foreign Language Teachers' Association]; Phi Delta Kappa [Professional Fraternity in Education]; Sigma Tau Delta [Professional Fraternity in English]; Alpha Delta Kappa [Professional Women Educators' Sorority]; Mortar Board; Who's Who in American College and Universities.