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2LL + CIM = TLP: AN EQUATION THAT CAN TOTAL SUCCESS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

by Douglas M. Curran

Widely accepted among linguists and language teachers today is the fact that motivation is a key factor in the successful acquisition of a second language by the individual student. The simple equation of the Second Language Learner (2LL) plus Cultural Identity Motivation (CIM) can equal Target Language Proficiency (TLP) in many cases where the mastery of surface linguistic code does not suffice.

Some of the most often repeated sources of 2LL motivation lie in the areas of financial security and social adjustment. There is no question that these are vital and important goals to the 2LL and often add the extra fuel necessary to achieve requisite success in TLP, especially at more mature age levels. In this paper, however, I would like to explore briefly the power of *desire* rather than *obligation* to learn in the 2LL acquisition process. Mina Shaughnessy believes that in addition to motivation of a career goal, "the strongest motivations and learning energies are generated" this way.[1]

She quotes from Gardner and Lambert's research on attitudes and motivation in 2LL as they distinguish between instrumental and integrative motives for learning a language. The first, or instrumental, stems from the recognition of a practical use for the language, and the second, or integrative, from an active desire to identify with the cultural group that uses the language. One conclusion is stated as follows.

> Learners who identify with the cultural group represented by a foreign

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or second language are likely to enjoy an advantage in attempts to master that language. Their motivation to learn the language appears to stem from and be sustained by the desire to identify.[2]

Even at the youngest age levels where TL Programs can be administered to a 2LL, it has been demonstrated that the educational system has real problems plugging in to the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) of the young student. John Macnamara observes the irony in the way many of today's children involved in the 2LL experience are developing better TLP outside the classroom than inside, as he shows that motivation is the essential difference between the classroom and the street as a place in which to learn a language.

> Contrast, now, the child in the street with the child in the classroom. In the street he will not be allowed to join in the other children's play, not be allowed to use their toys, not even be treated by them as human beings unless he can make out what they say to him and make clear to them what he has to say. The reward for success and the punishment for failure is enormous. No civilized teacher can compete.[3]

This may be called *desire* in its earliest stages, a need to communicate for social survival and acceptance which eventually spawns the need for identity.

Conversely, it can be shown that there is a proportionate relationship between TLP and the lack of TL usage in conversation, for example. Morton Gordon makes reference to this with regard to English as the TL.

> You must be willing to use English frequently, because you cannot learn to speak English by practicing your own language. Non-native speakers who come to the United States to learn English as a foreign language freqently spend much of their time talking to friends who come from their own country. On campus they congregate in small ethnic groups and speak their own language. Off campus they spend most of their time speaking their own languages with family and friends. . .The non-native speaker who learns the most English when he comes to the United States is the one who is alone-he does not know anybody from his country and he cannot spend his time using his native language. He is freed to speak English, or end up never talking to anybody.[4]

It would seem that psychological readiness to learn a second language may be enhanced by the confidence that the act of mastering it is neither a disloyal or destructive one to one's own language, but in fact a claim upon a wider culture. This sociocultural approach to language learning can be greatly influenced by the parents of the 2LL; Gardner talks about the *active* and *passive* roles that a parent can play in assisting a child with a TL. On the one hand, a parent may actively and consciously encourage the student to learn the language, monitoring performance and reinforcing success. On the other hand, however, and concurrently, the same parent may be subtly, passively, even unconsciuosly, undermining the child's progress because of a negative

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attitude possessed by the parent toward the TL community or culture. This might occur through the development of doubts in the mind of the child as to the real need for the language. Poor performance in exams may even be overlooked by the parent, thus giving the child a way to rationalize and conclude perhaps that since his parents have succeeded without it, why should he really have to learn it?

In contrast to this, the idea of the integrative motive is again mentioned here as characterized by attitudes discovered in observing interaction between American students learning French along the border of Montreal and London, Canada..

> Students who emphasized that learning the second language would permit them to interact

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IMPROVING READING COMPREHENSION THROUGH PEER PERSUASION AND COMPETITION

by James E. Ford

Because improving reading skills, like reading itself, is largely an individual matter that goes on in silence, it is difficult for the teacher to determine whether any thinking accompanies the activity. Coming up with methods that will ensure that thinking will happen is even more difficult. In the reading classroom these problems are addressed primarily by having the student respond to multiple choice questions designed to test comprehension. The multiple choice format is itself one of the least demanding types. Adding to these difficulties is the fact that the lone student is pressured to concentrate and accomplish only by unfocused external course pressures and whatever internal fortitude may happen to exist as he multiple-guesses his way through the exercises.

The teammate persuausion technique is designed to ensure that the student not only does something, but that he knows *why* he is doing it as well. The technique requires only the usual classroom matter but adds reasoned discussion between two classroom members acting as teammates. There is, therefore, immediate peer involvement and pressure from the teammate, as well as the incentive to do well in competition with the other teams in the class.

Each student reads the selection silently and answers the questions--the usual procedure. Then the teammates compare answers. If a disagreement turns up, the teammates debate the rightness of their respective choices until one convinces the other. (Sometimes, when neither is at all sure about the correct answer, both will explore the possibilities together until they can agree.)

Reading and debate does not proceed haphazardly, but rather the students are taught to follow the few simple steps which follow. They are told:

1. **Be sure you understand the question first (by following the same steps, below, used to understand the reading selection itself).**
2. **Be sure you understand the lexical meanings and grammatical functions of the individual words:**
   a. Settle on the closest dictionary definition
   b. Analyze the syntax (eg., subject or object)
   c. Determine grammatical reference.
3. **Settle on the most appropriate context:**
   a. For an individual word, other words forming its sentence
   b. For a sentence, the other sentences forming its paragraph,
   c. For an idea, a more inclusive idea.
4. **Don't stop at the apparent correct answer; eliminate the wrong answers as well.**

When the teacher at last supplies the correct answers, the teams should go through the same processes until they have explained why any wrong answers were chosen.

In addition to its use in reading comprehension exercises, this technique can be easily adapted to writing drills, especially those involving grammar problems. Also, in both the reading and writing areas, it can serve as a diagnostic tool. If the teacher will listen to the teammates' discussions--or, better still, take turns acting as the teammate of each sudent—he or she will be able to pinpoint problem areas by knowing not only the student's responses but, more tellingly, the reasons the student gives for making these responses.

ESL Reading: Research and Applications

by B. Araman and B. Wiggin

The students in my course, TESL-Reading, did such excellent research Spring Semester that the graduate assistant and I felt it should be shared. We immediately thought of the TESL Reporter *and have attempted to summarize their work and the issues and implications which we discussed in the class. All of the students have received a draft of the paper and are eager to have it published.*

Bonnie Araman, University of Hawaii

Recent publications have exposed ESL teachers to Goodman's (1967) conception of reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game' and to Smith's (1973) description of the three types of cues used by readers: visual, syntactic and semantic. Reports of reading research on ESL readers and suggestions for application in ESL classrooms are needed. Recently, graduate students at the University of Hawaii conducted studies on the reading ability of immigrants and foreign students who read English as a second language. Native speaker research was shown to be applicable to ESL learners in that ESL and native speakers were similar in their use of cue systems and their knowledge of redundancy. Hall (1977) observed miscues of beginning readers which were often graphically similar, syntactically correct and/or semantically acceptable. In addition, the judgments of foreign students correlate highly (r. = .84) with those of native speakers when asked to judge "possible English words" on a list of pseudowords (Rafiq and Rafiqzad, 1977). Nevertheless, the extension of native speaker research to ESL readers also reveals interesting contrasts.

Discussion of Experiments

Koler's (1970) research with bilinguals indicates that meaning is stored in short-term memory and form is discarded. Work done by Keswick and Jennings (1977) showed that Japanese readers recall the meaning of a word rather than whether or not it was presented in English, Kanji or Romanji. Morris (1977) demonstrated the tendency of Japanese readers to use English in the oral reading of a bilingual passage in which half the words in the passage were written in Japanese. Reading approaches that stress the ability to manipulate the "form" of language with a consequent decrease in emphasis on "meaning" will therefore not be successful. While form represents the surface of language, meaning is what is retained and manipulated at a deeper psychological level. Several other experiments done at the University of Hawaii suggest ways teachers can exploit what is on the surface to help students reach the depths.

Regression

The good reader makes economical use of graphic, syntactic and lexical redundancies to insure a rapid reading avoiding the constraints of short-term memory. Meaningful "chunks" of information must be identified in order to pass on to long-term memory. The economy of the good reader disallows the word-by-word linear reading so commonly found among ESL readers. Leister and Donahue (1977) identified the phenomenon of "vocabulary blockage" in which an unkown lexical item made it impossible for ESL readers to correctly answer questions about a math problem previously referred to. The more successful readers, they hypothesized, were able to refer to the context of the problem for a correct answer and thus did not succumb to "vocabulary blockage."

In a similar study, Wright (1977) found that ESL readers, in contrast to native English readers, miss information that precedes a definitional term. When requred to regress for specific information, the non-natives failed to answer the test questions 70% of the time. Natives only failed to answer 7% of

such problems correctly.

These studies indicate that fluent reading involves not only the speed in comprehension facilitated by "guessing" but also a willingness or ability to regress for information not made explicit enough for retention. Native readers are undoubtedly more skilled at grasping implicit information on first reading. ESL students should be encouraged to regress for such information as they develop reading fluency in English.

Cloze procedure, used as a teaching rather than testing device, is excellent for aiding students in the development of useful reading strategies as it requires guessing and regression. After completing a cloze passage on their own, students can work in small groups to compare and discuss their answers. Often a student can explain to the others a concept which the teacher has been unable to convey. Stimulating questions in pre-reading discussions to which students seek answers helps them to search for meaning rather than definitions of individual words. Adamson (1977) has recommended the insertion of questions between the paragraphs of a passage which require readers to make predictions about what is to come, based on what they have read so far. If reproduction of special passages is inconvenient, the same result may be obtained by preparing such questions on required texts and having the students read portions silently and then discuss their predictions.

Redundancy

Much of the graphic, syntactic and lexical information presented to a reader is redundant. The accomplished reader needs less information from the printed page than does the problem reader. By the same token, the ESL reader generally benefits from increased syntactic and/or lexical redundancy.

Ahn (1977) discovered that Korean ESL readers are significantly aided when given an English passage with Korean nouns. Bowen (1977) found the comprehension of passages with unfamiliar words translated in Japanese directly above was better than with Japanese translations or English definitions included on a separate page.

By increasing the redundancy available to beginning ESL readers, we may be able to reduce frustration, allowing ESL students to concentrate on the task of obtaining meaning from a text before being confronted with the whole reading process including pronunciation and exact definitions of new vocabulary. Immediate glossing or replacing difficult vocabulary with the native language permits the use of passages which are of high interest to readers without burdening them with long word lists or extensive use of dictionaries. Higher level students could help with the preparation (in their language) of such supplementary passages for beginning readers.

Although punctuation in written English often provides redundant information for native speakers, Moore (1977) found that ESL readers depend on punctuation to aid them in locating clause and sentence boundaries. Native speakers were able to recognize and correct mistakes in their oral reading of a passage which had been typed without punctuation or capitalization but non-natives were not. Increasing the redundancy in ESL materials by separating phrases and clauses with extra space has been suggested (Plaister, 1968). Hirano (1977) found that low level ESL students were more able to complete the half of a cloze passage which had been "phrased" than the half which had not. Such phrasing may help students to perceive sentence structure and to establish the proper relationships between words.

Teachers can select passages of interest to their students, phrase and type them on heavy paper (laminate, if possible) and make them available to the students. Short selections kept in a box on the side of a classroom provide material for individual study whenever students have the extra time. Another useful technique is to have students mark phrases with light pencil slashes as you read aloud. Then students reread silently and the syntactic and semantic relationships of the words between the slashes are reinforced. Note that this is not intended to increase the eye-span but is a way of providing extra cues to syntax. Also, explicit information about English punctuation in a reading class might aid students in gleaning the proper cues from the visual marks.

Context

The importance of context in word identification was demonstrated in three different studies. When Adams and Decker

(1977) presented only the top half of the visual information, all of their subjects (native speakers and adult Asian immigrants) were better able to write the words in a paragraph than frequency-matched words in a list. Although native speakers performed better then non-natives on both tasks, there was a significant difference ($p. < .001$) between list and paragraph scores for both groups. Working with immigrant children in an elementary school, Togikawa (1977) found that students made significantly fewer miscues in oral reading of words in a paragraph than matched words on a list. Tabata (1977) demonstrated that knowledge of katakana symbols was not enough to permit American learners of Japanese to identify English-based loan words. Correct identification was significantly enhanced ($p. < .02$) by placing the loan words in sentences.

The implications for language teachers are many. If the task of reading a word in a list is more difficult than reading a word in context, teachers should always present vocabulary in context. This enables learners to use the syntactic and semantic cues from the surrounding sentence(s), whereas list reading restricts them to the visual information. A simple way to contextualize new vocabulary prior to the reading of a passage is to use the sentences from the actual text. This serves a dual purpose as it can be an excellent pre-reading activity wherein students are provided background for the reading: cultural implications, grammatical complexities, etc. Reading teachers should also test vocabulary in context. Two easy ways to test in context are: Write a summary or synopsis of the reading passage to be tested, using vocabulary which should have been learned but delete it and leave blanks to be filled in by the students from an accompanying word list and (2) present sentences with underlined words to be defined or put in the correct grammatical form. Both of these testing techniques encourage the development of the right kind of reading strategy in which the relationships between the words are seen to be as important as their definitions.

Speed

Two studies focused on the reading speed of non-native speakers of English. In the first, Yamanishi (1977) measured the speed of oral and silent reading of college level foreign students mainly from Asian countries. She found a significant ($p. < .01$) difference between their oral reading (105 WPM) and silent reading (163 WPM). In the second study, Wegner (1977) tested the effectiveness of "oral speeding," i.e. reading aloud while ESL readers follow silently. The subjects, students in an Adult Basic Education class, answered comprehension questions on comparable passages (SRA IIIB) without referring to the text. Oral speeding increased their reading rate significantly ($p. < .001$) from 94 WPM on regular silent reading to 148 WPM with oral speeding. There was also a slight, but insignificant, increase in comprehension.

Since speed has been shown to be important for comprehension, ESL students should be encouraged to read silently rather than orally. This can easily be done by deemphasizing oral reading in the ESL classroom. Instead of calling on one student to read orally while the others follow, simply instruct all of the students to read silently. Discussion of the ideas expressed in the text may actually be enhanced since attention is focused on meaning rather than on correct pronunciation. Secondly, when working with students whose rate of reading is too slow to be effectual, ESL teachers may aid students in increasing their reading speed by having them follow along while a passage is read aloud. Where language lab facilities are available, reading passages may be recorded by a native speaker, thus freeing the teacher to discuss content.

Conclusion

In contrasting native English readers with non-natives we have posited special problems which should be dealt with in the ESL reading class. ESL students need to recognize the rhetorical as well as syntactic structure of English prose through regression. They must learn to exploit the redundancy of written language. They should be able to use context as an aid in determining meaning. They must be able to process the language quickly, participating all the while in the great "guessing game" called reading.

EXPERIMENTS

Adams, M. and M. Decker: "The Influence of Context on the Need for Visual Information"

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PEER TEACHING IN AMERICAN SAMOA-- FORGET IT!

by Ron Grant

Teaching and learning do occur in American Samoa, but in a rather unique socio-educational setting which often puzzles educators who visit from the Mainland, and when they depart from the Territory they leave shaking their heads. What works everywhere else may not have been successful there.

Consider peer teaching. It has most often been a failure when implemented in American Samoa. This article seeks (1) to point out why peer teaching ought to be for the most part "deported" from the Territory and (2) to alert TESL educators who live in non-American cultures–Polynesian, Melanesian, Micronesian and others in and beyond the Pacific Basin–that peer teaching will probably fail unless it has cultural acceptance and precedence.

Rooted in the concept that one learns best and retains most when taught by members of one's own age-set and social class, peer teaching has been employed to advantage throughout the United States. Pedagogical literature is replete with testimonials as to how peer teaching saved the semester for many instructors, allowing individualized instruction and released time for instructors bearing heavy class loads and large class sizes.

Naturally peer teaching would be imported to a United States territory south of the equator, and it was. Work-study programs implementing peer tutors have been established and funded. "Of course peer teaching will work in Samoa!" say confident Mainland educators. "I can cite state-of-the-art literature to support it and, besides, I've used it successfully myself."

Sociologically, however, American Samoa is in a class by itself. Following are a few unique reasons why peer teaching has already failed in American Samoa and will continue to fail each time it is tried–unless somehow it can be adapted to the Samoan culture.

1. Ego conflicts between the tutor and learner are common. The learner may be in the family of a high-ranking chief and may outrank the tutor. In the *Faa Samoa* (the Samoan life style into which the Samoan student re-enters as soon as he leaves the classroom), the roles are reversed and the tutor may descend instantly in the established "pecking order" while the learner assumes ascendency to his rightful place in the *Fa'a Samoa.* Inherent in the tutor-pupil relationship is the sure, reciprocal knowledge of this fact, which hinders the efficacy of tutor-inspired learning.

2. The Samoan concept of a social pecking order also extends to relationships between the sexes. Men and boys are traditionally not taught by women and girls. Males, after all, are the sons of chiefs and, as such, manifest the active Male Principle, of which instruction (the *mana* or power of thought) is a vital part. Women, on the other hand, are embodiments of the Female Principles, the darker, reflective, passive world of intuition. It is not their business to impart the light of understanding–*malamalama*–to males of the same age-set, or even of the same generation. Moreover, if a female tutor demonstrates that she is more cognitively able than a male learner, a lingering, covert jealousy may quickly surface and become overt during interaction. This, too, will hinder teaching and learning and may likely cause the tutor a great deal of frustration with which she will not know how to cope.

3. Frequently it seems that the Samoan learner will not exert a viable effort unless the stakes are high enough. Perhaps this has to do with his self-concept which, in many cases, is decidedly Copernican and me-oriented rather than Newtonian and self-effacing. The Samoan learner will, however, deal readily with his instructor; then the stakes are high enough and he will meet the challenge and make the effort. Furthermore,

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LINGUISTIC AND NON-LINGUISTIC IMAGES IN DR. SEUSS: Or, How To Read Between The Lines

by Don L. F. Nilsen

Dr. Seuss is an innovative illustrator, innovative bordering on absurd, and that's probably what sells his books in the first place. Seuss's innovations, and logical absurdities don't stop with the art work, but extend into the writing as well, and that's probably why they're read after they're bought. A careful analysis of Dr. Seuss's books would reveal that he violates almost every logical constraint imaginable, and therein lies much of the value of his work.

His works contain tautalogies, such as [being] "small for my size," or "It's a pretty long trip, but they might and they may" (swim from Hudson Bay to McElligot's pool) *(McElligot's Pool, 1947).* He has point-of-view shifts, like "This is called teamwork. I furnish the brains. You furnish the muscles, the aches and the pains." *(I Had Trouble Getting to Solla Sollew, 1965).* And he has numerous examples of hyperbole, like "Damp! Was it damp? I grew moss on my feet!" *(I Had Trouble Getting to Solla Sollew, 1965).* In *Horton Hears a Who (1954)* he tells about a city of people that would make the Lilliputians giants by comparison,

> You've helped all us folks on this dust speck no end. You've saved all our houses our ceilings and floors. You've saved all our churches and grocery stores..."

and goes on telling about dozens and dozens of other things that most of us didn't realize were contained in a typical speck of dust.

"The Big Brag" *(Yertle The Turtle, 1958)* starts out with hyperbole. The rabbit heard a fly cough on a mountain 90 miles away. The bear smelled two hummingbird eggs 690 miles away, and could determine that the egg on the left was a little bit stale. But when the worm comes along, the hyperbole becomes so exaggerated it turns to sarcasm:

> I'd looked 'round the world and right back to this hill. And I saw on this hill, since my eyesight's so keen, The two biggest fools that have ever been seen.

Dr. Seuss's logic is not the typical run-the-mill kind that's encountered every day:

> "Then I went for some Ziffs. They're exactly like Zuffs. But the Ziffs live on cliffs and the Zuffs live on bluffs. And seeing how bluffs are exactly like cliffs, it's mighty hard telling the Zuffs from the Ziffs. But I know that the egg that I got from the bluffs, if it wasn't a Ziff's from the cliffs, was a Zuff's." (Scrambled Eggs Super, 1953)

Now how does that logic strike you? In *I Can Lick 30 Tigers Today (1969),* he excused all the tigers with curly hair from fighting. Then he excused all of those in the front row, then those whose fingernails were dirty, then those who were underweight, then those who were sleepy, and those who were hot, and finally, when only one was left, he decided to fight "after lunch." In *The Cat in the Hat Comes Back (1958),* a cat leaves a pink ring in the bathtub. He (She?) then wipes the pink on a dress, slaps the pink onto a wall, transfers it to dad's $10 shoes, wipes it onto a rug, then onto a bed. S/he then decides s/he needs help, so Cat A uses a broom to transfer it to the TV, Cat B gets it into a pan; Cat C blows it outside with a fan, but now the snow has spots. Cats D through V try to "kill" the snow spots with pop guns, bats, brooms, spray guns, tweezers, lawn mowers, fly swatters, bows and arrows and so forth, but merely make more spots. Then Cat Z comes along and destroys the pink with a new figment of his/her (or of Dr. Seuss's) imagination, called "Voom."—shades of 007.

Dr. Nilsen is chairman of the Interdepartmental Lingusitics Committee at Arizona State University. He and his wife, Alleen, co-authors of the book *Language Play* (Newbury House, 1977), have successfully used children's literature, including Dr. Seuss books, in their ESL classes.

Dr. Seuss loves to use irony in his writings. Bartholomew Cubbins was unable to remove his hat in the presence of the king *(The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins, 1938),* for when he did a new one took its place. He was taken to executed, and the executioner remarks, "...but first you've got to take off your hat." Later, when Bartholomew is no longer in danger of being executed, he takes off the 500th hat, and the last picture shows Bartholomew without a hat, and the king with his hat instead of a crown...irony again. Even more irony is built into the ending of *The King's Stilts (1939).* Earlier in the book, Droon had sent Bartholomew to live in an old deserted house with a sign that said "MEASLES." So in the end of the book, after Bartholomew had saved the kingdom and exposed Droon, it reads,

Then the king punished Droon in a most fitting way. He sent him to live by himself, with a guard of Patrol Cats, in that old deserted house with the sign that said "MEASLES." And he made him eat Nizzards three times every day. Stewed Nizzards for breakfast, cold Nizzards for lunch. Fried Nizzards for supper. And every other Thursday they served him Nizzard hash.

Dr. Seuss's books contain many tautologies, hyperboles, understatements, ironies, and illogicalities of other sorts, but what he is really the master of is the logical absurdity. In *Ten Apples up on Top (1961),* a dog, a tiger, and a lion balance ten apples on their heads while hopping, skipping, drinking, skating, walking a high wire, skipping rope, and being chased by a bear, a bunch of birds, and finally the entire town. When they become cornered they run into a wagonload of apples, and in typical Seuss absurdity, everyone in town ends up with ten apples balanced on their heads.

Dr. Seuss's absurdities are fun to contemplate. There is a walrus that can stand on one whisker on five balls *(If I Ran the Circus 1956),* a juggler that juggles 22 question marks, 44 commas and a dot *(If I Ran the Circus),* a bird named Pelf that "lays eggs that are three times as big as herself." *(Scrambled Eggs Super).* There's Poor Mr. Potter, who is the t-crosser and i-dotter at the I and T factory *(Did I Ever Tell You How Lucky You Are? 1973),* and the long-legged Kwong bird, whose legs are so long that when it lays an egg you have to catch it or it will break *(Scrambled Eggs Super).* There's the Once-ler, who sounds as if he has smallish bees up his nose *(The Lorax, 1971),* and the Chippendale Mupp which has a very long tail used for a good purpose. It bites the end of its tail when it goes to sleep, and wakes up eight hours later when it hurts *(Dr. Seuss's Sleep Book, 1962).* In *On Beyond Zebra (1955),* he tells us about a bunch of letters, and gives examples of animal names that use these special letters. Then he says that the reason we don't normally see these animals is because we normally stop at Z.

Dr. Seuss is especially preoccupied with infinity. Every time that Bartholomew Cubbins takes off a hat there's another in its place, and we don't know until the end of the book that this process has an end. He also tells about the Brothers Ba-zoo. The hair of each brother is the beard of the brother behind him *(Did I Ever Tell You How Lucky You Are?).* And he has horn-jumping deer, each one jumping through the horns of the one below it *(If I Ran the Circus, 1956).*

Though Dr. Seuss may not have the ability that his worm has to see forever, he is nevertheless, very far-sighted, and his books will be read for a very long time.

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Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

THE SILENT WAY: Another Method

by Juanita Benioni

The field of language acquisition has been and probably always will be deluged with proponents of "the Method." Everyone seems to have stumbled on THE WAY to teach English as a second language. It often happens that when a method is challenged, the challenger has a method which he feels is superior to the old one. This is a source of confusion to the individual who attempts to keep up with the latest techniques and methods in the field. As soon as one method is accepted, another springs to view with its own dogmatic followers. Clifford H. Prator says

"...no one yet has proposed a new method, fully formulated, coherent, and sufficiently in harmony with generative-transformational linguistics and cognitive psychology to win wide acceptance." (3:4)

The purpose of this paper is to describe one of the new methods known as the "Silent Way" and also to relate some feelings of instructors who have used this method in the classroom.

Caleb Gattegno, father of the Silent Way, defines the word "silent" to mean

"...a transfer of the responsibility of the use of the language from the teacher to the student." (2:13)

This is in essence what the Silent Way is all about. The burden of learning is on the student. The teacher is a model. The teacher uses fewer and fewer words, while the student uses more and more. It is also letting the student learn while the teacher stops interfering or sidetracking.

In his method, Gattegno makes a few assumptions. First, to be successful, you must start with people who already possess some sort of verbal consciousness, that is, they are already aware of language as having structure. The second assumption is that the participants must have an unconscious readiness to use words to describe a situation. The final assumption is that the participants know how to associate definite words with different circumstances. (2:14)

The Silent Way uses as few nouns as possible; in fact, for all initial efforts, only one noun is used. This means a very minimal vocabulary, stressing instead melody, natural expression, variations on one theme, and after the introduction of writing, the dictation of sentences spoken only once with natural intonation.

This method also includes the use of visual charts which are color-coded to convey phonetic equivalents of words. So, the early oral work is quickly followed by written work using the charts as visual codes.

Learners are not asked to learn a list of words by heart, as in some other methods. The memorization is replaced by a security in recognition and familiarity of the utterences as given by the teacher.

One of the biggest pluses in this method is that students are allowed to try, to make mistakes, to correct themselves and each other in order to develop their own rule for what is correct and what isn't. The teacher is still the model and the whole burden of correction is not his responsibility. Instead, the teacher is required to plan the lessons so that the student will develop a personal set of criteria for correctness.

Materials that have been developed as part of the Silent Way include:

1. **A set of colored rods of various shapes and sizes.**
2. **A set of wall charts which show functional vocabulary and additional words.**
3. **A pointer to use with the charts.**
4. **The color-coded visual charts.**
5. **Recorded tapes, drawings, pictures, and a set of worksheets.**
6. **Transparencies.**
7. **Three textbooks.**
8. **Films.**

Gattegno feels that the materials are acceptable to all students seven years of age or older and that the only adaptations need to

be made with the reading text. He also proposes that time requirements of one hour per day for one school year are sufficient for mastery of the language.

Following is a description of a typical first lesson in a foreign language. The class would be of any age group with about ten students.

1. The teacher (T.) enters, carrying only a box of colored rods.

2. T. opens the box, takes out one rod and shows it to the class while saying the word for colored rod in the language to be learned.

3. T. puts it down in silence and picks up another rod of another color and says the word for that colored rod, going through seven or eight different colored rods without asking for any response.

4. Without a sound, T. picks up a rod and mimes for the response. T. waits for the response, then gives the response.

5. T. repeats step 4 again and invariably the whole class responds.

6. T. introduces the names for four or five of the colors, repeating steps 4 and 5.

7. T. motions two students to step to the front of the room near him. T. turns to one and says in the language to be learned, "Take a blue rod."

8. T. says the utterance again while placing the student's hand on the correct rod and then making him take the rod.

9. T. repeats the utterance for the above step several times with both students.

10. T. changes places with one student and indicates the student should now utter the words first. (Someone in the class should guess. If not, T. goes back to step 7 and repeats.)

With the successful completion of step 10, the teacher has conveyed an agreement with the students that the rules of the game are being observed.

Gattegno proposes that the use of the rods help do the following:

1. Avoid the vernacular.

2. Create simple linguistic situations that are under the complete control of the teacher.

3. Passes on to the learners the responsibility for the utterance of the descriptions shown or the actions performed.

4. Lets the teacher concentrate on what the students say and how they are saying it, drawing their attention to the differences in pronunciation and flow of words.

5. Generates a serious gamelike situation in which the rules are agreed upon by giving meaning to the gestures of the teacher and his mime.

6. Permits almost from the start a switch from the lone voice of the teacher using the language to a number of voices using it.

7. Provides the support of perception and action to the intellectual guess of what the noises may mean.

8. Provides durations of spontaneous speech. (2:47)

Ten teachers who have used the Silent Way extensively in teaching Spanish, German, Cantonese, Italian, Russian, and English report that students who were taught with this method were less self-conscious, showed more pride in their progress made through trial and error, broke bad habits acquired in previous language learning attempts, and had more motivation to continue in the language. These teachers also report that the strongest interaction was among class members rather than between the class and the teacher. (2:98)

My first introduction to the Silent Way was very casual and quite recent. In April, 1977, I participated in the annual TESOL convention in Florida. While there I met many ESL instructors from various parts of the world. The name Gattegno and the Silent Way were mentioned several times. The vague descriptions I received of both were that the former was an aged Egyptian and the latter mostly focused on the use of cuisinere rods, which only led to more confusion as I thought those rods were used solely in math.

Research into both Gattegno and his Silent Way has helped me to understand that the Silent Way is another good ESL method, but we must agree with Prator that it is not the answer to all language learning problems. It is interesting, it is novel, and it sounds like fun. I think I would be willing to try it, but I am reluctant to agree that it is the only method.

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Summer ESL

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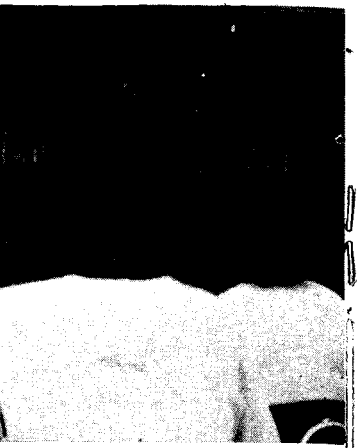

ENGLISH THROUGH CONTINUING EDUCATION AT BYU--HAWAII

by Lynn Henrichsen with photos by David Nesbit

In addition to the regular TESL and ELI programs at BYU–Hawaii Campus, a number of English as a Second Language teaching programs have been successfully carried out recently under the direction of Kenneth J. Orton, chairman of the Divison of Continuing Education.

Summer ESL

During the months of July and August, eleven academic groups from Japan visited the Hawaii campus in the second annual summer ESL program sponsored by Continuing Education. Staying from thirteen to twenty-nine days, the students, grouped into twenty different classes, received from fifteen to forty-five hours of English instruction taught by fifteen different instructors under the direction of Lynn E. Henrichsen, instructional coordinator. In addition, students received instruction on campus in American and Polynesian cultures. A highlight of the program for many students was a special home-stay program in which students spent from two days to several weeks living with American families in various communities on Oahu.

Year-Round ESL

Currently on campus is a pilot group of fourteen students receiving intensive ESL instruction under the guidance of Betty Crethar. These Japanese students are here for a variety of purposes, but all are benefitting from the nearly complete linguistic and cultural immersion the program offers. Other groups are expected during the winter semester (January to April) and the spring term (May and June).

ESOL Educators

For three days (June 30 to July 2), a group of ESOL educators from the Culture Institute of the East-West Center visited the campus and attended a special workshop in ESL methods and materials conducted by Dr. Alice C. Pack. The fourteen participants represented nearly as many native lands: Burma, Fiji, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Korea, Nepal, the Philippines, the Republic of China, Sri Lanka, and Thailand.

BUT THEY'RE NOT MOTIVATED

by Esther A. Cup Choy

When teachers gather to discuss their profession, the deepest groans are always reserved for the problem of motivation. This is as true in TESOL classes as any other, but some aspects of the problem appear to be peculiar to foreign language classes. The magnitude of the problem may be seen in Leon Jakobovit's breakdown of factors important to success in foreign language learning. He suggests the following percentages: aptitude–33%; intelligence–20%; other factors–14%; perseverance or motivation–33%. (5). One third of a student's chance for success in learning a foreign language depends upon his motivation–as teachers have intuitively felt, motivation is a key factor.

One of the peculiarities of language learning which makes motivation a particularly difficult problem, is the fact that language is a personal matter. "It involves the personal activity of speaking or writing. This is an act of behavior in public and the same possibilities of shyness, self-consciousness and humiliation are present as they are in any appearance before an audience...the failure to use a personal skill in public leads not only to disappointment on the part of pupil and teacher alike, but, because it is so personal a matter, it may lead to a sense of humiliation and frustration."(4).

Earl Stevick, in discussing this problem, offers the term "lathophobic aphasis" which he defines as "an unwillingness to speak for fear of making a mistake." (1). We all certainly have seen this syndrome in our students and even in ourselves.

Another problem in foreign language motivation is related to feelings of alienation on the part of the learner. "So long as he (the student) is able to interact with people whose relationships and friendships he values, there is little incentive for learning the language of the new community." (1). Hence a student living within his own language community will have much less motivation to master a second language than one who is placed in a setting where his only means of communicating and relating to others depends upon his mastery of a new tongue.

In fact, students who do begin to master a second language encounter special problems as detailed by Lambert. "...the more proficient one becomes in a second language the more he may find his place in his original membership group is modified at the same time as the other linguistic-cultural group becomes something more than a reference group to him. It may, in fact, become a second membership group for him. Depending upon the compatibility of the two cultures, he may experience feelings of chagrin or regret as he loses ties in one group, mixed with a fearful anticipation of entering a relatively new group. The concept of 'anomie' first proposed by Duckhein...refers to the feelings of social uncertainty or dissatisfaction which sometimes characterize not only the bilingual but also the serious student of a second language." (9). As a result the learner may have real ambivalence about learning the new language. His relationships with those who speak it must make him want to identify with them and be willing to take on very subtle aspects of their behavior such as their language and even their style of speech. This is tantamount to asking a native of Boston and another from San Antonio to exchange their distinctive ways of speaking. We can easily see how this would create a threatening loss of identity to staunch natives of those two cities, and from this perhaps better understand the problem for some of our students.

On the other hand, Lambert cites studies which show that " . . . students with an integrative disposition to learn French had parents who are also integrative and sympathetic to the French community." The high motivation of these students to master a foreign language apparently "stems from a family-wide attitudinal disposition." (9).

Unfortunately, we have no control over family attitudes toward other cultures and languages, so what can a teacher do about student motivation? First, we should inquire what the student's concept of a good language teacher is. Girard's research indicates some students believe a good teacher is one who offers a good model, especially in the spoken language. He/she is a good technician of language teaching and a good psychologist who is aware of individual problems, capable of coping with them and of creating "an atmosphere of mutual confidence and sympathy in the teacher-class relationship." (5).

In creating this atmosphere conducive to learning, a teacher's main concerns are need to gain the students' attention and maintain and direct their interest. Mugglestone feels that social needs for acceptance and dominance and achievement or academic needs are secondary motivators for students. The primary motivator, the one most available to be aroused, is curiosity. It is innate and universal although in different degrees. According to Mugglestone, curiosity finds expression in three ways. 1) There is a need for environmental conditions that afford variety, illustrated by studies of sensory deprivation. 2) There is a need for physical activity, as shown by the success of learning by doing. 3) There is a need to be mentally alert, demonstrated by the studies of cognitive psychologists. (10). The implications of these three needs are worthy of investigation.

A wealth of physical resources are available to the language classroom. A teacher must be careful not to overwhelm or confuse students with too much novelty, and conversely, not bore students with overuse of one aid. Materials must be culturally authentic in order to be of value. The problem of organization deals with both the materials and the people in the classroom. Selection and sequencing of materials must be done carefully, utilizing meaningful examples and realistic situations, remembering always that today's learning provides the base for future learning. Organization of students implies flexibility of grouping: cooperative groups; competing groups; co-acting groups working independently of each other on the same assignment; large groups; committees; dyads. The available combinations are many, and should be varied in such a way as to provide for successful learning situations for the maximum number of students. The key to organizational success is to make achievement possible for all students.

Provision of feedback is another factor of classroom organization and in this it is particularly important to be aware of cultural differences which might lead to misinterpretation. Gestures, facial expressions, and tone of voice may all mean different things to different cultures, so a teacher needs to be aware of student responses to them. He/she also needs to investigate whether conventional marks and grades are good motivators for the class of students under consideration.

In considering language learning activities, the teacher needs to remember that distributed or spaced practice is less boring and more reinforcing for drill work. A high tolerance of errors in spontaneous communication will encourage further communication. It is possible for the teacher to offer good models without pouncing on every error a hesitant student may make. A. Guy Hill says in his discussion of conversational language classes, "What is said is not particularly important, 'making a loud noise in English' is important." (6). According to Hill, a conversation class is not a class in which anything new is taught except perhaps incidentally. Its prime aims are practice and self confidence.

Mugglestone suggests working from role playing and with stimulating problems in conversation classes. For example, ask the student to "imagine that you are walking down a dark street at 2 a.m. with a suitcase filled with jewelry and a gun. A policeman stops you, asks you to unlock the case and looks inside it. He asks you what's going on. What would you say?"

"Heads–it's dynamism, tails–it's insensitivity" is Doug Case's warning to teachers not to get so involved in their lesson plans. They may confuse pace with speed and leave their students behind them, panting and confused. They may rush to jump on student mistakes, thus stifling expression. They may push for student participation until it becomes pointless repetition. Such overvaluing of technique leads to acquiring teaching skills while disregarding student needs.

A possible antidote to this problem is suggested by Antier who recommends pretesting students and asking them to help set objectives for the semster or year. (2).
A foreign language in its entirety may be overwhelming, but setting short-range as well as long-range goals reduces it to a digestible package.

Cultures which define the student role as that of listener, and the teacher's as that of authority, may inhibit conversational exchanges in the classroom. Guy Hill suggests reorganizing classroom seating in order to help overcome this. By seating the teacher within a circle of students, the pattern may be broken sufficiently to make it easier for students to speak out. He also suggests brief fluency drills before free conversation in order to loosen student tongues as well as help form good speech habits through practice of correct patterns. By changing the expectations of the students through more democratic seating and using warming-up exercises we may be able to break through to greater motivation to participate. He also urges choosing subjects students could talk about easily in their own language and allowing them some preparation time to think about the topic by announcing it several days ahead of the actual discussion time. (6).

In discussing the difficulties of teaching reading to both students with foreign language backgrounds and those with non-standard English backgrounds, John B. King states: "The whole process of wholesome personality development and of thinking, as an individual and as a member of a group, is nothing more than communication within one's self and with others. I view reading as the culmination, the outcome, the end-product of this dual process of communication–the individual with himself and the individual with others . . . " "We've failed . . . because they hear one language and we teach them to read another." (8). King urges that students be taught listening, speaking, thinking and writing skills as a basis for reading success. He believes that "the reading act is a simulated conversation between the writer, who is the absent speaker, and the reader, who is listening with his eyes." "To try to teach a child to read a third language which he neither understands nor speaks is wasteful of the best efforts of, and inevitably harmful to, both the learner and the teacher." (8). This may explain the frustration of many of our students who speak and think in non-standard English but are expected to read in standard English.

How can there be motivation if the student is frustrated, overwhelmed, unsuccessful or receiving misunderstood feedback? How can a student be expected to be excited about learning, if the teacher is more interested in the material, the techniques or the lesson plan than in the student? As Antier says, "a person who cannot learn, cannot teach" (2) and the first learning a teacher must do is about himself/herself. Granted that students bring varying degrees of curiosity into a classroom and that they do not all share to an equal degree a receptive attitude toward learning a second language, still, as Girard says, the "teacher has influence to the extent to which he is responsive to all factors involved." (5). There will always be many good rationalizations for lack of student motivation, but the one area we have fully under our control as teachers is oursleves. We need to be willing to analyze what we are doing and how we are doing it in the classroom. We need to really know our students. Then, most importantly, we must be willing to change ourselves if our students are not succeeding.

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(continued on page 19)

THE TESL TEACHER AND ENGLISH SUFFIXES

by Muhammed Ali Al-Khuli

In teaching English as a foreign or second language, suffixes should receive special attention on the part of teacher and learners, particularly in advanced TESL or TEFL stages. The reasons for this special attention to suffixes are several:

1. Suffixes frequently appear at the end of English words. In fact, the words that end with suffixes are about 37% of all words, according to the writer's analysis of some samples of written English. If we exclude function or grammatical words (such as conjunctions, prepositions, and auxiliaries) because of their usual static form, the percentage of words with suffixes goes up to 56% of all content words. Of course, these percentages do fluctuate depending on the nature of the analyzed material.

2. Some of these suffixes mark the morphological class of the root word. Such suffixes are called inflectional suffixes, which are quite limited in number: the plurality suffix and the possessive suffix that mark the noun class; the past, past participle and -ing suffixes that mark the verb class; the comparative and superlative suffixes that mark the adjective class.

3. Most suffixes are used to derive a word from another and usually with a change in class. Such suffixes are called derivative ones. As a matter of fact, 14% of the words in analyzed texts end with inflectional suffixes and 23% of the words end with derivational suffixes. In other words, 38% of the used suffixes are inflectional whereas 62% of them are derivational.

4. As a result of the high frequency of suffixes, learners' mistakes related to them are also frequent. Such mistakes could be in spelling, pronunciation, and understanding meaning or function. If the teacher emphasizes suffixes, such mistakes can be decreased.

5. Learners are to be taught how to derive several words from one word by adding suitable derivational suffixes. This will enrich the learners' vocabulary and develop their ability to comprehend unfamiliar words derived from familiar ones.

Therefore, it may be helpful and useful to list the most common derivational suffixes in English: (1)

1. *-able (-ible)* = can be, having the quality of
   V + able = Adj
   N + ible
   Examples: eat*able*, comfort*able*, digest*ible*.
2. *-al* = related to.
   N + al = Adj
   Examples: nation*al*, natur*al*, condition*al*.
3. *-an* = related to.
   N + a (n) = Adj
   N
   Examples: Afric*an*, Americ*an*, Syri*an*.
4. *-ence (-ance)* = act of.
   V + ence = N
   ance
   Examples: annoy*ance*, disturb*ance*, depend*ence*.
5. *-ant (-ent)* = a person who does V, tending to.
   V + ant = N
   ent = Adj
   Examples: applic*ant*, presid*ent*, persist*ent*.
6. *-ary (ory)* = tending to, a thing or person that does V.
   V + ary = Adj
   ory N
   Examples: explanat*ory*, supplement*ary*, bound*ary*.
7. *-dom* = state of being, land of.
   Adj + dom = N
   N
   Examples: freed*om*, martyr*dom*, king*dom*.
8. *-ed* = having the quality of.
   N + (e)d = Adj
   Examples: ag*ed*, lighthear*ted*, cold-blood*ed*.

1. V = verb Adj = adjective N = noun Adv = adverb Prep = preposition

9. *-en* = give N to, make.
N + en = V
Adj
Examples: strengthen, widen, blacken.

10. *-en* = made of.
N + en = Adj
Examples: wooden, golden, woollen.

11. *-er* = a person who does or belongs to.
V + er = N
N or
Examples: learner, teacher, villager.

12. *-ery* = place for, class of, state of being.
N + ery = N
Examples: refinery, jewelery, slavery.

13. *-ese* = inhabitant or language of.
N + ese = N
Adj
Examples: Chinese, Japanese.

14. *-ess* = a female of.
N + ess = N
Examples: lioness, tigress, poetess.

15. *-ful* = full of, a quantity that fills, who does.
N + ful = Adj
V N
Examples: hopeful, handful, forgetful.

16. *-hood* = time or group of.
N + hood = N
Examples: manhood, childhood, neighborhood.

17. *-ic (-ical)* = having the qualities of.
N + ic = Adj
Examples: geometrical, historical, artistic.

18. *-ify* = make or become.
N + ify = V
Adj
Examples: glorify, solidify, simplify.

19. *-ing* = action of.
V + ing = Adj
N
Examples: speaking, running, amusing.

20. *-ish* = somewhat, rather, like.
N + ish = Adj
Adj
Examples: childish, greenish, foolish.

21. *-ism* = quality, doctrine.
N + ism = N
Adj
Examples: realism, heroism, socialism.

22. *-ist* = a specialist in, a player of.
N + ist = N
Examples: biologist, linguist, pianist.

23. *-itis* = inflammation in.
N + itis = N
Examples: appendicitis, bronchitis.

24. *-ize* = make or become.
N + ize = V
Adj
Examples: harmonize, idealize, nationalize. nationalize.

25. *-less* = without, that does not.
N + less = Adj
N + less = Adj V
V
Examples: useless, harmless, ceaseless.

26. *-ly* = in the manner of being, every, of.
Adj + ly = Adj
N Adj
Examples: weekly, quickly, brotherly.

27. *-ment* = act or state of being.
V + ment = N
Examples: enjoyment, movement, improvement.

28. *-most* = to make a superlative adjective..
Prep + most = Adj
N
Examples: inmost, topmost.

29. *-ness* = condition of being.
Adj + ness = N
Examples: whiteness, smallness, largeness.

30. *-ous* = having.
N + ous = Adj
Examples: courageous, advantageous, dangerous.

31. *-ship* = state of being, rank, skill.
N + ship = N
Examples: friendship, governorship, horsemanship.

32. *-tion (-ssion)* = act or condition of.
V + tion = N
ssion
Examples: dictation, admission, translation.

33. *-y* = like, having, covered with.
N + y = Adj
Examples: funny, windy, muddy.

34. *-wise* = in the direction of.
N + wise = Adj
Examples: clock*wise*, coast*wise*.

35. *-ty (-ety, -ity)* = state of being.
Adj + ty = N
Examples: regular*ity*, probabil*ity*, local*ity*.

36. *-tude* = state of being, distance of.
Adj + tude = N
Examples: grat*itude*, alt*itude*, long*itude*.

As has been shown in the previous thirty-six suffixes, each one has one meaning or more. Besides, each suffix is added to a certain class or classes of words to derive a new word that usually belongs to a different class.

If the teacher can bring these suffixes to the students' attention in the right manner and in the proper doses, this will enhance their ability to build up new words from familiar ones. Besides, they will be abler to correctly guess the meanings of unfamiliar words derived from familiar stems. Further, comprehension of word meaning may occur not by addition only, but by subtraction also: one can guess the meaning of "activity" if one knows "active" and one can guess the meaning of "active" if one knows "activity."

In other words, teaching suffixes to EFL or ESL learners does the following:

1. It summarizes some facts about word formation and about what goes with what.
2. It makes fairly regular learning material.
3. It decreases the learning load of the TESL student by showing the relations among words of a common stem.
4. It develops the TESL learner's comprehension ability through developing the ability of correct inference.
5. It increases the learner's reading speed as a result of increase of comprehension ability.
6. It gives learners more insight into the nature of ESL by showing them that a suffix is a unit with its own meaning and function.

But They're Not Motivated

(continued from page 16)

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Peer Teaching— Forget It!

(continued from page 7)

he achieves satisfaction when he is directly taught by the instructor, even when he is chastised, for he knows that he is getting the attention he wants and believes that he deserves. It often appears that the Samoan learner learns as an effect of the attention he receives form one whom he values as a mentor in the Samoan tradition.

Based on the above, this article recommends that those who would employ peer teaching in American Samoa and in non-American cultures anywhere be cautious, intelligent and informed about how they go about it. Anguish and frustration may result for the tutor and no learning gain may well be the outcome for the pupil.

2LL + CIM = TLP

(continued from page 2)

> with the French-speaking community, tended to have a positive attitude toward the French, or a favorable orientation toward outgroups in general. Furthermore, they were more motivated to learn French in that they worked harder. Such students were more successful in acquiring French. Because the major characteristics of this configuration appeared to describe an interest in acquiring French for purposes of integrating with the French-speaking community, we referred to this configuration as an integrative motive[5]

This concept then implies that success in 2L acquisition depends upon a desire to be like valued members of the "other" language community. Integratively-oriented students tended to come from homes where the parents were also possessed of an integrative orientation and where the parents had definite pro-TL attitudes. In the above example, it is possible that, because of their own favorable attitudes toward the French-Canadian community, the parents of the integratively-oriented students were willing to ascribe a number of French friends to their children, while parents of strictly instrumentally-oriented students with their comparatively unfavorable attitudes would not admit that their children associated with many French-Canadian children. In any case, the relationship between parent's attitudes and student orientations suggests that to some extent the students TLP will be dependent upon attitudes toward the other linguistict group engendered in the home.

Another study by Tucker and Lambert mentions the gradual decline in required foreign language courses in school, showing that those who elect to take such courses are now motivated by a desire to learn about other peoples and their way of life, with an accompanying desire to be able to interact with these people. They also focus on the influence of the teacher, suggesting that one "who is insensitive to local varieties of important world languages may show her personal bias by denigrating the local variety actually used by certain of her pupils."[6] Their findings also suggest that

> Teachers should start at very early age levels to present sympathetic culture contrasts that lead to recognition of the basic similarities of mankind. Furthermore, a FL teacher will likely be more successful in her work if she can capitalize on the feelings of today's young people who no longer feel that their own society (be it France, the U.S., or Russia or China) is the best of all possible worlds and who are instead searching for a better world, openly receptive to foreign peoples and their ideas.[7]

One final study is worth mentioning here. E. F. O'Doherty, in considering the social factors that affect SL policies states:

> It follows that the closer the identification with the culture of the second language, the easier will be the learning process. The second language must be given functional significance in the child's world before it can truly function as a language. Without this, it may remain at the level of a mere coding and decoding instrument. In order to give it functional significance, a 'reward' mechanism directly related to language must be built in. Entertainment, reading, television programs, and the other forms of play activity must be viable in the child's world if a language is to function for the child *as a language.*[8]

Here he shows that the child learns a second language largely through the process of identification. And identification is enhanced by a favorable attitude toward the group whose language one is learning.

A personal observation seems warranted at this point. Although CIM is heavily stressed

herein as a positive factor in acquiring a 2L, it stands to reason that complete cultural change by 2LL to the TL culture is not the goal nor should it be encouraged. Cultural conflict may be the natural and unavoidable outgrowth of bilingualism, or, as I mentioned earlier, bilingualism may in reality be the path to laying claim to a wider world culture.

I sincerely believe that this little equation, 2LL + CIM = TLP, or some modification thereof, can have positive results for the 2L teacher. And as the teacher prepares materials and methods to teach the TL, I think that success can be enhanced by a pervasive attitude of cultural sensitivity on the part of the teacher which will allow the greatest identification with the TL culture with the least threat to the culture of the 2LL.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Mina P. Shaughnessy, *Errors and Expectations,* p. 124.

[2]R.C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert, "Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning," in *Errors and Expectations,* p. 130.

[3]John Macnamara, "The Cognitive Strategies of Language Learning" in John W. Oller, Jr. and Jack C. Richards, eds. *Focus on the Learner, Pragmatic Perspectives for the Language Teacher,* p. 59.

[4]Morton J. Gordon, *Speech Improvement,* p. 12.

[5]R. C. Gardner, "Attitudes and Motivation: Their Role in Second Language Acquisition," in *Focus on the Learner, p. 237.*

[6]G. R. Tucker and W. E. Lambert, "Sociocultural Aspects of Language Study," in *Focus on the Learner,* p. 248.

[7]*Ibid.*

[8]E. F. O'Doherty, "Social Factors and Second Language Policies," in *Focus on the Learner,* p. 256.

ESL Reading

(continued from page 6)

Ahn, H.: "Native Lexicon in English Reading"
Bowen, D.: "Gimme the Definition Quick"
Hall, S.: "Some Preliminary Analysis of ESL Readers' Miscues"
Hirano, J. : "Phrasing: Effect on Close Test Scores"
Keswick, E. and H. Jennings: "Short-term memory storage and recall"
Leister, J. and T. Donahue: "Vocabulary Blockage"
Moore, J. : "A Study of the Effect of Punctuation on Reading Comprehension Among Native and Non-native Speakers of English"
Morris, L.: "Reading in Two Languages at Once"
Rafiq, S. and K. Rafiqzad: "Would you recognize a word if you saw one?"
Tabata, M.: "Context and the Teaching of Katakana"
Togikawa, C.: "Is a word in a list just a word?"
Wegner, J.: "Oral Speeding"
Wright, C.: "Is Regression Bad?"
Yamanishi, C.: "Quiet: Silent Reading"

All of the above were presented at the ESL Symposium on Reading a Second Language, May 6, 1977, at the University of Hawaii.

REFERENCES

Adamson, D. "Prediction and Explanation" *ESPMENA* No. 7, Summer 1977.
Goodman, K. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game" *Journal of the Reading Specialist* May 1967.
Kolers, P. "Three Stages of Reading" from *Basic Studies on Reading* H. Levin and J. Williams, Eds. Basic Books, Inc. 1970.
Plaister, T. "Reading Instruction for College Level Foreign Students" *TESOL Quarterly,* 2 September, 1968.
Smith, F. *Psycholinguistics and Reading* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

SECOND ANNUAL COMPOSITION WORKSHOP

Sponsored by

The Division of Communication and Language Arts
BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY--HAWAII CAMPUS
and
THE HAWAII COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The theme for this year's workshop is **"Practical Answers to Practical Problems."** Each workshop presenter will be addressing his or her self to a specific challenge facing the teacher of composition. The sessions will be fairly long (about two hours each), allowing the presenter to give those who attend "hands on" experience with the practical answers offered during that particular meeting.

PROGRAM

FEBRUARY 17, 1977 (Friday)

8:00 a.m. – 9:00 a.m. REGISTRATION

9:30 a.m. – 10:30 a.m. GROUP ONE

Presenter: Dr. Richard Nakamura, Program Specialist, Hawaii Department of Education. Dr. Nakamura has been instrumental in the development of performance tests in the secondary Language Arts Programs in Hawaii high schools. Results of these tests are compared to course objectives, and are then used to identify areas for curriculum improvement.

GROUP TWO

Presenter: Dr. Gerald Dykstra, Professor of English, University of Hawaii. Dr. Dykstra, whose *Ananse Tales* pioneered the "Guided Composition" Program, will present specific methods for reaching various students in one composition class.

GROUP THREE

Presenter: Mr. Larry Smith, Research Associate, East-West Culture Learning Institute, Honolulu. Mr. Smith will present his work on the role of English as an International Auxiliary Language (EIAL) and its impact on the teaching of composition to non-native speakers of English.

10:30 a.m. – 11:00 a.m. REFRESHMENTS

11:00 a.m. – 12:00 Noon CONTINUATION OF WORKSHOPS ONE AND TWO

GROUP THREE

Presenters: Virginia Berk, Hector Nevarez, and Curtis W. Hayes. Ms. Berk and Mr. Nevarez work at the Defense Language Institute in San Antonio, Texas. Mr. Hayes is the Director of the English as a Second Language Program at the University of Texas at San Antonio. They will present the findings of their empirical study on the detrimental effects of non-standard handwriting in the compositions of ESL students.

12:15 p.m. – 2:15 p.m. LUNCHEON (Buffet)

Speaker: Dr. Ross Winterowd, Professor of English and Director of Freshman Composition, University of Southern California, will present his original research and study on the psychological reasons for the power of sentence combining as a device for teaching composition.

2:30 p.m. – 4:30 p.m. GROUP ONE

Presenter: Dr. Gregory Larkin, Assistant Professor of English, BYU--Hawaii Campus. Dr. Larkin will use video tapes of various classroom sessions, 1) to distinguish some particular elements that are usually found in effective composition teaching, and 2) to show how video taping may be used to evaluate teachers and to help teachers evaluate themselves.

GROUP TWO

Presenter: Dr. Alice Pack, Professor of English, BYU--Hawaii Campus. Dr. Pack, Director of BYU's Language Lab, will direct a detailed tour of the lab, showing the exact programs and options that are available for a well-equipped lab.

5:30 p.m. – 7:30 p.m. DINNER (Buffet)--POLYNESIAN CULTURAL CENTER

7:45 p.m. – 9:15 p.m. RESERVED SEATS FOR POLYNESIAN CULTURAL CENTER EVENING SHOW: "INVITATION TO PARADISE"

FEBRUARY 18, 1977 (Saturday)

9:30 a.m. – 10:30 a.m. GROUP ONE

Presenter: Dr. Sidney Jenson, Associate Professor of English, BYU--Hawaii Campus. Dr. Jenson will discuss and illustrate various grading techniques, utilizing a large number of sample essays which participants can grade along with him.

GROUP TWO

Presenter: Dr. Frank Otto, Professor of Linguistics, BYU Provo Campus. Dr. Otto will present methods of analyzing a series of compositions to evaluate specific areas of improvement, with primary emphasis on measuring devices designed to test skills other than simple recall.

10:30 a.m. – 11:00 a.m. REFRESHMENTS

11:00 a.m. – 12:00 Noon CONTINUATION OF WORKSHOPS

12:15 p.m. – 2:15 p.m. LUNCHEON (Buffet)

Speakers: Dr. Dan W. Andersen, Executive Vice President BYU--Hawaii Campus and Dr. Jay Fox, Dean of BYU--Hawaii. Dr. Andersen and Dr. Fox, who administrate a school with a student body of about 70% non-native speakers of English, will discuss the special challenges and opportunities of teaching composition to students from many cultural and language backgrounds.

2:30 p.m. – 4:30 p.m. CLOSING SESSION

PRACTICAL CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS:

An Inservice Teacher Training Program

Speaker: Ross Winterowd

Saturday night, Sunday and Monday are open to discover Hawaii in any way that suits your inclination. We can offer various package tours that include trips to Waikiki, Pearl Harbor, Sunset Beach, or even other islands. Or, we can arrange a car and you do your own discovering.

PLEASE SEND REGISTRATION MATERIALS for the second annual "Year of Composition" workshop.

If you would also like detailed information on the second two days – the Hawaiian Winter Vacation, please check the box below. ☐

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