TELEA: TEACHING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TO EAST ASIANS

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Elementary Education with Specialization in Reading Improvement

by

La Vonne A. Beyer

May, 1974

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The project of LaVonne A. Beyer is approved:

California State University, Northridge
May, 1974
DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to my husband, Gerald, for his encouragement and love, and to my children, Gregg, Douglas, and Jodie for their unfailing support.

L. A. B.
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L. A. B.
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ABSTRACT

TELEA: TEACHING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TO EAST ASIANS

by

LaVonne A. Beyer

Master of Arts in Elementary Education With Specialization in Reading Improvement

May, 1974

The purpose of the project was to present a case for the development of a more effective, modified, multi-faceted approach to teach English to students from Taiwan, Hongkong, Japan, and Korea, including the development of a set of components for curriculum design to be used in conjunction with this approach.

Review of literature and approaches to teaching English-as-a-second language and the general concepts and strategies of ESL and those being used for East Asian students were discussed. Comparisons were made of the language and cultural backgrounds of these East Asian students.

The experiences of the author as a teacher to speakers of Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and American English were reviewed. A field trip to the Far East by the author was undertaken to validate observations and experiments used in the development of a new technique to teach East Asian students.

Through comparisons of linguistic differences between English and Chinese, the parent language of East Asian languages,
the components of the instructional program, Teaching of the English Language to East Asians, were developed, utilizing the receptive and productive skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

A more complete professional preparation program for teachers of East Asians was recommended. Experimental studies and related research directed toward improvement of instructional strategies in this area was also encouraged.
Chapter 1
The Problem
Background of the Study

Minority students in the United States have become a primary source of social concern during recent years, as evidence of their low reading achievement persisted. These students were socially promoted through the grades and the only alternative left to them upon completion of their education was to join the ranks of the unemployed or the under-employed. As Jayne commented about the Chinese children in the San Francisco Unified School District, "Whether American born or immigrant, these children who come to the schools need help in overcoming their language difficulty and the resulting problems" (16:1).

A survey of materials currently available for teaching ethnic minority student populations revealed that the materials were generally written for Spanish-speakers, illiterate native whites, American Indians, and blacks. Materials written by Gaarder, Robinett, and Fox and Barnes (13, 28, 10) in the 1960's, often referred to materials written earlier by Fries and Lado (12, 18) in the 1950's and early 1960's, or to English-as-a-second language materials used by the Foreign Service Institute after World War II. It was intended that teachers of these minority children would use the same materials, regardless of race, culture, native tongue, or dialect of the pupil.
Fries (12) advocated the contrastive and comparative use of the patterns and differences of the student's native language as a guide to learning English. Gaarder (13) and Robinett (28) suggested the use of the native language of the student as the "bridge" to English. Horn (14) and Alter et al (1) suggested the use of the same materials for all who learned English regardless of color, race, or idiosyncracies of their native tongue. All of these authorities used linguistic principles as the foundation of their teaching methods.

A method to teach non-English speakers was developed by Great Britain during the period of colonization, known as English-as-a-foreign language (EFL). From this method evolved the English-as-a-second language (ESL) approach in the United States a short time before World War II, which was soon adopted world wide and from which evolved the method known as English-to-speakers-of-other languages (EOL). This last term gained wider acceptance in the United States after the establishment in 1966 of a national association called Teachers-of-English-to-Speakers-of-Other Languages (TESOL).

The EFL approach to teaching used by Great Britain in their colonies was more for social prestige than for education. This proved very impractical when English became an international language and there was a need for regional varieties of less "standard" English.

ESL was used largely overseas immediately following World War II by the United States Foreign Service Institute to teach English as an international language in many places throughout the world. It used an aural-oral approach, with no reading and writing.
This approach to learning English was soon recognized as being inadequate. Two reasons for its inadequacy were that this approach encouraged obliteration of the native culture, and provision was not made to use the language outside of the classroom situations.

EOL and TESOL used much more extensively than any other approach at this time, placed considerable emphasis on the culture, language, and ethnic differences of non-English speaking students.

Through comparative and contrastive studies it became increasingly apparent that because of differences between people, different approaches to teaching different languages were needed. Authorities on Chinese language, such as Tsai (37), An-Yan and Earle (2), and Tucker (36) concluded that Chinese students needed an approach other than the oral-aural or aural-linguistic which were popularized by Zirkel (41) and Finocchiaro (9). They were also in agreement that much more research in the field was needed.

Statement of the Problem

Theories regarding the teaching of English to students whose first language was other than English had been numerous, but no one theory had proven to be applicable to all students. Many writers conceded that further exploration of their theories would be necessary. The review of the literature, interviews of experts, and experiments and observations also indicated that groups of people from different parts of the world needed to be taught in different ways. Too often, what was used was a spiral aural-linguistic or aural-oral approach for all of the different groups, regardless of their native language.

The major focus of this project was to develop answers to the following questions: (1) Was there a need to modify the standard
approach to teaching English-as-an-other-language (EOL) to make it more specific, and therefore, more effective for teaching students whose first language is Chinese, Japanese, or Korean? (2) What components should be included in a syllabus for English Language for the East Asian (ELEA)?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the project was to present a case for the development of a more effective, modified, multi-faceted approach to teach English to students speaking a version of the parent language, Chinese. The students came from Taiwan, Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea, and the purpose included the development of a set of components for curriculum design to be used as a basis for the teaching of the English language to East Asian students from those countries.

Justification of the Problem

According to statistics given by the school districts, 17 percent of the San Francisco Unified School District enrollment and 3.4 percent of the Los Angeles City Schools enrollment fell into the category listed as "Oriental." Most of these students were children of poverty.

Robinett observed that, "By and large the bilingual child in the United States is a child of poverty and as such is culturally deprived" (28:467). Jayne stated that, "Many (Chinese) parents are underemployed here in San Francisco because they don't speak English" (16:2). Tucker commented, "Now (1968), through the implementation of our new immigration policies, at least 10,000
Chinese are expected to immigrate to the United States each year" (36:44).

The following circumstances encountered by the author primarily motivated her to undertake this study:

1. Special needs of a student from China in a fifth grade in the Los Angeles City Schools.
2. Special needs in the learning of English of ten fifth grade Spanish speakers tutored in a private center.
3. Special needs of children of other races assessed by the writer while a substitute teacher.
4. An all-Chinese elementary school which satisfied California requirements by having two bilingual teachers who spoke Spanish and Japanese respectively.
5. Information from the nationwide Educational Research Institute Clearinghouse (ERIC) on Reading and Communication Skills, in a letter to the author from O'Donnell that stated, "Unfortunately, we do not have any specific materials on teaching reading to Orientals" (H. S. O'Donnell, personal communication, September 18, 1973).
7. In using principles of teaching English to Spanish speakers, the author found that many principles were not applicable to the East Asian students. Teachers of English consulted on a study trip to the Orient validated the author's observations, as did a review of the literature.
Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The project was accomplished through the unscientific curriculum technique outlined by Crawford,

It involves the application of common sense and the judgments of competent persons in selecting and arranging materials for instructional purposes tentatively, with the idea that it is better to have what experts think is a good curriculum than to have what has already proven by experience to be unsatisfactory. This is entirely sound reasoning. It is better to have an empirical foundation for educational practice than no foundation at all; and, lacking a strictly scientific foundation, an empirical one based on common sense and the observations of educational specialists is about as good as we can have . . . . The difficulty analysis, therefore, consists of finding where practice breaks down or falls short, and discovering from these deficiencies the kinds of training needed to correct them . . . . (7:119-121).

A review of related literature, observations and experiences of the author, as well as field observations, interviews, and expert opinions of Primary, Middle School, and Secondary English teachers and teachers of related fields of study in Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan, which took place in the summer of 1973 formed the basis of the project.

Schools visited were in urban areas only. They consisted of primary rooftop schools, a middle school for girls, several colleges, and an English Language Training Centre in Hong Kong. One rooftop school within the city proper and the other outside the city in the New Territories. Both were private schools; one was subsidized by the government and one not through preference. The observations included a tour of classrooms from kindergarten through grade six, examination of science materials, television and audio-visual materials, as well as other instructional materials for teaching English.
The middle school was meeting only part of the time as classes were in session in order to assist students in reviewing for the tests held at the end of the summer which either qualified or disqualified them to continue their education. Women's colleges, men's colleges, colleges of state and private support were well equipped materially with campuses which were both functional and aesthetically pleasing. There were English-speaking presentations made by English teachers and heads of colleges. Tours were arranged to show the arrangements of rooms and equipment and the museum on one campus. There were groups of students on hand to greet the American visitors and all were anxious to practice their English.

Interviews were held with three primary teachers in Hong Kong; two taught Cantonese-speaking students, the other taught Mandarin. Each of the interviews with the primary teachers lasted approximately two hours. Materials used in the classrooms were presented; goals outlined for the year, semester, week, and day were discussed. Methods employed by the teachers were explained at length, including strengths and weaknesses found in teaching English to Chinese-speakers. Comparisons and contrasts were made between materials, methods, and goals for Chinese and American students.

By contrast, classes in Taiwan were all conducted in Mandarin. Other interviews included those granted by three Korean English majors who used the language in their daily work. There were also twenty-two scholarship students from different locations in East Asia, as well as over one hundred Japanese students and adult travelers aboard the U.S.S. Universe, which was the floating
campus of the Chapman College for the study trip to East Asia. All of the passengers from Asia granted interviews to the students of World Campus Afloat who were asked to interview as many as possible, as part of the requirements for the course.

As these passengers needed the knowledge of English in order to survive in the United States, each had learned the language in his own way. A survey of their English acquisition yielded some consensus: It was easier to learn to read and write English than to speak it in the way in which it was taught; the best place to learn to speak English would be at an English language school where many listening and audio-type experiences were offered; it was difficult to "hear" sounds of English for two reasons: (a) a lack of phonics instruction in the phoneme-grapheme correspondence, and (b) Oriental languages stressed the visual input.

Summary

Chapter one included the problems that exist in teaching East Asian students. An analysis was made of the problems and the purpose of the project was to explore the two questions: (1) Was there a need to modify the standard approach to teaching English-as-an-other-language (EOL) to make it more specific, and therefore, more effective for teaching students whose first language is Chinese, Japanese, or Korean? (2) What components should be included in a syllabus for English Language for the East Asian (ELEA)?
Chapter 2
Review of Related Literature

Introduction

The agreement that flexibility is a must in education for all students, especially those whose first language is other than English, is generally recognized. There is great divergency, however, in techniques to teach pupils in the latter group, and no specific workable techniques for any one group has been isolated. The literature was examined, therefore, with a view toward accepting applicable techniques as having merit, and from which a set of components could be developed to form a basis for teaching English to specific groups, such as English as a language for East Asians of China (including Taiwan and Hong Kong), Japan, Korea, and the United States. Following are theories advanced by some authorities which seem to be applicable to education for students whose first language was not English.

According to Thonis, "Language development can be a triumph in human learning or a burden of mental confusion" (35:3). Wardhaugh added, "Students sometimes can become a linguistic misfit of a hybrid variety unacceptable to nonstandard or regional population! Therefore, linguistic habits are strong and should not be tampered with lightly and with little regard for the consequences" (39:111).

Robinett, however, felt that, "Most programs for educating bilinguals are not mutually exclusive, usually a combination of various approaches either through theoretical design or practical
application. There are characteristic differences... the curriculum differs from rural and farm children, migrant and non-migrant bilinguals, and from place to place as needs and aspirations vary and each school is unique as it responds to children and parents" (28:471).

Kobrick stated that, "Too often these children are asked to be 'remodeled,' 'retooled,' and/or 'reoriented' to our version of what they should be if he is to succeed in school and children are preached middle class maxims of health, cleanliness, and must change their name to an 'anglo' version... He has often been asked to choose between the world of his heritage as reflected by his language and customs, and the world of the dominant culture, as reflected by the expectations of the school. Often he is unable or unwilling to make the choice. Children are considered 'deprived' as language and culture are seen as 'disadvantages!'" (17:57).

Zirkel summed up the present trends as follows: "The recent developments of bilingual-bicultural education and tests, which use the linguistic and cultural background of the child as an asset rather than a liability, show that the label (of "disadvantaged") can be switched to "advantaged" Spanish-speaking children" (42:9).

**Approaches to Teaching English as a Second Language**

Ten techniques or programs for the student in need of English as their second language have been developed by authorities working with Europeans and Spanish-speakers.

**Slow Learner Approach**

The slow learner approach assumed the pupil had a basic lack of intelligence, often based on tests designed for middle-class white students. These students were often put in segregated
classrooms. Some were classified as mentally retarded. "A federal court decision recently ordered the testing of over 22,000 Mexican-American children in California who had previously been classified as mentally retarded (MR) on the basis of English language intelligence (IQ) tests (designed originally for white middle-class children)"

42:1.

**Language-Osmosis Approach**

The language-osmosis approach expected the student to absorb English in the classroom as the teacher and other students used it in the daily routine. There was no additional training given to the student who spoke a language other than English as his mother tongue. Thus the name was aptly given. This approach flourished in the 1940's and 1950's, under the sponsorship of educational leaders in the Southwest, one of whom was Lloyd S. Tireman.

The philosophy of "To be American was to talk American," and acculturation into the American way of life was assumed to require a rejection of old ways, old values, and other languages (still existed in this approach)" (28:466).

**Interdisciplinary Approach**

The Interdisciplinary Approach combined a second-language program with one of conceptual development through content areas. "Basic intellectual skills such as classification, seriation, and distinguishing temporal and spacial relationships were elaborated and eventually applied to concepts from social studies, science, and mathematics. Such programs may or may not take advantage of the learner's mother tongue, depending on local attitudes toward the bilingual education" (28:469).
Bilingual Education Approach

Under the broad umbrella of "Bilingual Education" were three programs which provided "for the use of the bilingual pupil's mother tongue as one of the media to be used in classroom instruction" (28:470), as required of the United States Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title VII programs. "Many of the seventy-six projects started the first year under the new legislation were influenced by the bilingual programs of Miami, Florida and San Antonio, Texas which had been developed in the early 1960's in elementary schools using local and foundation funds" (28:470).

The United States Commission on Civil Rights reported on bilingual education as "a vehicle which permits non-English speaking children to develop to their full potential as bilingual, bicultural Americans. At the same time, it permits English-speaking children to benefit by developing similar bilingual and bicultural abilities and sensitivities" (38:21).

Kobrick viewed bilingual-bicultural education as "perhaps the greatest educational priority today in bilingual communities. Its aim is to include children, not exclude them. It is not a 'remedial' program, nor does it seek to 'compensate' children for their supposed 'deficiencies.' It views such children as advantaged, not disadvantaged, and seeks to develop bilingualism as a precious asset rather than to stigmatize it as a defect" (17:57). He cautioned that "The major weakness of the statute is that it is silent on whether English-speaking children may be enrolled in bilingual programs and thus does not contain adequate safeguards against the isolation of minority children in such programs. The Harvard Journal on
Legislation published a revised version of this statute, which provided for the enrollment of English-speaking children in the bilingual program" (17:57). These three programs were:

**One-way schools.** "The one-way schools are designed largely for speakers of a non-English mother tongue and have only a token enrollment or no enrollment of native speakers of English" (28:470).

**Two-way schools.** "The two-way schools are designed to keep a balance between those learning English as a second language and those monolingual English speakers who are learning to speak the home language of their non-English-speaking peers" (28:470).

Gaarder (13) singled out Coral Way Elementary, a two-way school, which had segregated classes (the language groups were not mixed in grades one to three and only to a limited extent in grades four to six), as in effect two one-way schools. For the Cubans, Coral Way provided the mother tongue, for the Anglos it added Spanish, a second tongue. It gave as nearly as possible equal time and treatment to the two media. Either of the two halves, the Anglo or the Cuban, could function alone as a one-way school.

**Transfer-type program.** This program was "arranged so that the initial instruction is predominantly in the home language, with the new language introduced in increasing amounts until all or most of the instruction is carried on in English" (28:470). "In some programs a bilingual teacher will use both languages to direct activities during the day. In other programs the teacher will restrict himself to one language or the other, with other teachers carrying on instruction in the alternate language" (28:470).
Laubach Method--National Association
for Literacy Advance

Laubach (21) developed a technique for teaching illiterates, both white and black, in the United States, which was adapted for Spanish-speakers in California by Bell (3).

This approach, referred to as "The Laubach Method" (New Streamlined English), was described by Betty J. Frey in her book entitled, Basic Helps for Teaching English as a Second Language.

"The efficiency of the material and method is based upon the strict adherence of the teacher to the teaching language, as directed. Do not try to improvise . . . ." (11:124).

In his book, Forty Years With the Silent Billion, Dr. Frank Laubach mentioned Betty Frey. "I was impressed by her personality and ability as a teacher. The first half-hour of each session at our Chinese school in San Francisco she conducted what she called "oral-aural" (speaking-hearing) without using any books. The second half-hour I taught students English basic phonics. This alternating of oral English for a half-hour and written English for a half-hour is now our standard pattern for teaching foreign students" (20:453).

Frey also advocated the use of the International Phonetic Alphabet and the Phono Visual Method to complete the few vowel sounds not covered initially in the Laubach charts. Dr. Frank Laubach also devised a method similar to the Initial Teaching Alphabet which has been in use in San Francisco with Chinese-speaking students. This method was called English the New Way. "To our knowledge, there has been no research to demonstrate the possible values of this effort at simplification of our writing system in an
attempt to promote easier learning in reading" (29:492).

**Finocchiaro Approach**

Dr. Mary Finocchiaro, professor of language and linguistics at Hunter College of the City University of New York was the authority quoted most often in the field of English-as-a-Second Language. Her book, *English as a Second Language, From Theory to Practice*, formed a comprehensive basis for her entire approach. It could best be described by a quote from the Introduction, "This guide is dedicated to all those devoted teachers and to my students at the University whose questions and concerns have forced me to focus attention on the multiplicity of elements in the process of teaching and learning a language. It is designed for prospective teachers of English and also for experienced teachers who may find pleasure in the confirmation of some of the techniques they have undoubtedly been using. I have contained myself to what I call 'minimum' essentials, written in language that lay people would understand. This was done because increased interest in the English language throughout the world and special situations within the United States often make it necessary for teachers or even lay people without a special background in linguistics or in other sciences to start teaching with little or no preparation or orientation" (9:6-7).

Finocchiaro (9) expected learners to say the material with reasonable fluency before they saw it. Other authorities, such as Gaarder and Swigart (13, 32), have come to the same conclusion from their research and observations. "Since speaking precedes reading and writing in the language learning process of a native speaker, linguists assert that the same sequence should be followed
in learning a second language. This may not be true for Chinese students" (2:665).

**English-as-a-Second Language Approach (ESL)**

ESL, based on the linguistic principles of Lado and Fries (18, 12) at the University of Michigan, 1945, "resulted in extensive and highly structured pattern practices designed to help the non-English-speaking child master the grammar and sound systems of English through repetition. Unfortunately . . . (it) rarely took into account the other curricular needs of the learner and the uses to which the new language would be put" (28:469).

The three basic stages of learning through this approach were: (1) simple imitation on the part of the learner, (2) the learner consciously selects a particular form or arrangement of words through substitution or conversion of sentence patterns previously practiced, and (3) the learner demonstrates his mastery over a linguistic feature by using it more or less spontaneously while his attention is focused on other features of the communication situation" (28:469).

Alter et al gave the following information about drills and conversion in the book entitled Utterance-Response Drills, For Students of English as a Second Language, "Students frequently become highly skilled in performing this type of drill but often have great difficulty in transferring the skill to actual language use" (1:v).

Other weaknesses of ESL instruction noted by the United States Commission on Civil Rights were: "... in the Southwest nearly 50 percent of all schools with an enrollment that is 75 percent or more Mexican-American have adopted an ESL program, yet less than 10 percent of the Chicanos enrolled in these schools are served
by this kind of program. Staff resources for ESL are limited. Less than 2 percent of all teachers are assigned to ESL programs, and many of these have less than six semester hours of relevant training" (38:26).

History of ESL. The technique now referred to as "English-as a Second Language" (ESL) had its historical beginning in England. Because of her many colonies, Britain has made distinctions in English-language teaching throughout her history. In Shakespeare's time only five million people spoke English; now, people in seven countries including those with Great Britain and United States as the mother country speak English. Originally, throughout the world, only standard British English was acceptable, but this gave way in the 1960's when American English was gradually accepted side-by-side with British English. Local resources (mother countries) were relied upon for preparation of teachers and materials, but outside sources were provided by national and international institutions. Consequently, Great Britain and the United States have both contributed much to both theory and practice in this field.

The British, led by Harold E. Palmar and associates, under the influence of scholars such as Henry Sweet and Otto Jespersen stressed four things: (1) difference between written and spoken language; (2) need for accurate observation of the spoken language; (3) need for developing oral skills through the systematic presentation of materials; and (4) emphasis on special approaches for special needs. Instead of including "needs" in the ways of teaching "foreigners" (often colonists) the teaching went from English as a medium of instruction to English as a subject in the curriculum;
therefore, standards fell in many cases. The result was that in the 1950's colleges and universities in England began cooperating with linguists in order to offer better training to British and overseas students.

In America, the linguists have had a great impact on ESL from the start. ESL by the Americans showed marked expansion in the 1960's after setting up a few centers in Latin America, the first being in Mexico, by the Office of Overseas Schools of the U.S. Department of State. By 1969 there were 130 overseas schools, with a combined budget of $45 million. Paul T. Luebke stated, in speaking of the American Elementary and Secondary Community Schools abroad in 1969, "There are as many types of American-sponsored overseas schools as there are communities in which they are located (with from fourteen to 3,500 students in each) . . . . There was a rapid growth in these programs after World War II with extensive programs in the Far East, Middle East, and Southeast Asia, Europe, French-speaking and English-speaking Africa" (24:227).

English as a foreign language is now generally taken to mean teaching the language as a subject for purposes similar to those for which French, German, and Russian are taught in the United States. English as a second language, on the other hand, refers to teaching English in situations where it serves as the language of wider communication and the medium of instruction in at least part of the educational system. The term "English to speakers of other languages" is used in the United States to include all teaching of English to those for whom it is not a native language, and this term
is beginning to gain wider acceptance, especially since the establishment in the United States in 1966 of the national association called TESOL--Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

English for speakers of other languages (EOL) originated in the United States through TESOL. "This approach focuses on the language system directly. It was fostered by structural linguists in the 1950's and early 1960's and attempted to bring to bear on the English-language problem in the United States the knowledge and skills which had proved successful in teaching English as a foreign language overseas and in United States universities" (28:469).

"Advocates of the teaching of English as a second language, or TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), approach followed the thinking of descriptive linguists, such as Charles C. Fries (1945). They argued that in order to provide an efficient program in English for the bilingual, the essential elements of language must be identified through a contrastive analysis of English and the language of the learner. From this analysis it was found that the essential elements to be taught were those of greatest recurrence, that is, the points of contrast in grammar and sound systems. The vocabulary needed for any given communication purpose would vary with the learner's purpose, interest, and experience" (28:469).

Another development in the ESL technique was the ESL of the Foreign Language Institute. It was a strictly audio-lingual method that not only disregarded the culture but provided very little practice in the use of the new language of the people, even though very often the instruction was given in a foreign country.
Bilasco referred to this program thusly, "The audio-lingual materials of Lado and Fries at the University of Michigan antedates the Foreign Language Institute by more than a decade, and (these materials) brought the audio-lingual method swiftly, abruptly, and in some cases traumatically (to those who were taught overseas)" (4:1). Bilasco continued, "No one can speak a language unless he has learned to understand the language, and listening to 'real' speakers is essential" (4:28). Furthermore, "The ability to speak a foreign language will not develop in a program that considers the acquisition of language skills (aural-orb) secondary to the study of literature or linguistics" (4:25).

Strategies of ESL. The Commission on Civil Rights defined ESL as "a program designed to teach English language skills without the presentation of related cultural material. It is taught for only a limited number of hours each week, with English in much the same way that foreign language is taught to English-speaking students" (38:26).

According to Ohannessian, the work which has had the most influence on the principles that underlie the linguistic or oral approach to teaching English was The Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language by Charles C. Fries (1945) (26:306). In it:

The main principles stressed are the following: Teaching should start with the spoken language, with due stress on accuracy, sound, rhythm, intonation, structural forms, and arrangement, and it should be carried out within a limited vocabulary. Teaching should be based on a realistic description of the language as used by the native speakers of the variety of English to be taught. What is taught should be selected and arranged in properly related sequences with emphasis on trouble spots revealed by careful comparison and contrast through linguistic analyses of the learner's language and English and of the language material itself. The student should
attempt to imitate exactly the forms, structures, and mode of utterance of native speakers and these should become matters of automatic habit for the student just as they have for the native speaker. Learning should take place in a cultural context. At the beginning, writing is to be used only as a tool in teaching language as a means of living communication" (26:306).

Ohannessian informed us further that, "The linguistic approach is exemplified in two sets of instructional materials which have had great impact on methods and techniques developed in the United States. The first is An Intensive Course in English, initially intended for Spanish-speakers and developed at the University of Michigan under the direction of Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries (1958). The second is the Spoken English series developed under the auspices of the American Council of Learned Societies (1953--). The ACLS series was based on the mimicry-memorization method, with intensive pronunciation drills, long dialogues to memorize, and detailed explanations of grammatical and phonological points in the mother tongue of the student" (26:306-307).

These differences in strategies were only two examples in the search for an effective way to teach English-as-a-second language. "Finocchiaro (1968) said that all learners should be able to say the material with reasonable fluency before being permitted to see it" (2:665). Gaarder and Swigart (13, 32) felt it was necessary to know how to speak and use a first language easily before starting a second one, and then to use the mother tongue as needed to "bridge" the gap of the new language. The teacher must know the language of the student for the latter approach.

A strong argument was presented for ESL by Carroll. "Neither (the coordinate or compound) systems is 'better,' but a
language teacher should try to teach coordinate systems rather than compound . . . . This would then be an argument for a 'direct method' in which the use of a learner's native language would be minimized or avoided altogether . . . . One may safely generalize that it is comparatively easier for bilinguals with separated acquisition contexts to attain bilingual balance" (5:1086).

"The 'corrective approach' in ESL instruction, which assumes that Standard English exists, is necessary for improved intellectual performance and is best acquired through constant correction and should be abandoned in favor of methods that allow the student to see realistically the role of language in society. This way the student will not be required to judge only himself and his performance against a so-called norm of standard English, a comparison which reduces the student's opinion of himself and, therefore, his chances of future success" (15:5), commented Huntsman.

Robinett, in contrasting the European immigrant and the American Indian, the Mexican-American and the Puerto Rican stated, "One tended toward linguistic assimilation and usually came from Europe; the others . . . tended to be less assimilative linguistically and originated closer to home. The first group, the assimilative-prone bilinguals, came to the United States by choice; the second group, the less assimilative came to form part of the United States as a result of political expansion during the period of the nation's territorial growth" (28:466). "As a result," Robinett concluded, (of receiving a minimum of effective education) they have in many instances been unable to meet academic standards and have been pressured into leaving the education system" (28:466).
In support of the linguists' position, "Finocchiaro suggests the student must understand and produce language orally first" (2:665). Bilasco advocated an understanding of the language aurally (4:6). The portions of the target language system, standard English, that are different must be presented in an orderly fashion and in a graded sequence. Horn stressed repetitive drill and pattern practice at all levels of instruction (14:117). "(A) combination of formal oral English (TESOL) should be used as a substitute for basals, (but) not substituted for them," suggested Spache (31:106). "(An) aural-oral or audio-lingual approach (to ESL) is best" (32:26).

The above were some of the authorities who have tried to find a method of teaching ESL to students. Robinett commented that the approaches to the problem of bilinguals in United States schools represent successive layers of influence from different disciplines and schools of thought" (28:472).

English Language for East Asians

Comparison of Chinese, Japanese and Korean Languages

The languages of China (including Taiwan and Hong Kong), Japan and Korea originated in China with Chinese as the parent language. "(Japanese) closely resembles Korean and both it and Korean may possibly be related to Mongol and to Manchu, and might therefore lay claim to be included in the so-called "Altaic" group" (6:274). "China gave her culture to Corea and Corea passed it on to Japan. If we may believe Corean tales, then the Coreans have possessed letters and writing during 3000 years . . . . The culture of their native tongue (however) has been neglected by Corean scholars."
The consequence is that after so many centuries of national life, Corea possesses no literature worthy of its name" (40:408).

Throughout history, each of these countries has made simplifications in their languages. World War II gave an added impetus toward simplification and toward wiping out illiteracy in these countries. "The most difficult problem is that Chinese is in transition. Wenyen, the old literary style, has been used throughout China for four thousand years, for almost all purposes. It is well established in its usage . . . However, since the literary revolution of 1917, paihua, or the colloquial Chinese, has taken its place . . . paihua has a limited vocabulary, and moreover, Chinese dialects are so numerous and different that few Chinese are good enough linguists to understand all of them or to record what is spoken . . . Paradoxically, it is both easier and more difficult nowadays for an English-speaking person to learn Chinese . . . (because) paihua, varies with writers and people of different walks of life" (37:5). Pan enlightened us on the most recent Chinese-English development through the publishing of a new Chinese-English dictionary by the Chinese University of Hong Kong" (27:8).

Lederer explained why Japanese needs to be simplified in the following way, "Even the partisans of phonetic writing, as for example, romaji, the writing of Japanese in Roman letters--admit that the carrying through of these reforms would entail a certain alteration of the language, with elimination or transformation of the words . . . But some reform of this kind is necessary. There can be no synthesis of Chinese and Western scripts" (22:92).
Japan has enjoyed an extremely high percentage of literacy for centuries (approximately 95 percent at this time), while China and Korea still struggled with the problem. China's problem was due to vast numbers of people in a vast land. The Japanese occupation of Korea and the attempt to obliterate literacy from 1910 to 1945 was Korea's greatest deterrent to literacy.

The Chinese language. Chinese has been regarded as one of the most difficult languages to learn to read because it does not use an alphabet and has no standard pronunciation. Each Chinese character portrays a complete idea and is treated as a single unit (see Chart 1). Each contains only one syllable and is not inflected. In order to read classical literature a student must learn to recognize around 3,500 characters and a scholar must know at least 10,000 characters. "Logographs (logograms) are characters that can be described as pictographic characters or simple pictures of what they represent. Ideographic characters represent ideas. Suggestive characters suggest ideas. Ideographic-phonetic characters consist of two parts, with the ideographic supplying the meaning and the phonetic supplying the pronunciation. Phonetic loan characters are those adopted for new words because of a similarity in sound. Derivative characters are those which time and usage have made similar in meaning" (33:394).

"Most major dialects of Chinese are found in the southeastern provinces of China. The two dialects that are heard most often are Mandarin and Cantonese. Mandarin subdialects are spoken throughout the northern part of the country, with one speaker of a dialect being able to understand another. The major portion of Chinese migrating
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<td>A book</td>
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<td>A coat</td>
<td>件大衣</td>
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<td>A horse</td>
<td>隻馬</td>
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<td>She</td>
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to the United States speak Cantonese. Spoken Chinese is weak in speech sounds because each word has only one syllable. Cantonese contains 800 syllables and Mandarin 400. Different tones are used to increase the sounds. One character often appears without change as a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb" (33:394).

Reforms in the Chinese language began in the 1900's, based on Mandarin dialect as spoken in Peking, the northern capital. A new phonetic written language was adopted in a movement to unify the spoken dialects. This new language was called kuo-yu (national language). In 1917, paihua, a vernacular style movement was advocated and it became very popular and was used by writers and in textbooks. During World War II this vernacular spread, due largely to the forced migration of much of the population. Additional reforms included one by scholars who worked out systems of transcribing Chinese speech sounds into the Roman alphabet, with additional phonetic symbols. In English-speaking countries, two Englishmen, Wade and Giles, devised the system that was most widely used to transcribe Chinese (33:395).

In 1957, Communist China adopted all of the twenty-six letters of the Roman alphabet and encouraged the population to use this system of writing in order to teach the masses to learn to read and to gradually unify the spoken language of China (33:395).

The Japanese language. "The first Chinese Buddhist priest came to Japan in 552; and, along with Buddhism, brought a written language. The structure of existing Japanese was similar to languages of the Ural-Altaic type, which also included Finnish and Turkish. Korean resembled the Japanese language in this respect.
The origins of these languages were uncertain, but it was believed that the Mongols of the North brought the language with them. Unlike Korea, however, Japan was not conquered by Kublai Khan, although he attempted it twice, in 1274 and 1281, failing both times" (34:45).

The Japanese borrowed the Chinese system of writing as well as many Chinese words. Some of these were simplified and codified into "syllabaries," called kana. Two syllabaries are in use today . . . common, rounded form hiragana and square-shaped katakana used much as italics in English. Japanese is usually written with a combination of kana and Chinese characters (kanji) called kanamajiri. " . . . once having mastered these syllabaries, a child is still unable to read much more than a primary school reader or a telegram. To read a newspaper he must learn to read about two thousand characters or ideograms . . . . For this reason most newspapers and popular magazines run syllable symbols (kana) in small type beside the more difficult characters as an aid to pronunciation and understanding" (8:139).

In 1948 the Japanese Ministry of Education undertook a program to simplify the system of writing, advocating Romaji (based on three systems of Romanized Japanese) as the "new" language. According to an interview of the author with Osamu Yamauchi, there is now a simplified version of Japanese (see Chart 2) which is based on kanji, not Romaji.

The Korean language. While half of all Korean words came from Chinese, the structure of Korean language resembles Japanese. The Korean alphabet (see Chart 3) called Hangeul, contains twenty-four letters, eleven vowels and thirteen consonants. South Koreans
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<th>TI (CHI Sound)</th>
<th>ROMAJI*</th>
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<tr>
<td>３, １９, ３４</td>
<td>KANJI</td>
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<td>にほうぶ</td>
<td>HIRAGANA</td>
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<tr>
<td>にせくち</td>
<td>KATAKANA</td>
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*The alphabetized version of Japanese. Thought to be a solution to learning languages. Was not successful. Kanji is now the accepted mode. Osamu Yamauchi.
### Chart 3

**Hangul: The Korean Alphabet**

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By Bill Orzolek
use some Chinese symbols in addition to Hangeul in their writing. North Koreans use only Hangeul (40:410).

"Although the Chinese language, writing, and literature form the basis of education and culture, yet the native language is distinct in structure from the Chinese, having little in common with it. The latter is monosyllabic and Corean is polysyllabic, as is the Japanese which the Corean closely resembles" (40:411).

As in Japan, so in Corea, three styles of languages prevail and are used as follows: (1) pure Chinese without any admixture of Corean in books, in writings and science, history and government, and in the theses of the students and literary men; (2) in the books composed in the Corean language the vernacular serves as the framework but the vocabulary is largely Chinese; and (3) the Corean book style of composition which is written in pure Corean language. Everyone in Corea speaks the vernacular and not Chinese" (40:413).

The Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Learner as a Student of ESL

Some contrastive studies of English and of the language of the student, in this case, Chinese, have been done by the San Francisco Unified School District. Antoinette Metcalf of that district, noted the differences in the Chinese language itself which made it difficult to adapt the strategies of the language to another. She referred to Mandarin and Cantonese, as well as the ten or more dialects also used in China (25:1). Since the Japanese and Korean languages came from the parent language, Chinese, many of the same problems and strategies could be applied to them as well.
In Chinese there are no possessive nor plural nouns, and the verb is used in only one tense and is not conjugated as in English. Actually, in Chinese the article  a  is very specific and complex and is used as a unit of measure rather than a general article.

A tone system is used in Chinese to denote different meanings. Consequently, four different tones to represent different meanings would be represented by four semi-circles at each corner of the character. Punctuation marks are found in Chinese, but the marks used are different from those in English. Word order, according to Lee (23:38), is similar to that in English with the greatest difference occurring in an interrogative sentence.

Jayne noted the transition from Chinese (Cantonese) to English as a difficult one . . . . "A Chinese student learning English has to learn a whole new sound system with 'strange' sounds and intonation patterns. He has to learn an entirely new grammatical system with different verb forms and with tenses which his language doesn't have" (16:6).

In contrasting the Cantonese and Mandarin dialects Lau stated, "All Mandarin dialects agree in having relatively simple sound systems. They have four or five tones instead of eight or nine tones as in Cantonese" (19:1).

According to Sinclair, "The most important English sound habit for the non-native speaker to acquire is the intonation pattern of the sentence" (29:1). Next in importance are the vowels because English vowels are produced on a continuum of the possible production points in the mouth" (29:3).
Another rather striking difference between the English and the Cantonese sound system is the fact that in Cantonese there are severe limitations on the sounds (particularly the consonant sounds) which can precede or follow each vowel, whereas in English all of the vowels can be found preceded or followed by any of the consonants. The result is that the Cantonese speaker finds it difficult to hear and to say vowels similar to his own when they are in contexts which are not permitted in the Cantonese system" (29:4).

"A final major difficulty for Cantonese speakers lies in the fact that Cantonese never put two consonant sounds together. The Cantonese speaker will either not hear and not produce one sound of a two or more consonant cluster, saying 'mith' instead of 'Smith,' or will insert a vowel sound, saying 'somith' instead of 'Smith.' Since the insertion of a vowel sound at least allows the Cantonese student to hear and learn all of the consonant sounds in the word, this production should first be encouraged and then deletion of the vowel sound can be practiced" (29:7).

The above difficulties as explained by Sinclair, were those found to be difficult for the Japanese and Korean students as well.

Effects of Culture on the East Asian Student

"Between English and Japanese the gulf fixed is so wide and gaping that the student's mind must be forever on the stretch. The simpler and more idiomatic the English, the more it does tax his powers of comprehension" (6:135).

"Japan's assimilation of the Chinese script reflects another peculiarity of the national character . . . . Even in the Occidental languages, of course, one may miss the point of what is being said,
even though he realizes all the words that are used . . . . This failing is to be attributed not to a limited capacity to think, but to a habit in thinking in terms of the written language . . . . In the final analysis it is an attitude induced by a literary culture, by a language which is spread out visually before the eyes like pictures fitted together" (22:84-90).

There was validation of the visual and indirect aspects of the East Asian languages in the materials that compared the three languages.

An-Yan explained the difference between alphabetic writing and logograms. "The student often finds the irregularity (of the word lengths) disturbing even to the point of causing a lot of strain on the eyes (2:664) . . . . Many Chinese students find themselves recognizing English words visually much easier than auditorily" (2:666). He further stated that, "Much Chinese writing, on the other hand, is characterized by what might be called an approach by indirection . . . (and) the subject is never 'straight-forwardly' stated . . . (and) critical insight will have to be developed through intense practice" (2:668).

There are many cultural constraints for the Chinese or East Asian child in the United States according to An-Yan. "They have learned to be constantly aware of their manners and facial expressions. Too many facial expressions, as well as exaggerated expressions, are both considered improper (but necessary in learning to pronounce English words)" (2:664). Jayne commented that "They also need to make a transition from a socially and academically strict culture to a more permissive one" (16:3).
Authorities on ESL for the East Asian

Lee was of the opinion that the more culturally developed a people, the less encumbered the syntactical structure of their language; and, therefore, the simplicity of the Chinese grammar "has been for centuries the linguistic vehicle and medium for expressing sophisticated philosophies and metaphysical theories" (23:38). He also told of an observation which he had made, "These new arrivals are presenting teachers of English with a set of problems totally different from those encountered in instructing other non-English-speaking students" (23:37).

An-Yan stated that "Based on the observation that Chinese students are particularly strong in visual memory and direct association of symbol with meaning, and taking into consideration studies which suggest that there are students who learn a foreign language faster with the incorporation of reading, we should venture to assume that the theory that learning to read English should begin by aural-oral practice is not applicable to Chinese students. Instead, a synthesized aural-oral reading approach should be employed at the earliest stage of instruction" (2:666).

Tucker also commented that "After a 'copy book' sort of education with a great deal of emphasis on books in general . . . . They (the Chinese) often appear to be psychologically unprepared to accept the audio-lingual approach to language learning" (36:44).

Summary

In this chapter a review of the literature was presented. Approaches to teaching English-as-a-second language and the general concepts and strategies of ESL and those being used for East Asian
students were discussed. The approaches were: Slow Learner, Language-Osmosis, Interdisciplinary, Bilingual Education, One-way schools, Two-way schools, Transfer type program, Laubach Method, Finocchiaro, and ESL.

Comparisons were made of the language and cultural backgrounds of the Chinese, Japanese, and Korean students. These comparisons explored the impact of these differences in the students' acquisition of English.

The literature examined yielded conflicting opinions on the subject of teaching English-as-a-second language, and pointed to the lack of an agreeable set of criteria from which a curriculum design could be developed as a basis for teaching English to foreign speakers from the East Asian countries currently attending schools in the United States.
Chapter 3
Procedures for Development of a
Teaching Technique

Introduction
Chapter three presents a chronological review of the observations, experiments, and experiences of the author.

The activities of the author were used as a basis for finding strengths and weaknesses of English language teaching, and for finding the effects culture had upon it. These activities compared the methods used for teaching students in both the United States and the foreign countries visited: Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan.

The review of these activities was used as a basis to develop a set of components for a syllabus for the teaching of English to the East Asian student.

Experience
As a teacher in a "disadvantaged area" of the Los Angeles City Schools (LACS), the author noted that the problem of English learning for non-English speakers in the school system presented itself in several different instances. Many of the Spanish-speaking families had been in the area for three or four generations, yet Spanish was still the only language spoken in the home.

In one particular fifth-grade class, a Chinese and a Spanish student understood much of what was said in the classroom in the form of instruction and direction. It was established that their first
responsibility was to ask questions in order to clarify any of the daily discussions that they had not understood. This soon became a habit and assignments were usually completed; otherwise, a short session was arranged after school or the work was sent home as the parents in both cases were cooperative and encouraged learning.

There were many schools and classes in which a large percentage of minority children were usually Spanish-speakers. One school principal perceived these children to be "not smart because of the language problem, but good citizens." A teacher described her class as "an all-F class (that gave no trouble because), They're good kids."

After hearing of the interest of the author in the Laubach Method, another principal asked her help in finding suitable materials which would be helpful to prepare recently arrived Cubans for junior high school. A review of materials revealed that there were very few available. Those that were available had not been found useful. There was no other recourse except to retain the students, as there was not time enough left in the school year to adapt the Laubach materials for the use of these youngsters. The personnel in these schools attempted to meet the needs of these speakers-of-other languages in the only way possible at that time--by improving their self-image.

In another fifth grade in the same area, half of the students could neither read nor write English. Two had recently arrived from Cuba and could neither understand instructions nor directions. Fortunately, two Spanish-speakers conveyed the information needed. There were many games for the use of the students and much activity
around the game areas by those who could not perform at grade level. The problem for Spanish-speakers was met thusly in this particular school.

The author also tutored at a private Center sponsored by the American Association of University Women (AAUW), in 1966, in the same disadvantaged area mentioned previously. As Fox and Barnes described, "Academic achievement among (these) disadvantaged children ranged from approximately one-half to three years below the norm level" (F&B:384). Consequently, children aged ten were reading at a second or third grade level. Many of these children came from large families. Some of the mothers worked late in order to supplement the family income. There was very little time for these mothers to sit quietly and work with their child. Sometimes there might be older siblings who could help, which was the case with one student.

The life of the average Spanish-speaking family whose child attended the Center was one of toil, great activity, and often confusion, rather than quietude conducive to studiousness. The parents were able to contact the teacher and keep in touch with the progress of their children but they seldom had time to work with their children on a one-to-one basis. The children at the Center improved their reading and mathematics skills, but at a much slower rate than it could have been if each child could have had fifteen to thirty minutes' practice every day at home between lessons. Their life style made it difficult to establish a set of daily study habits upon which to accomplish their day-to-day tasks in a continuous spiral.
Training

The author had no training in a specific method to cope with the problems of speakers of other languages before the training in the Laubach program. The Laubach Method includes a thirty-hour course. Fifteen hours are devoted to English illiterates (native whites and blacks); ten hours to English for Spanish-speakers; and five hours to writing for illiterates and Spanish-speakers. The same materials are used for each of the three phases, only the approaches differ as each is adapted to the particular dimension being studied at the time.

The Laubach (21) materials entitled New Streamlined English (NSE) and Bell's (3) adaptation of NSE for Spanish-speakers were the basis for the curricula used in the training course for the author to qualify as a tutor. The same materials, techniques, and theories were used in an advanced training course to qualify her as a trainer of tutors, first as a Literacy Tutor-Trainer (LTT) and then as a Master Tutor-Trainer (MTT). The requirements for a MTT include teaching at least one student to become a trainer-of-tutors.

Additional training each year was gained through regional or national conferences. Some of the courses completed were those in Adult Basic Education and English-as-a-Second-Language, workshops conducted by Betty Frey, using her textbook Teaching English as a Second Language. Another course completed was an eighteen-hour writing course for adaptation of Laubach materials in New Streamlined English for use in three areas: illiteracy, Spanish-speakers, and American Indians.

Teaching the Laubach Method to speakers of other languages included teaching East Asian students, either on a one-to-one basis
or in small groups, and also classes of Spanish-speakers. In many instances, the supplementary materials devised by Laubach for Spanish-speakers in California were not applicable for the East Asian students. Moreover, after having several successive East Asian students, the author discovered that they seemed to have similar needs, but different from those of Spanish-speakers.

Fries suggested that contrastive studies should be made by exercises of English with the language of the speaker. He admonished that the language of the speaker should be used as a guide when learning English. Education for many foreign speaking students had deviated from this premise. For example, the book written by Alter et al (1) showed thirteen different nationality groups on the cover, supposedly all learning from one book.

The author's specialized training which applied directly to teaching English to students whose first language was not English included courses in Reading and Linguistics at California State University, Northridge and visits to language institutes such as the English Language Training Centre in Hong Kong and the English Language School in Los Angeles. Both institutes incorporated linguistic principles in their audio centers.

The course in reading included diagnosis and prescription and practical application of skills study for the specific problems of the student(s) involved. The course in Linguistics gave an overview of structural linguistics, transformational grammar, and psycholinguistics as applied to speakers of English or to speakers whose first language or dialect was not the standard English found in writing. Observations and analyses of the procedures, methods, and materials
in audio-centers were conducted in Hong Kong, Japan, and Los Angeles.

The foundation for the changes in curriculum for East Asians evolved through reading and practical application of principles learned through research papers and an educational field trip to the three countries referred to as East Asia in this project: Taiwan and Hong Kong, where Chinese is the dominate language, Korea, and Japan. The papers and the field trip concentrated on procedures, methods, and materials for teaching English-as-a-second language. The first paper was an overview of eight techniques used within the United States to teach Spanish-speakers. The second paper was a review of literature on teaching English to the "different" East Asian child, and the third paper was an overview of the history of education and a comparison of the languages in the three countries visited on the field trip.

Research in the field through field trips to East Asian countries was made possible as a student aboard the U.S.S. Universe Campus (Chapman College, World Campus Afloat). The author obtained interviews and made observations of people in the countries who were teachers or users of English-as-a-second language.

Interviews were conducted with two teachers of English in two rooftop schools in Hong Kong, reputed to be the best of the private systems. The older teacher had taught English for about thirty years in Southern China and Hong Kong (since 1965). The second teacher was very young and had always attended schools in Hong Kong. They, therefore, represented the "old" and the "new" approaches spanning three generations. Both teachers spoke excellent English and both
taught in schools where no other staff members spoke English.

The interviews resulted in a great deal of useful information including methods used to cope with specific problems common to speakers of Cantonese, materials that were used throughout the first six grades, and the tests given before entering the next level, the middle school. The regularly used materials were written by J. B. Heaton, published by Longman Group (Far East) Ltd, Quarry Bay, Hong Kong, 1968. The teacher's manual explained the four steps of the program: form words, vocabulary items, preparation for sentence-response drill, and follow-up (written work) for each lesson. Advantages of educational television classes on English were discussed.

A tour of an English Language Training Centre included a film and a brochure prepared for in-service training of teachers of English in the Hong Kong schools. The brochure contained the schedule of linguistic progression used for the eighteen-day in-service course. A lecture explained the way the English Language Training Centre accomplished the excellent results for students who enrolled in order to improve their aural-oral competency.

In Seoul, Korea, the author met with two English majors whose daily professional responsibilities required knowledge of English. One of them had been instrumental in organizing an English-speaking club. A four-hour observation was made of the practice of English by club members through discussion and speaking, lectures by instructors, and singing in English.

In Taiwan, the author visited summer sessions which prepare students for tests that would enable them to continue their education. As Mandarin was the dialect spoken in Taiwan, it presented
different problems in the process of learning English as opposed to those experienced by speakers of Cantonese in Hong Kong.

In Japan, the schools were closed for the summer. As partial requirement for the course for the students aboard the U.S.S. Universe Campus, the author attended lectures given by professors of Education, Anthropology, and History. The lectures were on Japanese education and literacy.

The author conducted daily classes aboard the U.S.S. Universe Campus for the passengers and students. The average attendance was thirty-five to sixty students. The purpose of the class was to aid the Asians in understanding the United States and what to expect when they arrived. The classes also included the practice of English.

Two graduate students explained the sequence of methods, materials, and the results of audio centers in their countries, Korea and Japan. The materials and time schedules were almost identical to those used in the English Language Training Centre in Hong Kong. It was unanimously agreed by those who completed the course that their oral communication ability increased a great deal, and that they learned from materials based on linguistic principles and practices.

The "Advantaged," "Different" East Asian

The cultural and language differences between Spanish-speakers and East Asians as observed by this writer as she worked with the two groups soon became apparent. The Spanish-speakers were activity-oriented learners who seemed to function well amid confusion and noise. Their dedication and joy in learning English was heartwarming. Attendance was regular, and the students often
related experiences which exemplified their appreciation of the benefit their lessons wrought both socially and vocationally.

In contrast, one of the Asian students who lived in Korea all her life, failed to learn English from five previous instructors because they either talked too loudly or too fast, or exhibited a lack of understanding of the Asian student as an individual.

The Asian students were enthusiastic and responsive in a quiet and reserved way. Lessons lasted three hours and continued over a four-year period. Homework was completed, and every word was learned and used in dictated sentences. Sometimes the words were first "written in the air," but always learned and seldom needed relearning. There were no letters that were not meticulously and perfectly rendered in manuscript at first and then later in cursive writing.

The oral-aural exercises devised by Bell in the Teacher's Guide for Teaching English as a Second Language which the author used as part of the course on teaching English-as-a-second language soon became boring to the students. They seemed to feel more secure when they had a book in front of them and reading and writing were done simultaneously with charts from Laubach's New Streamlined English materials. It was at that time that the author came to the realization that there seemed to be a deeper, "cultural" and "language" need for combining reading and writing for these students and the oral-aural practice was kept at a minimum. This resulted in a different approach to English as a second language which bore little resemblance to the standard ESL approach used previously with illiterates and Spanish-speakers. Among other things, this new
approach challenged Bell's statement on the use of the dictionary by the students, which she felt was the last skill needing mastery by a student of another language.

Summary

Chapter three reviewed the experiences of the author as a teacher and as a student on a field trip to East Asia, to validate observations and experiments used in the development of a new technique to teach East Asian students, after the author had taught in, and explored materials for classes for East Asian students for seven years and had found that methods and materials as written were often not applicable to East Asian students.
Chapter 4
A New Approach: Teaching the English Language to East Asians (TELEA)

Introduction

Historically, language training in the classroom put great stress on formal, "standard" English as the model. There was stress on using complete sentences in aural-oral or aural-linguistic exercises. It was soon noticeable, however, that the only people who spoke in complete sentences and who used a formalized type of conversational English were students who were learning English as a second language. It was concluded, therefore, that students should learn a more informal vocabulary to be used in their immediate lives, as well as the more formalized English necessary in most other situations.

A different approach was recognized by the author as being necessary for East Asian students. Practice in hearing and speaking was necessary, but it was also necessary that the student knew each sound had a graphic counterpart. Otherwise, as was often expressed by the students, "Everything sounded alike." Synthetic phonics gave the pupils the ability to hear the different, individual, sounds of parts of words which were then reassembled for pronunciation. It was essential to word recognition that students understood letter-sound relationships both auditorially and visually before attempting to pronounce them. Bad habits would soon develop if the letters were not completely understood in this manner. Books became an essential
part of every lesson as it was observed that the use of books contributed to a definite sense of security that was otherwise lacking.

Auditory and visual discrimination were developed through listening and viewing. When a synthetic aural technique, without the use of a book, was used to learn specific structures it could immediately be transferred to a conversational-type situation rather than to utterance-response type exercises which the students may never use again outside the classroom. For example, each lesson included the use of Laubach materials which showed words and beginning letters of those words on a chart for sound and identification, a story to read, and writing exercises to reinforce the material in the lesson.

The purpose of the chart was to teach the chart words, the beginning sound of each chart word, and the name of the letter that stands for each beginning sound. The purpose of the story was to give practice in reading a simple story using the chart words and a few other words and to help the student recognize new words by sight through seeing them repeated several times in the story. The purpose of the writing was to teach the student to write the first letter of each key word.

There were five charts (see Appendix 1) in the Laubach materials to teach thirty-one phonemes: the consonants, the vowels, and the beginning and ending sounds: /kw/, /sh/, /ch/, /th/, and /ks/. Each chart had four columns denoting four steps, to teach six different phonemes. The same procedure was used to teach each chart. The story included sentences to teach several sentence patterns, and the writing section included practice of the materials to teach the words and letters in the lesson. Writing was used both in class and for
homework assignments.

The same materials could be used as the basis for both children and adults, beginning at the lower (children's) level and adapting the learning pace of each student (7:130). It was necessary to also consider the psychological and maturational levels of the two groups.

This program, called the Teaching of the English Language to East Asians (TELEA), coined by this author, utilized the coordinate system of teaching bilingual learners advocated by Carroll (5). It was a direct method in which the use of the learner's native language would be minimized or avoided altogether, thereby making it more like the ESL approach. The author observed a significant semantic transfer of pronunciation, intonation, and syntax if teaching proceeded in this manner.

Basic Differences of English and Chinese

In America, as well as in China, the more developed the culture became the more simplistic the language became. Modern Chinese and American English, consequently, are more simplistic than that of Ancient Chinese when there was only one dialect spoken and that of Chaucerian English. Because the culture of China is much older than that of America, the syntactical structure of Chinese is much more simplistic than that of English today (23).

There are two broad types of structural grammar classifications which aid the teaching of English, the form words and the function words. The form words are the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs of English grammar. The function words are articles,
infinitives, prepositions, and other small words.

In the three East Asian languages, the nouns do not have plurals and possessives, and the verbs do not have tenses. Since there are no infinitives, articles as such, and prepositions in the languages of the students, these areas were given special stress. It was noted that the Chinese article a, however, was very specific and complex compared to the English a. The Chinese a refers to the noun which it modifies and varies according to that noun. A should be used as a unit of measure rather than a general article. Word order is quite similar to that in English. As most of the 10,000 immigrants who are expected to come to the United States each year will be native speakers of one or more of the several dialects of Cantonese Chinese (36, 29, 19), the basic differences of the two languages can be incorporated in the development of teacher-made materials for the classroom (see Appendix 2).

Components of the Instructional Program

The program followed a set sequence unless the needs of an individual student dictated otherwise:

1. Introduction to the sounds in the entire English phonemic system.
2. Introduction to the basic word-order structures.
3. Practices on the inflections used most frequently.
4. Drill on form and function words.
5. Functional application of basic English structures.

This sequence was achieved through interweaving materials based on the linguistic principles of the sound system (phonology), the structures (syntax), the vocabulary (semantics), understanding and
discussion of cultural concepts, and language skills developed through
the receptive and productive skills. An additional skill was often
incorporated while one skill or another was emphasized in the lesson.
The sequence incorporated the experiences and activities of the stu-
dents as encountered in the total curriculum. Evaluation by the
teacher was continuous.

The materials from one level led naturally and sequentially
to the next level. The materials were graded (e.g., regularities were
taught before the exceptions). There was constant reinforcement of
materials learned previously. The spiral approach was used. For
instance, in learning vocabulary, the sequence went from "father/
mother," to "parents," to "grandparents," then to "relatives."

Specific Skills (see Appendix 3)

I. Synthetic Aural Reception
   A. Auditory Discrimination--Discrimination of different
      speech sounds (phonemes)
      1. Taped materials
         a. stories from language lessons
         b. literature (native and American)
            (1) folk or fairy tales
            (2) historical stories
            (3) adventure stories
         c. Poetry
            (1) nursery rhymes
            (2) verses
            (3) nonsense verses
In addition, music was enjoyed by the students. The children were enthusiastic about television programs such as "Sesame Street" and "Electric Company," or children's songs and activities within the classroom.

B. Teacher-read materials

1. All the stories to be read by students in class
2. Materials for listening for the development of auditory discrimination
   a. Well-known stories (folk or fairy tales)
   b. Narrative paragraphs (from newspapers, magazines)
   c. New structures in authentic utterances
   d. Dramatization

Listening exercises were an essential part of every lesson. Listening to native models and taped materials soon became integrated tools toward the conversational goals of the students. Taped comparisons of the pronunciation, intonation (including pitch, stress, and juncture), and syntax employed by the tutor and student, produced rapid improvement in these skills.

II. Synthetic Oral Production

A. Conversation
1. Greetings
2. Transfer of sentence patterns

B. Phonics
1. Phoneme-by-phoneme sounding
2. Vocabulary development through syllables

Speaking for the students needed to be more than drill. Drills soon became boring, and, therefore, difficult and unproductive. Correct pronunciation of the words was achieved when the words were used in meaningful situations. The students constructed words into sentences and sentences into paragraphs ad infinitum.

Speaking was an integral part of learning the names of objects and simple sentence patterns about the objects as each object was presented. Speaking was sometimes taught as a separate skill, through drill for short periods, whenever a specific purpose arose. Aural-oral or aural-linguistic techniques were used only when there was an apparent need for repetition.

III. Synthetic Inclusion with Aural-Oral Skills
A. Reading skills
1. Oral reading
   a. Word identification
   b. Sentence production
   c. Intonation
      (1) Pitch
      (2) Stress
      (3) Juncture
   d. Vocabulary development
2. Silent Reading
   a. Reading for a purpose
      (1) Locate information
      (2) Follow directions
      (3) Critical reading
      (4) Study skills
   b. Building reading rate
   c. Reading for enjoyment and appreciation

B. Writing skills
   1. Guided Production
      a. Manuscript writing
      b. Cursive writing
   2. Reinforcement of aural-oral skills
      a. Sound system
      b. Structures
      c. Vocabulary

Reading was taught simultaneously with the sound system, the structures, and the vocabulary. Students' confidence increased as words were seen as well as heard. After the students learned the sounds of the letters in the words, an aural-oral technique was given to reading by copying or reiterating the sentences read by the teacher, with or without the book. This approach returned the students to an aural system and the words learned became a part of the vocabulary of the students. Since a word learned in this way seldom had to be relearned, either in reading or in spelling, the students demonstrated the ability to transfer what they had learned to other contexts and thus achieved the ultimate goal in learning another language. As the
students' ability and confidence increased, oral and silent reading were employed for practice and enjoyment, with or without having previously heard all of the sentences read by the teacher.

Writing was an integral part of every lesson as it was compatible with the learning style of East Asian students. Most words were memorized as the lesson progressed. There was often a need for time spent to write questionable words on paper or in the air. Thus, the writing exercises and homework assignments became a review of the writing practiced in class.

Because all ideographs had been memorized as individual entities in native language writing, it was not difficult for the students to recognize English words as entities. Often it was impossible to separate the spelled word, and, therefore, seen word, from the spoken word. It proved to be a simultaneous process.

Guided writing was part of the program. There was careful supervision by the teacher as students learned both manuscript writing and then cursive. The author observed that it was easier for the students to write manuscript than cursive, and that was the basis used for the sequence.

More advanced writing included unseen dictation and short compositions. These modes of free writing required attention as free writing was one of the more difficult areas.

IV. Word patterns
   A. Form words
      1. Nouns
         a. Plurals
         b. Possessives
2. Verbs
   a. Tenses
   b. Emphasis on 3PS (third person singular)
3. Adjectives
   a. Comparatives
   b. Superlatives
   c. Periphrastic comparisons
4. Adverbs
   a. Practice in word following the predicate

B. Function words
   1. Articles
   2. Prepositions
   3. Infinitives
   4. Pronouns

Throughout the program, grammar was taught through the use of linguistic materials in a spiral approach. The regularities of phonology, orthography, and syntax were taught first. Rules were taught as needed.

After pronunciation, intonation, and simple sentence patterns were learned in the beginning lessons, it was found that syllabic chunking was an effective technique for the learning of new words.

Teaching Strategies of TELEA

A comprehensive second language program necessarily takes into consideration both the cognitive and affective domains. The cognitive elements of this program are built upon a mastery of skills in a sequential manner. The affective elements are achieved
by a cognizance directed toward the native culture of the learners.

The teaching strategies listed herein reflect such consideration:

1. Provide many listening experiences. Use either tape recordings of native speakers or have resource speakers in the classroom.

2. Encourage conversation, even though the pronunciation of words may not always be correct.

3. Give the students the necessary vocabulary to meet immediate needs first. Give less important patterns at a later time.

4. Encourage students to ask questions and to use complete sentences. A complete sentence is not, however, one with no contractions or word deletions in conversational patterns.

5. Include activities and experiences appropriate to the individuals, with variations to prevent boredom. Often the same material can be learned in more than one way.

6. Emphasize the beauty of English, especially through poetry and literature for the East Asian.

7. Be extremely outgoing and affirmative when the student achieves a goal.

8. Include families in the activities for children of all ages.

9. Teachers can work together. The teacher of English can supplement the regular classroom work and the classroom teacher can provide motivation through learning centers or being in the room during the English lesson.

10. Make sure there is a sequential step-by-step program. Evaluate and summarize often.
11. For older students who are literate in another language:
   a. Use only English in the classroom.
   b. Encourage use of some English at home.
   c. Learn a few words in the languages of the students, to show that a new language is difficult for everyone.
   d. Teach sentence patterns through many modes: rhyme, dialogue, dramatization, and role-playing.
   e. Vary vocabulary in a sequence: of sentences, paragraphs, and dialogue.
   f. Use Laubach Charts and Skill Book I, of New Streamlined English, as efficient instructional tools.

Selected References for Teachers

The Asia Foundation Program Quarterly. San Francisco: 550 Kearney Street.


Chapter 5

Summary

This project was based upon observations and teaching experiences of the author, and was the direct result of the realization that there was a need to modify the existing approaches of English-as-a-second language for the East Asian whose first language was not English. A review of pertinent literature revealed few studies in this area, and very few materials developed for the students sometimes known as Orientals.

Ten approaches to teaching English-as-a-second language, and the general concepts and teaching strategies being used with East Asian students were discussed. Seven approaches were rejected and three were proposed as being partially acceptable in a new approach for East Asian students. The approaches that were rejected in their entirety were the Slow Learner, Language-Osmosis, Interdisciplinary, Bilingual Education, One-way schools, Two-way schools, and Transfer-type programs. The remaining three approaches that were considered in part were the Laubach Method, Finocchiaro, and ESL. Comparisons were made of the language and cultural backgrounds of the East Asian students, as well as their English language acquisition processes.

The curriculum design for teaching English to East Asian students, called TELEA, was based upon the training and experiences of the author as a school teacher and as a tutor in the Laubach Method which included the teaching of speakers of Spanish, Chinese,
Japanese, and Korean, as well as native Americans. A search for more effective instructional strategies and materials included interviews of teachers and observations of methods and materials which the author gathered on a study trip to Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan. Similar learning experiences and problems were found among East Asian students in both the Orient and the United States.

The strengths of the East Asian students included the ability to transfer learned language patterns to conversation, to do simultaneous reading and writing, to do "seen" dictation, to identify form words, to see the gestalt of words, and to comprehend English materials easily.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the above, the following experiences are recommended for the East Asian student of English: synthetic phoneme-by-phoneme sounding, listening to native speakers, synthetic aural-oral practice of form and corresponding function words, visual training in learning to read from left to right and to increase eye span, to analyze English writing style and to practice free writing skills.

A more complete professional preparation program for teachers of East Asians needs to include: more cultural studies of the different learning styles of the East Asians, more contrastive studies of English with East Asian languages, more audio-visual materials for the development of auditory discrimination featuring native American speakers, more in-service workshops for the development of instructional materials until such materials are available commercially, more measurement and evaluation techniques,
more standardized bilingual tests for achievement as well as diagnostic purposes.

In addition, experimental studies directed toward improvement of instructional strategies for the East Asians and related research in this area need to be encouraged.
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APPENDIX 1

Using Laubach Charts and Stories In TELEA

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Chart

The hands on the chart illustrate your hands and how you should use them in tracing each letter. Note carefully whether the left or the right hand is shown. Note the position of the fingers, whether in pointing position or in block-out position.

Teach: [Point to the chart,] Now we shall begin Lesson 1. Read Chart 1.

Teacher: Lesson 1. (Point to Chart 1) Our lesson begins with a chart. Read Chart 1.

Student: Chart 1.

Line 1

Teacher: [Point to the chart.] This is a bird. (Move your fingers in a straight line down the bird.) This needs to be done with a long, smooth, sweeping gesture. The letters to the right (of the bird) and a sound body, say sound.

Student: (Sound.

Teacher: [Point to the bottom of the chart.] This needs to be done with a long, smooth, sweeping gesture. Say sound.

Student: Sound.

Teacher: This is the word bird. Read bird.

Student: Bird.

Teacher: Read bird with the sound. Say bird. [Trace the letter.] Students: (Sound.

Teacher: Cup begins with the sound, say cup. (Point to the second.)

Student: Cup.

Teacher: What is the name of this letter? (Point to the chart.)

Student: Bird.

Review letters

Teacher: What is the sound for this letter? (Point to the chart.)

Student: Cup.

Teacher: What is the name of this letter? (Point to the chart.)

Student: Cup.

Teacher: The sound for the letter /c/.

Student: Cup.

Teacher: The sound for the letter /c/.

Student: Cup.

Teacher: The sound for the letter /c/.

Student: Cup.

Teacher: The sound for the letter /c/.

Student: Cup.
THE GIRL

This is a bird. (It's a bird.)
This is a cup. (It's a cup.)
This is a dish. (It's a dish.)
This is a fish. (It's a fish.)
This is a girl. (It's a girl.)
This is a hand. (It's a hand.)

The girl has a bird. (She has a bird.)
The girl has a cup. (She has a cup.)
The girl has a dish. (She has a dish.)
The girl has a fish. (She has a fish.)

The girl has a bird in her hand.
The girl has a cup in her hand.
The girl has a dish in her hand.
The girl has a fish in her hand.
Writing Lesson

b
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g
c
APPENDIX 2

Learning Characteristics of the
East Asian Students

Consonants

Will have more difficulty with consonants than with vowels. Chinese language never puts two consonants together.

Initial consonants—most will be easily learned

\[/b, d, g/ and /p, t, k/\]
\[/c, j/ may be heard as the Cantonese /ts\] and /ts/.\]

Stress synthetic pronunciation

Voiced and unvoiced th sound

\[/s, z/ and /z/, zh/ --often confuse the pronunciations\]

Easily confused, often substituted

\[/l/ and /r/\]
\[/l/ and /n/--Cantonese use these interchangeably\]

Teach

\[/v/ as in verve--may be pronounced as /w/\]
Teach f and s to produce v and z. Teach f before v, or comes out /w/

\[/p, t, k, b, d, g/ followed by r\]

Final Consonants—tendency to drop, glottalize, or add a vowel sound to English endings

\[/t, d, s, l, p, k, f, g, r, v/\]
\[/n, n/ and /r/ as in bird--trouble only in Mandarin\]

Exceptions—teaching to adults not recommended

\[/th/ or /dh/ do not exist in Chinese\]

Use of r after vowels. Overlook for those who have difficulty.
Vowels

Teach the vowels as entirely new sounds
Teach long and short vowels separately

Form Words

Nouns--do not undergo any change in form to show number

- Plural
- Possessive

Verbs--do not have tenses

- Conjugations necessary
  3PS (third-person singular)

Adverbs

Do not follow predicate as in English

Adjectives

Function Words

Relative pronoun

Identical in spoken sound; different in written form

Prepositions

Use same word for most prepositions

Infinitive to

Non-existent in Chinese

Interrogative

Chinese does not employ the inverted order here

Negative

Expressed with a simple word standing for not before word to be negated

Word Meanings

Four tones in spoken Chinese, represented by 4 forms in writing
Chinese article--very specific

Teach a and an; the

Punctuation marks

Many similarities

Differences in proper names; titles; quotation marks

Dictionary

Words are not arranged in the Chinese dictionary in alphabetical order

Vocabulary drill

Be sure students are hearing the contrasts wanted and not the tonal

one (pʰen  pʰin).
### THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH AND CANTONESE

#### ENGLISH

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APPENDIX 3

Components of the Instructional Program

in TELEA

I. Synthetic Aural Reception

A. Auditory Discrimination--discrimination of different speech sounds (phonemes)

1. Taped materials
   a. Stories from language lessons
   b. Literature (native and American)
      (1) Folk or fairy tales
      (2) Historical stories
      (3) Adventure stories
   c. Poetry
      (1) Nursery rhymes
      (2) Nonsense verses
      (3) Verses
   d. Dialogue
      (1) Plays
      (2) Conversations
   e. Group activities
      (1) Choral reading
      (2) Singing

B. Teacher-read materials

1. All the stories to be read by students by students in class
2. Materials for listening for the development of auditory discrimination
a. Well-known stories (folk or fairy tales)
b. Narrative paragraphs (from newspapers, magazines)
c. New structures in authentic utterances
d. Dramatization

II. Synthetic Oral Production

A. Conversation
   1. Greetings
   2. Transfer of sentence patterns

B. Phonics
   1. Phoneme-by-phoneme sounding
   2. Vocabulary development through syllables

III. Synthetic Inclusion with Aural-Oral Skills

A. Reading skills
   1. Oral reading
      a. Word identification
      b. Sentence production
      c. Intonation--Pitch, stress, juncture
      d. Vocabulary development
   2. Silent reading
      a. Reading for a purpose
      b. Building reading rate
      c. Reading for enjoyment and appreciation

B. Writing Skills
   1. Guided production
      a. Manuscript writing
      b. Cursive writing
2. Reinforcement of aural-oral skills
   a. The Sound System
   b. The Structures
   c. The Vocabulary

3. Free Production
   a. Dictation
   b. Composition

IV. Word Patterns

A. Form words
   1. Nouns
      a. Plurals
      b. Possessives
   2. Verbs
      a. Tenses
      b. Emphasis on 3PS (third person singular)
   3. Adjectives
      a. Comparatives
      b. Superlatives
      c. Periphrastic comparisons
   4. Adverbs
      a. Practice in word following the predicate

B. Function words
   1. Articles
   2. Prepositions
   3. Infinitives
   4. Pronouns
Appendix 4

A Glossary of Special Terms

Approach--The method used, or steps taken, in setting about the task or problem of teaching a second language.

Aural--That which is learned through the ear, concerning the sense of hearing.

Aural-oral--The mode in which the native language is learned--listen and speak.

Aural-linguistic--The mode in which a second language is learned--utterance-response.

Bilingual education--The general term used to describe the acquisition of English by including the language learner during some part of the instruction. Less specific than the Bilingual Education Approach.

English-as-a-second language--The general term used to describe the learning of English by someone whose first language is other than English. Different from the ESL Approach.

Intonation--The pattern of melody of pitch changes in connected speech, especially of a sentence, which distinguishes kinds of sentences or speakers of different language cultures.

Lexicon--The vocabulary of a particular language.

Linguistics--The science of language, including phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax.

Phoneme--The small set of units, any of the usual 20 to 60 in number, and different for each language, often considered to be the basic units of sound by which morphemes, words, and
sentences are represented.

Phonology--The phonetic and phonemic system or the body of phonetic and phonemic facts of a language.

"Seen" dictation--Dictation which is done with the help of reading ("open book" dictation).

Semantics--The study of linguistic development by classifying and examining changes in meaning and form.

Strategy--The plan or method for obtaining a specific goal or result.

Structure--The syntactic combinations for forming English phrases and sentences.

Syntax--The study of the rules for the formation of grammatical sentences in a language.

Vocabulary--The stock of words of a particular people.