The Multi-Language Seminar: An Approach to Offering More of the "Less Commonly Taught" Languages

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ABSTRACT This article proposes the "multi-language seminar" as a format for teaching a greater variety of languages at the high school and college level. The seminar uses in-situ exploration *as its primary instructional technique. In the seminar, roles and activities of students and teachers differ strikingly from traditional foreign language instruction. It assumes active involvement of the target language speaking community in instruction, and new sources of classroom materials. The article spells out major implications and suggests how the seminar can be implemented.*

Foreign language instruction in American schools usually means Spanish, French, or, in fewer cases, German or Latin. In American secondary schools, 98 percent of students enrolled in foreign language classes study one of those four languages—Spanish (54 percent); French (30 percent); German (9 percent); and Latin (5 percent). A few others study Italian, Russian, and less commonly, Japanese or Chinese.[1]

At the college level in 1983, 84 percent of the enrollment was in those four languages—Spanish (40 percent); French (28 percent); German (13.3 percent); Latin (2.5 percent). Italian accounted for 4 percent; Russian, 3 percent. Another 8 percent took Arabic, Chinese, ancient Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, and Portuguese. Slightly more than 1 percent studied one of more than 117 languages, both ancient and modern.[2]

Only students enrolled in one of a few universities with outstanding language programs[3]—or in one of the even rarer secondary schools that offer a "less commonly taught" language—have the opportunity to study an Asian language, a language of the Middle East, or even of the Soviet Union, let alone the Third World. Few of the 171 languages determined to be "critical to national security, economic, and scientific needs"[4] have found their way into our schools' curricula.

That the languages of Western Europe dominate our foreign language offerings is understandable. Historically, our cultural, economic, political, and academic ties to the French, Spanish, and Germans are great. Tourist travel to Western Europe and Mexico is extensive.[5]

That so few schools offer additional languages in an era when nations of Chinese, Japanese, Russian, and Arabic-speaking peoples so influence the world (and our own nation's) affairs is regrettable, but also understandable. Foreign language instruction itself swims against the tide in America. As King (11, p. 3) notes, strong factors work against a renaissance of foreign language instruction in the United States: the traditional disinterest of the average American in world affairs; education's strong back-to-the-basics movement that ranks foreign language as a low priority; the shift in educational philosophy of the sixties that eliminated foreign language as a graduation requirement from many schools and colleges; and the lingering image that language classes are boring and impractical.

Yet, even were the national climate more supportive, the addition of "less commonly taught languages" to school curricula would face tough sledding. The nature of American education militates against their being offered. The structure of classroom-based, teacher-directed education means that schools must have 1) a certified, qualified teacher proficient in the language; 2) a required number of students to enroll in

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the course (usually 20 or more); and 3) approved textbooks and teaching materials. Most schools cannot meet these requirements.

Students exist for such courses—recent immigrants; second- and third-generation students who have not mastered their grandparents' language but who are drawn to their historical roots; students who have personal reasons (because a friend is Ethiopian, or because one admires Japanese culture and literature, or because one wants to live in western Africa)—but in most schools such students are too few to warrant offering the appropriate courses.

This paper assumes that teaching more of the "less commonly taught languages" to more students is valuable—for the opportunities it opens to a broader range of students; for the hope that the endless stories of American *faux pax* overseas might at least be diminished;[6] for the inherent belief that one's life is broadened by mastery of a second language, any language; for the nation's need to cultivate citizens skilled and sensitive in dealing with a wider range of the world's peoples.

This paper suggests an approach to increasing both the number of classes and the number of languages offered our secondary and college students—the "multi-language seminar." The approach posits interesting challenges to traditional language instruction. It suggests that:

- Students assume greater responsibility for their own instruction, becoming involved in directing and assessing the progress of their own learning;
- Instructors assume a different role—that of organizers, coordinators, coaches, managers, and guides, rather than primary speaking models, teachers, and evaluators.
- Schools forge a new relationship with the ethnically diverse communities that surround them, creating educational partnerships with native speakers.
- Classroom materials come, not from the traditional textbook publishers, but from agencies such as the Foreign Service Institute, immigrant-oriented groups, native speakers—and from students working with native speakers.
- The methodology of *in-situ* learning assumes a central role in the instructional process.

The "multi-language seminar" is an instructional approach that enables teaching more than one language in a single class. The seminar consists of small clusters of students, with each cluster learning a different language. It may include individual students learning languages different from their classmates. The following addresses the theoretical and practical issues raised by such an approach.

Conceptualizing the Multi-Language Seminar: The Methodology of In-Situ Language Learning

The multi-language seminar is rooted in a body of literature developed by field-based language learners, primarily missionaries and missionary-linguists, that has developed separately from that of the foreign language teaching profession. The author has discussed this methodology, *in-situ* learning, in detail elsewhere.[7] It rests on these principles:

1) *Learner independence* rather than teacher dependence: As a learner, one directs one's own language study based on one's own needs and desires. This differs from traditional instruction in which the teacher determines student objectives, structures the class, and directs student activities. This approach recognizes that learners' needs differ. It enables instruction to begin at each student's level of ability *and* to address each student's personal needs, even if they differ sharply from those of other learners in the class. It means also that students have added responsibility for planning and accomplishing their learning.

2) *Mentor relationship*: One's mastery of target language usage comes primarily from members of the native-speaking community (rather than from a formal classroom instructor). Most of each student's work will be with a "mentor," a native speaker with whom the student works individually. The mentor could be a fellow student, a foreign student from a nearby college, or a member of the local ethnic community. Each student may work with more than a single mentor, and each mentor may work with more than a single student.

3) *Skills acquisition*: Formal classroom instruction emphasizes mastery of language-learning skills (rather than the target language itself). As students acquire learning skills, however, they master even more vocabulary and sentence structure than they would if those were the class's primary goals.

4) *Communicative competence*: The primary goal is the ability to carry on normal conversation with native speakers. Reading, writing, and the ability to describe grammar are secondary (though easily addressed should students determine them to be of primary importance for their needs).

Given those principles, the task is to provide a framework in which learners can direct their own learning, and concentrate their effort on areas of personal need and interest. The task is both to teach basic skills in the target language and to help students internalize a *method* of language acquisition they can use to guide their learning in the absence of formal materials or a target language proficient teacher. The "Daily Learning Cycle" proposed by Larson and Smalley (14) and

modified by the author (18) provides such a framework. In brief, using the cycle, learners (individually or in small groups):

1) *Decide* what they are going to learn (for the session or day) based on the visual image of situations in which they are likely to find themselves. This enables them to prepare for real life conversations.

2) *Prepare* (with the help of a native-speaking mentor) a text of what they anticipate saying. The text is a dialogue or set of sentences. It may be written, but it does not have to be.

3) *Practice* their text(s) in a controlled situation, e.g., with a mentor, fellow learners, or instructors. They learn a variety of drills and simulations to make their practice effective.

4) *Communicate* with native speakers in the community, i.e., use in the real world the passage(s) they prepared and practiced.

5) *Evaluate* both their progress and the effectiveness of their prepared texts. Aided by their mentor(s) they examine their experience and revise their "text(s)."

6) *Repeat the cycle* as modified by their evaluation(s).

The multi-language seminar rests upon principles and practices designed for the self-directed learner. It relies upon planned interchange with native-speakers rather than programmed instruction directed by a target-language speaking instructor.

Designing the Multi-Language Seminar: Implications for Classroom Instruction

A multi-language seminar differs strikingly from traditional language teaching—in the role of students and instructor, involvement of community people, content and sources of materials, classroom activities, and evaluation procedures. The following addresses implications of these differences.

The Instructor's Role: From Teacher to Guide

The primary role of language instructor becomes that of organizer, guide, coordinator, coach, manager.

The instructor cannot be the primary language model for students. (In many cases, in fact, the instructor will not speak the language being studied.) Rather, the instructor calls upon generic knowledge of language learning to guide the student in self-directed learning, to teach a *learning process*, an *approach*, rather than the specific content of a language. The instructor organizes and manages learning, helps identify resources and tap into them, encourages students as self-directed learners when they become dispirited or frustrated, and coaches them in fundamental techniques of language learning.

The instructor helps students choose what to learn; helps them use the local community's language resources to maximum advantage; offers suggestions, approaches, techniques, and tasks which help facilitate learning. Further, the instructor creates and guides a working relationship between students and native speakers. He or she trains both mentors and learners in language-learning skills, and oversees the learning process.

The classroom consists of not a single class of students, but disparate small groups and individuals who, while united in a common process, pursue different languages on different schedules. The instructor's primary role is to manage effectively what may appear at first glance to be chaos.

Community as Teacher: In-Situ Exploration

The primary learning technique in a multi-language seminar is that of drawing on local community resources as the fundamental source of language instruction. It is based on principles of *in-situ exploration*, the planned interaction between learner and native speakers, and it embodies two "levels" of learner participation in the native speaking community.

First is the use of mentors, formally enrolled native speakers who work on a continuing basis with individuals or small groups of learners. Mentors are the continuing link between learner and target language. They are the primary source for language acquisition. They are the students' confidantes, drill-instructors, and language models.

Mentors can be drawn from ESL and bilingual students within the school system. Others may be students at nearby colleges and universities. Some learners will develop community mentors as well—target-language speaking men and women from the community who are willing to help students learn their language.

Second are the more casual relationships with community "language advisors:" people who provide language practice on specific topics because of their own interests, positions, accessibility, or employment. They are identified by the students themselves as they engage in community-related exercises. Unlike mentors, they are not recruited and trained to participate in language-learning activities.

Larson (13, pp. 91-3) views such community advisors as falling into three circles. While addressing overseas learners, Larson's perspective easily adapts to students in the multi-language seminar who view local ethnic communities as part of their living classroom. He identifies: 1) people who know the learner intimately—the learner's "surrogate family" (for example, the family and close friends of a mentor); 2) a network of contacts—people whom a learner meets regularly in such activity centers as shops, front yards, offices; and 3) strangers.

On learning in the community, Larson concludes: "Ordinary people can help you learn their language. In fact, nothing is more important in language learning than contacts with ordinary people. You may start your development in school under the supervision of teachers, but you'll never finish it without ordinary people."

Language-learning based on community interchange rests on careful planning. While close proximity to speakers of another language—whether they be mentors or community folks—is essential if students are to learn from native speakers, proximity alone does not *automatically* lead to language fluency. As advocated herein, *in-situ* exploration assumes that language-learning activities are carefully designed, practiced, executed, and evaluated, and that the learner-mentor relationship is developed carefully. One doesn't merely send a learner into the community to "hang out;" nor does one throw learner and native speaker together and expect them magically to learn from each other.

The mechanics of the learner-mentor relationship are vital to effective implementation of a multi-language seminar. We shall return to those relationships in more detail in a later section of this paper. First, however, let us explore major implications of the approach for the classroom.

Goal-Setting: An Emphasis on Definition

In a traditional foreign language class, the teacher sets goals, defines student tasks, and plans exercises for students. In the multi-language seminar, however, each student must define his or her own goals, a task for which many are ill-prepared. Goal definition is an important component of classroom work. Goal-setting exercises should teach students to:

- Describe in performance terms what they expect of themselves.
- Set realistic, yet challenging expectations.
- Develop an on-going goal-setting and monitoring process that allows them to appraise their own performance and redefine their goals as they progress.
- Determine appropriate performance objectives.
- Devise and practice appropriate learning activities.

Students enroll in a multi-language seminar because their goals are different from those of most students. The task is to help them turn those expectations into precise, clear goals and objectives that guide their own self-directed learning. The instructor's role is a new one: first, to introduce students to realistic expectations based on the experiences of other learners (e.g., such proficiencies as the "Language Learner's Proficiency Scale" [Marshall, 17]); and second, to give them experience in defining relevant goals and objectives for their own participation in the seminar.[8]

In short, goal definition and practice in writing goals and performance objectives is a crucial skill needed by the student in a multi-language seminar. The instructor cannot assume that students automatically understand how to convert their general aspirations into specific goals that can guide their learning.

Classroom Materials: The Search for Texts

Text development in *in-situ* learning is an integral part of the learning process. Learning depends not upon a published text, but upon each learner's ability to develop with his or her mentor realistic passages in the target language. Thus, the primary challenge lies in identifying and recruiting native speaking community members rather than purchasing textbooks. One looks to the community, rather than textbook publishers, as the primary resource for language expertise.

How do we find mentors? We seek them out in their communities. We go into the neighborhood, meet people, and recruit them. If we don't know the location of a particular ethnic or language group, we use the yellow pages, the newspapers or city hall to find out. We:

- Identify ethnic churches, associations, stores and restaurants as initial contacts to learn the general location of ethnic communities and/or identify gatekeepers to target-language speaking populations.[9]
- Collect newspaper accounts to learn of ethnic groups and ethnic events that might lead to members of the appropriate target language groups.[10]
- Identify cultural-appreciation, interchange, study groups likely to have an interest and knowledge of the appropriate target language groups. These might include associations of returned Peace Corps Volunteers, exchange programs such as Sister Cities, and city human relations commissions.[11]
- Contact the appropriate offices of a nearby university or college—including the foreign student affairs office, language department, and geographic area study programs—to identify individual foreign students, faculty members with overseas experience, and American students with interest in particular countries and languages.
- Scour the literature that identifies national and local organizations and interest groups, and discusses history and location of various immigrant groups in the U.S.[12]

Many students (and most teachers) feel a need to supplement *in-situ* approaches with written and audiovisual materials. For student groups who want to study such languages as Russian, Japanese, and Chinese, abundant materials exist. For many "exotic" languages, written and/or audiovisual materials prepared by the U.S. government can be obtained with relative ease (though with some expense). Materials are readily available in

Hungarian, Greek, Fula, Igbo, Swahili, Swedish, Shona, Sinhalese, and dozens of other languages![13]

Performance Appraisal: The Community Evaluator

One unique challenge of the multi-language seminar is that of effective evaluation of each student's progress, especially for an instructor who may not speak all (or any) of the languages being studied. Instructors who cannot speak the language cannot base their evaluation on an objective assessment of student ability to perform in the language. Their personal evaluation must be more subjective—assessment of the degree to which each student seems to be effectively pursuing activities likely to lead to proficiency. Their guidelines:

- How realistic are each student's language goals and performance objectives?
- How appropriate are (the English language versions of) target language dialogues and passages?
- How well can each student conduct appropriate drills, simulations, and practice sessions?
- How well does each student seem to be utilizing his mentor?
- How effective has each student been in drawing from the native-speaking community?

An instructor can get not a measure of each student's language proficiency, but a *sense* of student direction. This assessment can be useful to suggest direction, but it provides little information for assigning grades (unless, of course, the instructor wishes to grade on effort rather than achievement).

The instructor who wishes to assess student performance in terms of proficiency must become a coordinator rather than an evaluator, by identifying appropriate evaluators from outside the classroom who can determine each student's language proficiency. The instructor may, as Jorden (10) suggests, bring in visiting *examiners* from nearby colleges and universities. Further, evaluation may be used as an opportunity to identify and elicit assistance from community members who are fluent in the target languages, *honored mentors*, esteemed speakers recognized by the target language community for their language proficiency.

In either case, the instructor's evaluative task is to make sure that outside *examiners* or *honored mentors* use an objective set of criteria to evaluate performance, most likely something patterned on the Foreign Service Institute-type oral proficiency examination![14]. For the classroom instructor, the evaluative role is as coordinator rather than as tester.

Implementing the Multi-Language Seminar: Techniques for Mentor-Based Learning

Fundamental to a successful multi-language seminar is involvement of target-language speaking mentors. A mentorship is a planned learning experience directed by the language learner but guided by a native speaker —and conducted under the supervision of a classroom instructor. Roles of both learner and mentor must be carefully defined by the instructor, and each must be trained in performing those roles effectively.

Learner and Mentor Roles: A Definition of Duties

In a mentorship, the native speaker agrees to assist a learner in an organized, learner-directed program of language acquisition. The learner:

- Sets long-term learning goals and daily objectives.
- Determines the content of each "lesson" or study period.
- Plans specific learning events, including language exercises.
- Trains the mentor in techniques that best fit the learner's individual learning style.

In that same mentorship, the mentor:

- Serves as the primary language role model, i.e. the speaker whose voice the learner initially mimics for pronunciation, tone, phrasing.
- Develops, based on the learner's lesson, basic dialogues and passages that capture the essence of the learner's meaning in acceptable target language.
- Conducts drills and exercises that enable the learner to master basic dialogues and passages.
- Identifies learner errors and develops and conducts exercises and drills to correct common mistakes or language misuse.
- Helps evaluate learner performance in relation to his/her goals.

A good mentorship mirrors a good teacher/student relationship. Yet, in some ways it differs sharply. In a mentorship, the learners, not the teacher, provide fundamental direction in deciding the language content they wish to learn, i.e. language needed to function in a certain situation or to express particular meaning. The mentor interprets language intent into the target language and guides the learner in mastering that language. The mentor follows. But the mentor also leads—he or she designs appropriate drills, corrects behavior, suggests exercises and tasks, and proposes language to be learned.

A good mentor isn't an errand boy or girl, one who merely translates the wishes of the learner into the target language. A good mentor at times rejects the suggestions of the learner, offers alternatives, pushes the learner in different directions. Good mentors are forceful enough to disagree and to point out errors; skilled enough to dream up alternatives; clever enough to keep lessons moving, varied, interesting; observant enough to know when to repeat, when to press, when to step back.

Good mentors are guides and interpreters beyond

direct language learning. They understand the culture with which the target language is imbued. They understand how language use fits that culture, and use language learning as an entree to cultural understanding. They point out cues that an initial learner cannot see or hear. They interpret actions that the learner may not have noticed, but that have conveyed important meaning to others. They give meaning to events the learner does not understand. They play important social roles beyond that of a teacher—as the learner's passport to events in the target-language community, gatherings, discussions open only to insiders; as the legitimizers of the learner's presence in special places; as the interpreters who smooth over learner indiscretions, ill-chosen remarks, unintentional offenses; as the explainers of the learner's behavior to bewildered language-mates.

A good mentorship consumes time and involves cooperative planning, listening to each other, attempting to communicate despite language differences. It means developing a close working relationship, training each other, and agreeing on ground rules based on mutual respect and trust.

The "good mentorship" is the ideal, a goal, a concept. Sometimes these mentorships will be embodied in a single person, but unfortunately human relationships seldom reach the ideal. Superheroes, like award-winning teachers, aren't available for every classroom. More often, learners develop friendships with several people, each of whom will have some of the characteristics of an ideal mentor.

The ideal is portrayed, not because mentorship must mirror the ideal before the *in-situ* concept works, but because the ideal defines parameters. The goal is to identify and work with native speakers who can help students in the multi-language seminar learn their target languages. Any relationship that contributes to that will be a successful one.

Mentor Compensation: What Price Assistance?

Being a mentor is time consuming and difficult. Many mentors will be overjoyed that they have been able to help such awkwardly tongued students master the sounds they take for granted. Yet, while great reward may exist in knowing that one has done a difficult job well, compensation for a mentor ought to be more than pride. It should be commensurate with the time, devotion, skill, and ability a mentor has brought to student language progress.

Certainly mentors should be paid. But the program doesn't depend upon massive infusions of money to make it go; other options exist:

- Offer credit—either advanced language credit in the target language (as they assist learners, mentors will find themselves exploring their own language and learning as much, if not more, than those with whom they work) or "assistantship" credit.
- Offer a joint ESL/language double class in which mentors work on their English-speaking skills, becoming themselves the student learning from an English-speaking mentor. (Make sure, however, that a mentor's English-language mentor is different from his target language student. Not to do so is to confuse the roles and torpedo the learner/mentor relationship; English and target-language usage must be kept separate.)
- For community mentors, offer an English-language program supervised by school personnel and staffed by parents from foreign language classes.

Probably most desirable is an exchange-type program in which students of the multi-language seminar "pay" by serving as English-language mentors. Not only are mentors compensated, seminar students further develop language-learning skills by performing as mentors as well as target language learners.

Mentor and Learner Training: Practice in Different Roles

In a multi-language seminar, the instructor has two sets of students—learners and mentors. Learners must convey their learning needs to their mentors so that the mentors can guide the learning. Because this will be a new role for most mentors, the instructor must demonstrate it clearly. Just as a good teacher must repeat lessons previously "learned," so must the instructor repeat major points for the class mentor. One can't simply explain a mentor's tasks once, then lean back and relax while the mentor chauffeurs students on a perfect journey.

To implement mentorships effectively in the multi-language seminar, the instructor needs to train both the mentor and individual learners in conducting such a relationship. At a minimum, mentor training should include:

- *Dialogue and passage development*: practice in constructing passages based on a general image of what a learner wants to convey. The idea is to grasp a learner's meaning, and, from it, to develop culturally accurate and idiomatic language. The mentor must learn to do this without rendering a direct translation from English.
- *Drilling techniques*: practice in conducting drills. Training should include practice in drilling, not just explanation. Both mentors and learners need to work through a full range of drills, modeling the pace, style, and speed that best match student abilities.
- *Role play*: practice of different roles in simulation exercises. To prepare for excursions into target-lan-

guage communities, learners need to anticipate and practice conversing in situations that they are likely to encounter. Both learners and mentors need to learn to visualize likely situations, develop appropriate dialogues, and practice those dialogues in simulation exercises. Mentors and learners should exchange roles so that mentors learn to lead as well as participate in role play.

- *Cultural cues*: practice in identifying and modeling cultural behaviors reflected in language. Appropriate language includes not only words, phrases, sentences, proper syntax and pronunciation, but various behaviors. Language learning for an *in-situ* situation must include gestures, body language, and signs of deference that accompany appropriate language. A mentor helps a learner live the language as well as speak and listen to it.
- *Analysis* and *correction*: practice in critiquing performance, identifying areas that need additional practice, and assisting the learner in performing correctly. Mentors need to learn to correct mistakes positively and helpfully, i.e., how to rephrase, drill, model correct language performance rather than simply identify and point out errors.

In short, the effective multi-language seminar doesn't merely bring learner and native speaker together. It assumes that each must perform roles to which neither is accustomed. The instructor trains learner and mentor in how to perform their respective roles effectively.

Instruction Interchange: Mentor-Learner Activities

Training learners and mentors to work together is only half the battle. A good instructor can maintain productive work sessions easily during formal class time. However, learning from mentors means that students frequently will receive much of their instruction outside of class hours. They must learn to work efficiently with mentors without teacher supervision. Good instructors teach their charges to:

1. *Lay out clear expectations for each day's activities.*

Daily sessions require planning and preparation. Learners and mentors need to understand the day's plan. They should meet regularly at specified times and locations, not when they "find the time" or have the inclination. To have productive sessions, both learner and mentor must view them as important.

Early on, establish a normal routine for each day's activities. For starters, ask students to follow this schedule:

- An overview of today's activities.
- Review of yesterday's main points, including simulation of the main passage.
- Review drills of major structures in previous sessions.
- Construction of a new passage.
- Formal pattern drills on the new passage.
- A series of simulations.
- Excursion into the community to speak with community members, including strangers.
- Excursion evaluation.
- Follow-up drills and passage revision as needed.
- Brief discussion of possible topics for the next session.
- Suggested activities to prepare for the next session.

2. *Conduct serious, hard-working sessions.*

Nothing destroys sustained learning more quickly than off-task behavior. As mentor-learner friendships deepen, it becomes harder to stay on task—both find they have too much to talk about. Learners should be encouraged to respond to their mentor's questions about them, their background, interests, thoughts (and the learners' wish to know their mentors better) by discussing them in the target language. These topics may simply be built into the learning cycles.

The mentor's role is to assist in learning the target language. If he or she wants to practice English, that needs to be done outside the time set aside for participation in the multi-language seminar.

3. *Vary session activities and techniques.*

Variety alleviates boredom and increases study effectiveness. Make sure that students vary their daily activities. This is not to recommend a grab bag of exercises plucked at random from some handy activities kit, but planned, goal-oriented tasks done in a variety of interesting ways. Language learning, while hard work, shouldn't be excruciatingly painful. Both learners and mentors should enjoy it.

4. *Respond to creativity and variation.*

Encourage students to build on their mentors' creativity. If mentors have been well chosen, they will create variations that enhance and enliven study sessions. Students must remain ever vigilant, of course, to assure that language activities lead toward the goals they have set.

In short, effectiveness of the multi-language seminar rests upon the ability of students and mentors to work together efficiently toward clearly defined goals. Much of the language-specific learning will come after classroom hours, with in-class time concentrated on general skills such as goal-setting, lesson-planning, and practice.

The Multi-Language Seminar: Summary and Conclusions

In summary, the multi-language seminar is an approach that offers small groups or individual students the opportunity to learn foreign languages that most schools would otherwise be unable to offer because of practi-

cal considerations of class size, paucity of certified instructors, and limited access to recognized curriculum and materials.

The multi-language seminar rests upon assumptions different from traditional foreign language instruction—in the roles of both student and teacher, need for involvement of community residents who are native speakers of the target language, and the source and types of materials used in the class. It means involvement of students outside the classroom in target-language communities, developing working relationships with target-language mentors, training both learners and mentors in techniques of working together on foreign language acquisition, a different approach to evaluating student proficiency.

The multi-language seminar, however, offers students the vehicle for pursuing any language of interest to them. It offers them the opportunity to direct in part their own learning, and concentrate on language learning skills that they can use once their formal classwork has ended. And it offers the opportunity to begin reversing our nation's lack of effort to expand knowledge of and skills in dealing with all the peoples of the world.

NOTES

[1]The figures are for 1982 (ACTFL, 1). Of total public school enrollment in grades 7-12, only about 18.5 percent of students were enrolled in any foreign language class. Of 3,542,285 foreign language enrollments, 39,518 studied Italian; 5,497, Russian; 6,246, Japanese (5,156 of those in Hawaii); 1,890, Chinese. Arabic enrollments totaled 51 students in 1982.

[2]Brod and Devens (4). Total enrollment in college foreign language classes was 12,464,616 students. Russian classes enrolled 30,386 students; Japanese, 16,127; Chinese, 13,178; and Arabic, 3,436.

[3]See Directory of Programs in Linguistics in the U.S. and Canada (15).

[4]See Bennett (2) for a list of those languages.

[5]Lurie (16) notes, for instance, that 83.9 percent of study abroad students went to Europe or Canada (1976 figures).

[6]For a good summary, see Lurie (16). See also the pages of testimony in Committee on Education and Labor (7), and Simon (22).

[7]*In-situ* learning is summarized in Marshall (18), and explained in detail in Marshall (17). For additional background see Larson and Smalley (14) and Larson (13).

[8]Specific steps and exercises are suggested in Marshall (17). See chapter 4, "Goals: Benchmarks for Evaluation."

[9]We assume that in general those teachers concerned with foreign language instruction know at least generally where various ethnic neighborhoods are in their communities. For newcomers the suggested locations offer a starting point to identifying likely entrees to ethnic communities. For a discussion of gatekeepers, see Kurtz (12). Webb, et al. (25) emphasize the art of gathering information without being intrusive.

[10]Careful reading of daily newspapers brings a wealth of information. We've found in Denver, for example, occasional feature articles on various ethnic communities (e.g. Rocky Mountain *News*, March 12, 1986, "Accent on the ethnic press" [Hispanic, Korean, Japanese]; *News*, August 6, 1986, "Denver's 'Vietnamese City'"); Denver *Post*, February 13, 1985, "Viet refugee extends hand to countrymen"). Weekend and special entertainment sections regularly announce special events (including celebration of ethnic holidays, visits of noted speakers, ethnic and international fairs and festivals) which identify community leaders and offer opportunities to meet members of different ethnic communities.

[11]The booklet by The President's Council for International Youth Exchange (20) describes several organizations involved in international exchange; many have local chapters or offices throughout the U.S. The Peace Corps (806 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20526; tel. 800-424-8580) can refer you to local recruitment offices which are in touch with groups of returned volunteers. Many cities have human relations commissions (or their equivalent) which handle liaison with ethnic minority communities, as well as such organizations as Sister Cities.

[12]See, for example, Bernardo (3), Thernstrom (23), Wasserman and Kennington (24), and Wynar (26).

[13]See, for example, Center for Applied Linguistics (6), National Audiovisual Center (19) and Johnson, et al. (9).

[14]See Rammuny (21) for an Arabic example. Several articles in Byrnes and Canale (5) and James (8) address testing questions which arise in implementation of proficiency-based instruction.

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