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From the Editor . . .

Now that Volume I is complete with No. 4 of the MEXTESOL JOURNAL we look forward to our coming year and an even better Journal to serve the needs of the English language teaching community in Mexico. We have a few improvements in mind to accomplish this goal. One change will be a regularly appearing section in Spanish concerning various aspects of teaching English in Mexico. To this end we are soliciting articles and comment on EFL theory and classroom techniques in the Spanish language for Vol. II, No. 1, our Spring edition. Another area of concern will be handled by publishing articles surveying the teaching of English in the Mexican Republic. This issue contains the first of a series on "English Teaching in Mexico" and is entitled "English Teaching in Mexico: An Overview," by Barbara Langworthy. Future pieces will treat in depth the various levels and kinds of EFL instruction offered in Mexico.

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Focusing on the special circumstances of teaching and learning English in Mexico, this quarterly publishes articles on linguistic research (dialectology, contrastive, and sociological studies), instructional methods and materials; testing and evaluation; curriculum planning; on research related to teaching and learning English as a foreign or second language (psychology, sociology, anthropology), and articles treating the profession in general. Review of textbooks and instructional materials are also solicited. In addition, the MEXTESOL JOURNAL publishes notices of meetings, programs and conferences of interest to teachers of EFL in Mexico.

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Articles should be less than twenty double-spaced typewritten pages. References should be cited in parentheses within the text, giving author, date and page numbers, with complete citation at the end of the article. Footnotes should be placed at the bottom of the page. Articles may be submitted in Spanish.

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BILINGUAL ACQUISITION:
THE NEED FOR A SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

7

Part II¹

Alvino E. Fantini,
School for International Training,
Brattleboro, Vermont.

Language Differentiation and Bilinguality

Most children never think about their own ability to speak. The first time they hear someone speak a different language, it is often a surprising, if not disconcerting, experience. On the other hand, a child exposed to two or more languages is probably more sophisticated in this respect. He has observed people speak and behave in different ways, and he himself is capable of doing the same. In acquiring this ability, the bilingual child was faced with the task of differentiating linguistic inputs in his environment. We are concerned, then, with the child's recognition of a specific language system and the ability to differentiate one from another. These are prerequisites for an awareness of his own bilinguality. Although it cannot be stated with precision when Mario first noted that people with whom he had contact behaved in linguistically different ways, some indications were provided through his questions, his reactions to what he heard, and his own behavior.

Developmental studies have shown that the infant begins to interact with his environment almost at once, to distinguish the familiar from the unfamiliar, the known from the unknown, and the same from different (Lidz, 1968). Similarly, when Mario was only a few months old, he showed that he distinguished his parents from other people by crying when others picked him up. This discriminating ability occurs auditorially as well as visually.

Numerous entries in the child's diary illustrate his early recognition and differentiation of sounds. As early as 0;4 he already showed signs of recognizing his parents' voices and responding differently to different intonations produced sounds which, although meaningless in themselves, reflected a recognizable intonational pattern. Between 1;8 and 1;10 several incidents occurred which demonstrated his incipient ability to discriminate languages based on acoustic impressions alone. Ten months later, this familiarity and discrimination of specific phones already began to affect Mario's interaction with other people as he began to distinguish people by the sounds they made, so that language differences had already become a factor which affected his

¹Part I of this article appeared in No. 3 of the MEXTESOL JOURNAL pp: 50-61. All references of Parts I and II are to be found at the end of the article.

relations with others. (Burling reports similar reactions on the part of son, in Bar-Adon and Leopold, 1971.)

Throughout observation, it became apparent that the child's ability to differentiate languages was affected by the way in which the two languages were used. That is, Mario's environment demanded separateness and consequently differentiation was encouraged and enforced. When English first appeared, however, Mario began to mix both languages within the same utterance. Mixing continued for approximately two months, between 2;7 and 2;8. But complete separation of languages was already observed by 2;9. From that point on, all entries in the speech diary show that Mario had clearly sorted the two languages and used each separately and appropriately.

In summary, it appeared that language differentiation was part of an on-going process which began in the pre-speech period. Language sounds were only some of the many types of stimuli which surrounded the infant. The infant learned to differentiate those sounds which had meaning from those which did not. However, speech sounds were not used indiscriminately, but they occurred in sets, each belonging to a different language. The use of each set in separate circumstances assisted the child in relating each language to its appropriate context. The more separate the environments in which each language was used, the more rapidly and the more easily the child learned to differentiate linguistic systems. Sufficient exposure to a set of alternates, and the need, enabled Mario to acquire productive skill in two languages. Since he was also in contact with other languages on occasions, he also learned that people communicate in a variety of ways. Mario was well aware that things were called in one of several possible ways, that the same fairy tale or bed-time story could be retold in another language -he was capable of doing this himself- and he knew that thoughts were translatable. Furthermore he knew how to use language to find out more about language, by asking: "Cómo se dice," and "Qué significa?" He was aware of a variety of other codes he had heard, not only of Spanish, English, and Italian, but also of Aymara, French, and Japanese. He knew that a code could be varied so as to make it sound funny or to render its message less transparent, such as in Pig Spanish; he knew too that communication was also conducted through writing or oral spelling. He was conscious of, and commented on his own bilinguality and the bilinguality of others. He was able to label some languages, suggesting that he mastered the abstract concept of language, since labeling required the ability to identify sets of related linguistic features and an awareness of the open nature of language.

Language Choice and the Social Variables

To be able to perform bilingually requires not only the use of at least two languages, but also an awareness of the basic social conditions which call for the use of one code or the other. Mario had begun active use of Spanish at 1;4. By the onset of his second tongue at age 2;6, he was immediately faced with the task of sorting appropriate linguistic sets for each situation. A brief period ensued during which a sorting of lexical items was apparent. Sorting

was assisted by both linguistic considerations (like the phonological shape of words) and social considerations (like the persons and contexts with which words were associated). Nonetheless, sorting was rapid, so that code switching commenced within only a few days after the introduction of English words into Mario's speech.

The first social variable which affected language choice was the interlocutor engaged in speech with Mario. Given the child's limited environment, the right language was determined almost entirely in accordance with the person speaking to the child. However, as the child's language developed and, also as his world enlarged, other social factors influenced language choice. The next major factor was the setting of the speech event. Initially there were two clear-cut divisions, the home and the world outside the home. The original, simplistic, framework affecting choice was revised. Subsequent revisions were made by the child as additional social variables affected his life.

Mario began early to differentiate and categorize people based on their physical appearance. This assisted him in anticipating the proper code to use with people, particularly those unknown to him. Characteristics of place were another determinant of language choice, for example, whether the event occurred in a predominantly English-speaking milieu (such as Vermont) or in a Spanish-speaking milieu (such as Mexico or Bolivia). Because there was a high degree of consistency in the patterns of language behavior which were displayed in a given situation, it is possible to construct a framework which reflects the interrelationship between the social variables and language choice. The accuracy of this framework is supported by the fact that Mario normally reacted in some demonstrable way when the language used in a given situation was other than what he expected as "normal" for the circumstances. The following anecdote illustrates the child's linguistic expectations:

At age 4;9, a friend whom Mario had originally met in Mexico using Spanish visited the home. The visitor, although Greek, "looked" Latin. The mother's conversation with him was conducted in English rather than Spanish. As Mario entered the room he was surprised by what he witnessed and eventually interrupted with a puzzled question to his mother sottovoce:

Mario to Mother: ¿Por qué hablas así, mamá?

No hables así; no blaka bla.

Así como yo estoy hablando ahora.
(ahora).

The framework governing language choice, however, holds true only when the child is engaged in normal dialog. When the child attempts to produce special effects upon his listeners (for example, to amuse, surprise, or shock) or when the act assumed some special form (for example, role play, singing, play language, or quoting), then the language choice might often be the opposite of the normal choice. Hence, form and function of the speech act also

became factors in affecting language choice.

Code switching began at 2;6. By 2;8 it was fairly well established and well executed. The child by 5.8 was capable of making appropriate language choices: he switched codes consciously, rapidly, and naturally. He behaved like a normal five-year-old- in either of the two languages, with the appropriate people, and in the right time and place.

Usage and Styles

In a sense, we have already discussed two of Mario's styles of speech, Spanish and English, in that some consider any modification of sets of linguistic items a style, even to the extent of code switching. Other sociolinguists, however, consider full code switching separately from style variations within the same language. Whether bilingual behavior is considered a code shift or a variation, it is perhaps the most dramatic evidence that the child is indeed capable of controlling varying sets of linguistic features in a fixed relation to observable social factors even at a very young age. If the child can acquire two full codes, there should be no doubt that he can also acquire other styles as well. This, in fact, is what Mario did, beginning in infancy.

As an infant, Mario used differentiated vocalizations to express varying physical needs e.g., hunger, distress, pain, and later as self-expression. Ostwald and Peltzman (1974) investigated differentiated cries in infants and made similar observations. As the child became a social being, his language was continually shaped by social patterns, and he learned to use differentiated language styles to reflect social needs. Proper or aberrant verbal behavior was determined by the social factors present at the moment of speech, each set of circumstances requiring differing "styles." Whether the child was speaking with younger children, peers, or adults; whether his interlocutors were well known to him, casual associates, or socially distant; whether they were socially superior, inferior, or equal; or whether they were in a formal or informal setting were all factors affecting the child's style and use of language. Styles were often judged as appropriate or not for a given situation, just as in the choice of language.

For example, the language Mario used with peers was characterized in distinctive ways, setting it apart from the speech style used with adults. Peer talk contained a high incidence of direct commands, many expressive interjections, frequent onomatopoeic sounds, an almost complete absence of courtesy terms and diminutives, imitated utterances, and an occasional interspersing of songs, recitations, and the like. This was certainly not at all like the verbal behavior he displayed with older people, nor would it have been tolerated. Negative feedback was provided when the child did not comply to the appropriate use of style for each circumstance, and tolerance decreased as the child matured.

There was also evidence that the child perceived various social norms even before he displayed his knowledge by conforming through his own behavior. For example, one of the most important social markers used in adult speech style in Spanish - as in most Romance tongues - is the distinction connoted between the selection of the pronouns "tú/usted," and their corresponding verb endings. To use this distinction, however, requires the mastery of a considerable amount of morphological detail. This is possibly the reason that children normally use only one of the two forms, generally "tú," with all interlocutors, making no allowances for age, role, or social distance. Adults show considerable tolerance when addressed in this way by children, whereas the same would not be true if another adult made an incorrect choice.

Even when Mario was nearly six, he did not use the "tú/usted" distinction in his own speech; "tú" was the sole form. Nonetheless there were occasional clues that he may have grasped part of the rather complex social rule which underlies this linguistic distinction. At 5;5, while roleplaying in La Paz with his parents and grandparents, he assumed the role of teacher and assigned the others to be pupils. He adopted a rather straight posture, crossed his arms, and with a serious face directed his class. The task he assigned was to translate utterances he gave in English. When his playful students laughed, he called the class back to order and, directing his comments to his grandmother (now in the role of a little girl), he said:

Mario to Grandmother: Niña, ven acá. ¡Sientese!

Grandmother: (Smiles and laughs silently)

Mario to Grandmother: ¡Cállese usted, niña!

Although he was linguistically inconsistent in the first phrase in which "tú" was implicit in the choice of the verb "ven," he did use correct forms of "usted" in the two subsequent verbs said in the command form. His own spontaneous use of "usted" was so correct both in linguistic form and in application in this imaginary social situation, that it seemed clear that Mario knew a great deal more about the underlying rules for the "tú/usted" distinction than he had previously displayed. His role as a young child simply had not required him to use this distinction thus far. Of course Mario had never attended school in a Spanish-speaking country and consequently could not possibly have imitated these forms from direct experience. Hence, their use here probably reflected his perception of the rule which required that "usted" be used in a formal situation such as a classroom wherein a teacher addresses pupils.

Although linguists generally agree that children acquire most of their native language by age five, the literature does not generally comment on their ability to differentiate styles. Gleason, in a paper presented in 1971, appears to be one of the few to have focused on speech styles in children. Her study, however, considered children between the ages of four and eight. Nonetheless, she also made a few incidental observations concerning styles of children under four, acknowledging that "... even the tiniest children make some distinctions." (Gleason, 1971)

A bilingual child, in particular, presents a most dramatic display of this phenomenon through his ability to shift entire codes. It is also clear throughout Mario's speech data that he is capable of modifying speech signals in various ways in relationship to context. Speech styles, then, are characteristic not only of adults, but of children too. Rare opportunities such as roleplay, the child's reaction to adults when they transgress social rules, and sometimes through the child's own comments, provide clues as to the child's perception of styles, even when these are not evident in his own speech. Too often it is assumed that the child does not possess abilities he does not display. Yet when the proper circumstances are present he may demonstrate an awareness of styles which do not normally affect him in his role as a child.

Styles may come and go, since they are contingent on the differing roles and relationships the child establishes with his developing world. As he advances from home to school, work, college, business, and to differing life styles, so also does his language evolve in vocabulary and style to meet these new needs. What began in infancy is a process which continues throughout the child's life on into adulthood.

Linguistic Interference

Interference is common to the speech of the bilingual speaker, arising from the individual's knowledge of two or more languages. Like other aspects of the speaker's language (both in its linguistic construct as well as in its use) interference in speech is subject to influence from the setting of the speech event. However, in most cases interference has only been investigated as a linguistic phenomenon without due regard to the impact of the socio-cultural setting of language contact. Weinreich (1968), for one, acknowledges the influence of "non-structural" factors when he states:

The forms of mutual interference of languages that are in contact are stated in terms of descriptive linguistics. . . (however) The precise effect of bilingualism on a person's speech varies with a great many other factors, some of which might be called extra-linguistic because they lie beyond the structural differences of the languages. . .

Nevertheless, most studies of interference have been linguistic in nature, dealing with potential interference, which might arise out of the inherent similarities or differences in structure. A common treatment of potential linguistic interference is in the form of contrastive analysis. However, a contrastive analysis is generally a theoretical approach to the problem which cannot accurately reflect the variable nature of interference as it actually occurs in the speech of a bilingual.

Furthermore, a consideration of interference often implies a synchronic description of the phenomenon, ignoring language shift, which Weinreich (1968) has described as "....the change from the habitual use of one

language to that of another." Although separate synchronic analyses done at different stages in time help to determine the direction of shift, one is immediately propelled into a sociolinguistic treatment, since usage forms part of the consideration. Also, most linguistic treatments of interference have studied adult bilinguals who, although they may undergo linguistic shifts themselves over a period of time, are usually viewed in terms of interference at a given point in time. Shifting in language use is more dramatically witnessed in children in whom the acquisition or dissolution of a second tongue often occurs within a short period of time. Because of this, one can easily observe the onset of a second language, shifts in language use, and often the disappearance of one or several languages often within a matter of months. Since interference is such a fluid phenomenon, subject to increase and shift in direction, it appears that it must be viewed in terms of process- and a sociolinguistic one at that- rather than simply as a synchronic linguistic state.

A second important consideration must also be taken into account. That is, since the child, especially before six, is still in the process of language development, he uses a language which cannot be judged by adult grammar. It has been demonstrated repeatedly that the child's language at each point possesses its own internal coherence (Slobin et al, 1967). Certain linguistic features are learned later than others. If we are to consider interference in the bilingual child, then we are faced with the extraordinarily difficult task of deciding which deviations are caused by interference and which are merely deviations from standard language.

In Mario's speech diary there is surprisingly little evidence of interference within the realm of grammar, in spite of a potentially great degree predicted by contrastive analyses of the two language systems. Four types of interference were noted: (1) the transfer of morphemes, (2) the transfer of grammatical relations, (3) word positioning, and (4) integration of loanwords; two other types of grammatical interference identified by Weinreich (1968) did not occur at all (i.e., a change in function of "indigenous" morpheme or category, and "abandonment of obligatory categories.") Interference in Spanish was almost non-existent, and interference in English was slight. The direction of grammatical interference was at variance with that of phonological and lexical interference. In phonology it was noted that Mario experienced greater interference from Spanish into English; in the lexical area it was noted that he experienced greater interference from English into Spanish. Hence the direction at each level was not necessarily the same. It appeared, however, that lexical borrowing was most conspicuous and occurred possibly at a more conscious level than borrowing of phonological or syntactic features. If this is the case, it would also stand to reason that the lexicon was also more susceptible to influence from external social factors than were the other two areas.

Whatever the case, it appears that a contrastive analysis serves only as a theoretical index to potential influence which one language system may have on another by comparing their points of similarities and differences. However,

social factors determine to a large extent what interference will occur in fact. Indeed, it is easy for bilinguals to fall into the habit of mixing languages, particularly when speaking with other bilingual persons who know the same two systems. Yet it is also apparent from the speech diary that social factors do exert sufficient influence so as to be able to counteract potential linguistic interference at most levels. One can only see these forces in operation by considering language use as well as the linguistic elements per se. In Mario's case, it was quite clear that socialization, plus the prevailing attitudes of his caretakers, were sufficiently strong forces which kept to a minimum an otherwise potentially great degree of linguistic interference.

Some Final Observations

In conclusion, the process of dual acquisition was not observably different from that involved in the acquisition of only one language. It is true that Mario acquired more phonemes, more lexicon, and more syntactic rules than would have been required for only one language. However, the process remained inherently the same. In a similar way, Mario was exposed to at least two cultural patterns.

What differed was language use. Mario had to learn the signals in his environment which triggered the use of one or another of his two languages. In a similar fashion he learned to recognize the social factors which required corresponding style modifications. When styles are viewed in this way, it becomes obvious that all speakers learn to use linguistic alternatives in relation to differing contexts. Hence, the process of learning the rules of co-occurrence or co-variation between linguistic elements and social factors remains inherently the same, whether for the bilingual or the monolingual speaker.

Language is the child's passport for entry into a social group, or a cultural community. Two languages permit the child to enter into and acquire the world views of two communities. The desirability of two world views appears to be primarily a question of one's attitude and values. However, for these views to exist in harmony, rather than in conflict, favorable attitudes on the part of those who surround the child are essential to permit him to grow up a well-adjusted individual, comfortable in either community. Unfavorable attitudes in either social group in which the child participates may produce conflict or force him to choose one type of verbal behavior to the exclusion of the other. Thus far, Mario has been fortunate in having had positive experiences in each of the communities in which he has participated.

It seems possible that an individual, exposed to two languages and two world views from early childhood, may emerge a double beneficiary. Furthermore, dual membership impresses upon the individual the variety of possible behaviors of man. In any case, no matter what language or languages are spoken by an individual, his use of language reflects much information about his roles, his relationships to others, and his views of the worlds. Yet language is part of his system of communication and interaction, and therefore it cannot be

studied in isolation. Language behavior- especially that of the bilingual individual - must be contemplated within the fuller context of a social perspective.

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A NOTE ON TECHNICAL ENGLISH MATERIALS

THE PLACE OF FORMAL GRAMMAR IN A

COGNITIVE ORIENTATION

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The teaching of English as a second language is a complex endeavor involving at least two sets of languages and cultures. Even the socio-economic orientation of the students enters into the complicated process of language teaching. However, there is yet another factor of paramount importance to be considered in the scheme of language skills. It is, perhaps, the most important element of all: the textbook. The textbook lies at the center of the above mentioned configuration of external and internal factors relevant to the teaching of English. It provides the point of departure for teacher and student and is too often the end and sum of all language taught and learned in the classroom during a determined period.

Currently, most textbooks in the field of technical English reflect a notional or situational approach as opposed to the presentation of discrete grammar points. There is no problem concerning what the notional approach attempts to achieve, but there is a problem with what it does not attempt to accomplish. The author of such a text will frequently take for granted that the student learners have been exposed to the same type of language education that he has received in his native English grammar and composition. Yet teachers often find that the concepts of substantives, adverbs, transitive and intransitive verbs, among other essential grammatical notions, are only vaguely understood by the foreign student, especially those from a lower income group. The teacher finds himself, thus obliged to teach grammar not only on a fundamental level, but the grammar knowledge presupposed or omitted in notional approaches to technical English.

"The principal purpose of English In Focus: English in Mechanical Engineering (Glendinning, 1974) is not to teach more grammar, but to show students how to use the grammar they already know."¹ The English Focus Series combines the notional and grammatical approach to language teaching with seriousness and effect, but only to the degree that the supposed grammar information is known or has been learned by the students. How much grammar they do know can be only a theoretical guess. Furthermore, which grammar is being referred to in the statement? The grammar of the student's native language or the grammar of English? The fundamental ambiguity of the quoted assertion lies in the fact that more often than not, the grammar and syntax of two different languages are non-correlative. Thus, noun phrases, relative clauses, (defining and non-defining), and other notions, involve a syntax that is frequently unique to English. The point is that the naming

¹ Editor's note: underling the author's.

and indication of various grammatical concepts is insufficient as an aid to understanding English language structure. Further awareness by means of a syntactic perspective concerning the grammar point being stressed is necessary.

The following may be taken as a case in point that illustrates this need of a larger, cognitive, framework to place the grammar point in context. The language of dimensions in English in Mechanical Engineering (Glendinning, pp. 6-8) confronts the student with four different ways of describing the basic dimensions. Not only is there no mention of the terms, 'noun' and 'adjective', in this section when dealing with 'length' and 'long', for example, but the transformational aspect of noun and adjective as the direct object or predicate adjective of a verb is also neglected. Apparently, these grammar points are among those supposedly known by the students in the assumption of the author. This knowledge, however, cannot be so readily assumed. In the case that they have been previously learned by the student, it would be advisable to reinforce that knowledge by mentioning the terms, 'noun' and 'adjective', when dealing with dimensions such as 'height' and 'high', 'depth' and 'deep', in order to avoid the confusion that is apt to abound if no explanation of these grammar concepts is given. Furthermore, the syntax of English and the peculiarities of the verb 'to be' make it difficult for a Spanish-speaking student, for example, to comprehend the structure of "The table is 1.50 meters long.", and "The table is 1.50 meters in length." Spanish syntax is non-correlative in this instance. Thus, not only grammatical terms necessary for the learning process, but also some type of syntactic framework is essential to clarify the structural rendering of dimensions in English. The use of substantives and adjectives in conjunction with the verbs 'to have' and 'to be', plus the use of the noun in prepositional phrases such as 'in height' remain unexploited and unlearned unless the teacher is aware that this type of orientation is necessary because of the differing syntactical arrangements in English and Spanish. Four different ways of describing dimension without a framework explanation involving grammar and syntax is too much to ask of the student to grasp, since he is given no point of reference to distinguish, to contrast, and, therefore, to understand these four distinct presentations. There would be no problem if the student were some type of memory machine with respect to the four paradigm sentences exemplified in this section of English in Mechanical Engineering (Glendinning, pp. 6-7). The point is that mature students have the cognitive ability to understand the distinction between objectives and nouns, for instance, and that this faculty may be tapped as a resource for the understanding and the generation of the varying syntactical arrangements in question.

In contrast to the combined approach of the English In Focus Series, a textbook such as Nucleus General Science (Bates, 1976) avoids grammatical orientation and explanation completely. Since it is a textbook designed for general beginners, it leaves even more to be desired in terms of student comprehension of the distinctive and mixed language patterns that are introduced without any kind of grammatical and syntactic reference. Much valuable information is presented, but it is not taught and understood unless the teacher is conscious of the need and willing to engage in an explanation of grammar and syntax in order to give the material a contextual framework. Somehow, the students are expected to discern and recognize the differences between mixed language patterns that are often presented on the same page without an orientation to the reasons for the differing patterns, (Bates, pp. 23,

28, 36, 41) The end result is that mere paradigms are, at best, memorized. Without a grammatical and syntactic framework, a great deal of material is left untouched and unexploited when it might have been generative of further knowledge and information in terms of the learning process.

For example, the distinctive syntactic patterns of 'is' and the auxiliary, 'does', are introduced in the same exercise, (Bates, pp. 23, 36) assuming that the student is knowledgeable concerning the difference. Yet, this point of syntax in the formation of negative and interrogative statements with verbs that imply the use of modals such as 'do' and 'does', as opposed to the peculiarities of the verb 'to be' and the auxiliaries in similar formations, is one of the most deeply ingrained problems in terms of error potential in the teaching of English as a second language.

Perhaps one of the basic reasons for the often continuous difficulty that students demonstrate throughout their years of English study with regard to the idiosyncracies of the verb 'to be', the use of the auxiliary verbs, and the functions of 'do', 'does', and 'did', is due to the insular approach of simply covering the material in a textbook. The notional and situational approaches too frequently fall into the limitations of paradigm presentations. Without a larger frame of reference to act as a general guideline for the proper syntactic ordering of these different sets of verbs, the student is forced to learn and re-learn the various isolated presentations of these patterns as they are introduced in different textbook notions and situations. This attitude to teaching and learning may be called the milk bottle approach.

If the material presented in otherwise valuable textbooks in the field of technical English is to be exploited and productive, some type of formal grammatical perspective and syntactic framework is indispensable in order to focus in on the target language. This kind of orientation that is adaptive and complementary would provide a source for understanding the different patterns and structures in which the material is contextualized. The disadvantage of going through each section of each unit without providing a structural synthesis for the student is that material may be introduced, but not learned in any effective frame. If, however, the student is given a general synthesis of syntactic patterns, he is able to generate new and productive language and to distinguish mixed patterns. It has been pointed out earlier in this paper that differing structures and patterns are often introduced on the same page or unit without explanation. The student is at a great disadvantage unless he is equipped with the ability to recognize and reproduce the varying information being presented.

As an illustration of a cognitive synthesis of a syntactic pattern, the functional grouping of verbs into two classes may be taken as an example. The first class includes the verb 'to be' and the auxiliaries, such as 'will', 'can', 'must', 'would', 'could', and 'should', ('may' and 'might' may be included with the relevant explanation of their usage). These verbs are grouped together because of their parallel word order in affirmative, negative, and interrogative statements. The verb 'to be' is explained separately; students are usually familiar with the present continuous form of this verb, but need to have the passive voice of 'to be' reinforced because of the frequency of its use in technical English. The expression of the passive

voice in English language structure varies to a considerable degree with its corresponding use in Spanish, for instance; and this fact requires that a detailed syntactic orientation be given to the students beyond the usual presentation found in most textbooks.

The functional similarity of the verb 'to be' with the auxiliaries is demonstrated in the simple inversion of subject and verb to form the interrogative and in the parallel placement of 'not' to construct negative statements. The auxiliaries fall together in the suppression of the infinitive in compound form. Example: the interrogative words, such as 'What', 'Why', 'When', and 'How' may well be introduced in subject position in the various exercises where they may appear. Too frequently, students are unable to form clear and correctly structured questions. In this way, when the student is exposed to a question in an exercise, such as "What can reproduce?", he may be asked to generate similar and parallel questions of the other verbs in this first class: "What is the reproduction cycle of a chicken?" "What will reproduce/ should / may / would reproduce under certain conditions?" In this sense, patterns are being reinforced and related to a larger framework and new sentence structures are generated to produce more and varied information. The same type of reinforcement may be applied when the student is learning the pattern, "Gas will expand." "Gas can/ may / should expand." The negative syntax would follow a similar pattern to emphasize the structural parallelism in the use of the functional word, 'not'.

The second class of verbs that may be grouped together due to a basic syntactic parallelism (would include) all other verbs. The functional operation of 'do', 'does', and 'did' for interrogative and negative statements falls into similar patterns that can periodically be reinforced in the classroom in an oral and written manner. The use of these functional words to form interrogative statements with and without the introductory interrogative words is invaluable, especially for the student of technical English, since he is often placed in a question-forming position. Although these students have memorized the familiar question, "How do you do?", most of them cannot make questions such as "What does 'interlocking' mean?" or "Why do gas and water expand?" The reason for this inability, may well be that they have never learned to relate a paradigm situation to a general class of verbs that require the use of the functional auxiliaries. Rather, they have at best, simply learned isolated and unrelated usages of these function words.

This type of classification of verbs into a general syntactic framework is offered as one kind of synthesis that would be helpful to the teacher and student in order to render meaningful the notional and situational presentations of unexplained and often mixed language patterns. This classification is not offered as a panacea to the difficulties of language teaching and learning. Difficulties, nuances, and exceptions will always be present. However, it may serve as a practical and general point of reference to frame the varied material so often introduced in textbooks of technical English. Neither is it the sole approach to make sentence structuring meaningful. The division of verbs into two different

classes is however, an attempt to enable the student to create and generate new and varied information while reinforcing fixed patterns through an awareness of a larger grammatical and syntactic framework in which to order paradigm situations.

The need for a cognitive perspective in terms of grammar and syntax, then, may be predicated from the observations pointed out in this article. Current approaches to the teaching of English, whether they be notional, situational, or audio-lingual, will always necessitate a complementary cognitive framework in order to place the material introduced into a working perspective. Awareness and recognition of grammatical patterns can operate as functional aids in the understanding and generation of language. It is not as if the simply theoretical knowledge of this information would necessarily enable the student to elicit the practical forms of English. But the fact remains that cognition is a faculty that adults, and preparatory and college students possess. Therefore, it has potential as a functional value in the teaching and learning of English. Native speakers do not learn to manipulate language analytically or in terms of grammar and syntax. However, mature learners of a second language are capable of utilizing cognitive forms in the analysis and production of language introduced by the notional, situational, and audio-lingual approaches.

Again, the point is not to teach grammar for its own sake or in isolated form. The assertion is that the cognitive faculties of the student can aid him to distinguish and produce patterns on the basis of the larger framework that a certain knowledge of morphology and syntax would provide. In this way, the advantages of the current approaches to teaching English as a Foreign or Second language may be given depth and the necessary frame to produce a functional and generative knowledge of English.

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"OLAF" AND THE INSTANTANEOUS
MEASUREMENT OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE SKILLS

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Introduction:

During the past two decades the objective of language training has moved toward the mastery of the spoken language. Translation has given way to conversation; reading has given way to verbal expression and extemporaneous narration. Although these other skills have not been abandoned, emphasis has shifted to providing the student with a practical and effective communications tool, the mastery of the spoken language.

These developments in language learning objectives and techniques over the last twenty years, notwithstanding, written tests tend to evaluate written skills, not the total language skill, and definitely not the oral component of that skill. Examinations of oral fluency are rarely given, in spite of the fact that foreign language courses today usually stress the ability to communicate in the target language. This tends to be true the younger the student and the less advanced his achievement. The five-year old living in a bilingual or multilingual environment, for example, has achieved maximum or "native-like" mastery of his two or more languages; but he is not examinable by written tests.

The correlation between written tests and the oral language skills only begins to become significant at the very advanced levels of adult language learning. But it is at these advanced levels where mastery is nearly complete and progress is approaching non-measurable increments that testing is of little interest. Recognizing the need to test the progress and achievement of the oral component in language learning at all levels, Nicolas Ferguson, the Director of CEEL, the Experimental Center for Language Instruction in Geneva, developed and programmed a digital computer for that purpose, OLAF. OLAF is an acronym for "Oral Language Analyser and Feedback System" and is designed to provide an instantaneous measurement of spoken language skills.

After several years of research and careful statistical analysis, Ferguson succeeded in isolating two elements of the spoken language which have a remarkably high positive correlation with the overall spoken skill. He defined these as "fluency" and "correctness". He was henceforth able to disregard many criteria which traditionally have been used to describe and measure oral language skills, hesitation, syntactic complexity, choice of words, intonation, rhythm, accent, pronunciation, and style. He then de-

defined the "level" of skills in terms of the number of normalized hours of study needed by an average student to reach a given level. "Normalized" hours are that fraction of classroom time which is productive and contributes to the skill being taught. It is exclusive of time spent in the student's native language discussing cultural aspects of the language or the country where it is spoken. It is also exclusive of activities designed to motivate or entertain the student in loosely structured social activities. Normalized hours often approach only 50% of total classroom time. Ferguson then plotted "fluency", "correctness", and "level" on a three dimensional graph. The graph was then reduced to an algebraic equation. OLAF has been programmed to solve instantaneously that equation for oral performance level, given "fluency", and "correctness".

Validation tests were conducted with 2,000 students over eighteen months. OLAF was shown to produce in one minute the same results as an interviewer working for seventy-eight minutes. Since five minutes are usually spent examining a student, OLAF produces results equivalent to a panel of examiners working for a total of six and one half man-hours. Groups of native speakers working independently or in panels, with tape recorders and transcripts of the recording have been unable to surpass OLAF's validity and statistical reliability, a remarkable 0.89'.

THE OPERATION OF OLAF

The operator has a small hand held control panel which contains six buttons. One button, "reset", is used to begin a test. Another, "pause", is used to interrupt a test temporarily without losing the accumulated data. The remaining four buttons are used during the test itself.

"Fluency"

Each time the subject expresses a complete thought, the operator presses one of four buttons. A complete thought can be defined for the purposes of OLAF as a "Tone Group", clause, simple sentence, etc. The computer maintains a running total of buttons pushed and records elapsed time. The ratio of buttons pushed per time elapsed is defined as "fluency". This figure is a highly significant one statistically. It has a high positive correlation with most of the other criteria one normally uses to evaluate spoken language skills. In an emergency and in the absence of a computer or native examiners, one could simply count the clauses expressed and divide by the elapsed time and obtain a useful although rough index of a student's ability in the spoken language being measured.

"Correctness"

Each of the four buttons used during the testing procedure is weighted according to the seriousness of error of each clause or combination of clauses. The following table gives examples of typical operator evaluations of correct-

ness and the buttons he would press to feed this information into the computer analyzing the subject's speech for correctness of response.

<u>Button</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Example</u> (explanation)
s ₁	0	He is went to the store. (incorrect clause)
s ₂	.25	He is going to the store and he bought a book. (correct clauses; incorrect combination)
s ₃	.50	He is going to the store and he is buying a book. (defensible, but non-native)
s ₄	1.00	He went to the store. He is going to the store to buy a book. He went to the store to buy a book. He went to the store and bought a book. (correct clauses, content, and native construction)

The computer adds the values each time a button is pushed. The ratio of the accumulated values to the number of entries is defined as "Correctness".

"Level"

Given the values for "fluency" and "correctness", the computer then solves the algebraic equation for "level", which is displayed instantaneously on the computer as a number, from zero to 1,000 as shown in the table below. Experience has shown that certain levels correspond to certain activities or traditional definitions of spoken language achievement.

<u>Level</u>	<u>Normalized hours of instruction</u>
0	<u>Beginner</u>
25	<u>False Beginner</u> . Phrases of 3-4 words. <u>Unable to sustain a conversation.</u>
100	<u>Intermediate</u> . Phrases of 5-6 words. <u>Often requires restatement before understanding.</u>
175	<u>Tourist</u> . Phrases of 7 words. <u>Occasionally requires restatement.</u>

250	<u>Social.</u> Phrases of 8 words. Understands most speech at normal speed.
325	<u>Executive.</u> Phrases of 9 words. Understands two natives with effort.
600	<u>Fluent.</u> Occasional idiomatic errors.
800	<u>Near-native.</u> Occasional correct but non-native choice of words.
1000	<u>Native.</u>

USES OF OLAF

The arrival of OLAF on the language instruction scene has suggested a number of uses in the placement and evaluation of students. The following are some of the most important:

1. To determine in which of several classes, grouped according to homogeneous abilities, a student should be placed.
2. To determine the progress of students during a course or semester, or to determine the progress of remedial language instruction or tutoring.
3. To determine the readiness of a student for some specific activity, such as entering a university in a foreign country, travel for pleasure, travel for business, relocation of an executive and his family to a foreign country, etc.
4. To determine the rank of candidates for positions such as teachers, interpreters, bilingual secretaries, executives, salesmen, etc.

OLAF can be used without the subject being aware that he is being tested, by telephone, in casual conversation individually, or as part of a group. In five minutes OLAF can produce an evaluation equal to that of a panel of native speakers conducting an interview lasting six and one half man-hours. In spite of its relatively high cost, OLAF is a valuable tool with a high degree of proficiency, which can be used in language teaching today.¹

¹ Sistemas Educativos, S. A. in Mexico City offers OLAF with an operator to teachers, schools, institutes, and businesses at 1,000 Pesos per half day and 1,500 Pesos for each full day. OLAF can process at least ten students per hour. Purchase price of the instrument is \$5,000 (U.S.) and includes a three day training program for the operator.

WORKING WITH PRONUNCIATION
A BRIEF ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Introduction

The ability to communicate orally in English ranks high in priority for almost all E. F. L. students here in Mexico. This strong motivation to be understood when speaking and to understand others while listening undoubtedly stems from the numerous possibilities for face-to-face contact with the many Americans and other native-English speakers in this country,

Other students, however, have primarily a reading goal. It would seem that for them that the time spent on auditory discrimination (distinguishing sounds aurally) and pronunciation (producing sounds) would be wasted. However, because reading involves the association of written symbols with speech sounds rather than directly with meanings, some control of the spoken form of English would probably be useful for these students as well.

Therefore, virtually, all E F L. students should have some pronunciation training. The teacher, then, has the responsibility of understanding the problems students face in their aural-oral language development and to give specific help to meet those problems.

Problems of Pronunciation and Comprehension

First, phonological differences between Spanish and English can cause serious misunderstandings or, at least, confusion. Imagine the problems with:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| a. She watched the car. | b. He went to Yale |
| She washed the car | He went to jail |

Certainly, instruction must be provided in both hearing the differences and in producing those differences. One must remember that it is possible to hear the differences yet still not be able to produce them correctly.

A second difficulty involves the supersegmentals-stress (loudness) and intonation (pitch)- as well as language conventions, such as pauses and interruptions. The incorrect transfer of Spanish patterns to English, for

instance could make the speaker appear pushy or rude to the native-English speaker.

Good pronunciation has been defined as "one which will not draw the attention of the native speaker of that language away from what we are saying to the way in which we are saying it." (Hockett, in Croft, 1972, 62) Teachers should help their students to minimize the problems with phonetic and supersegmental differences in order to help their listeners to concentrate on the content rather than the form of their messages.

The Teacher's Role and Expectations

Although tapes and records are useful for listening and speaking practice, a live model is very important. The teacher is vital in selecting which specific sounds to teach in demonstrating mouth positions and other techniques to simply learning, and finally in diagnosing and dealing with errors after this initial presentation and practice.

Both classroom teachers and students should set realistic goals-

- 1) Reasonably accurate recognition and discrimination of those sounds which cause communication conflicts for the Spanish-speaker, and
- 2) Reasonably clear pronunciation with proper stress and intonation to communicate ideas without great difficulty.

The instructor's own expectations should be similarly limited regarding professional preparation. He need not be a native speaker, nor does he need to be a linguist, familiar with the technical jargon and other aspects of phonology. Learning more specific information as he teaches is a more realistic approach.

Format of the Annotated Bibliography

The following selected bibliography is intended as a guide to useful references dealing with pronunciation and auditory discrimination. These include both teacher references as well as student practice/ drill books. They were selected for their non-technical and easy-to-read nature. For this reason, books on phonology or phonetics are not listed here. Furthermore, these books have been especially selected, because they are relatively recent publications or for some other reason are mostly unknown.

These books can be found at the following locations in Mexico City. (The number in each entry refers to the order that the books appear in here.)

1. The American Bookstore-Madero 25
#3,
2. The Benjamin Franklin Library-Londres 16
#5, 6, 7, 18, 19

3. Cia. Internacional de Publicaciones-Serapio Rendon 125
Libreria Anglo Americana

#2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 18

4. Instituto Mexicano Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales
Hamburgo 115
(for the IMNRC staff and other authorized persons)

Library- #8, 18, 19

Office- #6, 7, 14, 15, 20

5. Sistemas Educativos-SA (SESA) - Culiacan 83

6. Libreria Britanica- Rio Ganges 64

#9, 10, 13, 15, 19, 20

They can also be divided into the following groups:

Teacher References- #1, 4, 8, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18

Student Practice Books

Supersegmentals- #2, 7

Consonants/Vowels-#6, 20

Both- #3, 5, 9, 11, 12, 13, 19

The Bibliography

1. Bowen, J. Donald. Patterns of English Pronunciation. Rowley Mass.: Newbury House. 1975

This brand new book is not a textbook, but, rather, a supplementary manual to be used best in moderate quantity over a period of time. Beginning through advanced students can benefit from the discussion of segmentals (consonants and vowels) and supersegmentals, given in a rather non-technical way. Best, though, would be for the teacher to use this as a reference to gain knowledge of these sound features of English and to take drills from this book when appropriate. The manual is in three cycles repeating in increasing difficulty first the supersegmentals and then vowels, lastly consonants.

2. Cook, V.J. Active Intonation. London: Longmans. 1968.

A certain pattern of intonation is introduced in each of the twenty lessons. The most interesting aspect is the handling of attitudes reflected in intonation. This book shows intermediate and advanced students how to show such attitudes as agreement, coldness, and impression through intonation.

3. Crowell, Thomas Lee, Jr. Modern Spoken English. New York: Mc-Graw Hill, 1961.

The treatment of intonation and, especially, stress is well-done in this student explanation and drill book. The relation to grammar is especially useful, as lessons show the pronunciation with such aspects as the past tense, possessive adjectives, auxiliaries, contractions, and others. This book also includes sentence drills, mouth positions, short dialogs, proverbs and quotations containing certain sounds to practice and other devices. Recommended.

4. Decker, Donald. Mastering the International Phonetic Alphabet. New York: Regents, 1970.

This workbook provides instruction in the IPA system of transcription. (Transcription uses an invented writing system of symbols to represent sounds.) Many opportunities for transcription are given. Useful for teacher training classes or self-instruction.

5. Dixson, Robert J. and Elizabeth Clarey. Pronunciation Exercises in English. New York: Regents, 1963.

Each chapter covers a consonant or vowel. Word lists with that selected sound in initial, medial, and final positions are used along with minimal pairs and sentence drills. The latter should be chosen with care since difficult vocabulary and varying sentence lengths are used. Intonation is also included in each chapter briefly. IPA used. Doesn't look too interesting.

6. English Language Services. Drills and Exercises in English Pronunciation Consonants and Vowels. New York: Collier MacMillan, 1966.

Drills work on individual consonants and vowels as well as diphthongs and consonant clusters. A spelling section is provided. Tapes available. Common vocabulary. Intended for older students and adults at all language levels.

7. English Language Services. Drills and Exercises in English Pronunciation Stress and Intonation, Parts I and II. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1967.

An easy-to-use, worthwhile drill book which introduces word and phrase stress and stress markings. Intonation in ordinary patterns as well as for contrast and emphasis is shown and practiced. Most interesting are marked dialogs, reading, anecdotes, speeches, and poems.

8. Fries, C.C. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1945.

A classic in the field which includes a most extensive list of consonant clusters in the initial and final positions. Also of interest are suggested lessons in pronunciation in teaching English to Spanish speakers.

9. Fries, C.C. and Robert Lado. English Pronunciation: Exercises in Sound Segments, Intonation, and Rhythm. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1954.

Another well-known book from Michigan. Many drills and short dialogs. Based on contrastive analysis of English and Spanish. Very boring presentation.

10. Haycraft, Brita. The Teaching of Pronunciation: A Classroom Guide. London: Longmans, 1971.

A very good teacher's reference book. Many suggestions for teachers. Cartoons, pictures. Very practical in showing possible problems and then techniques for the classroom.

11. Mackenzie, M.D. Munro. Modern English Pronunciation Practice. London: Longman, 1967.

A drill book for students using the IPA. Word lists of one or more syllables containing a sound are used along with minimal pairs and reading passages. Perhaps good for a reference in preparing quick drills but has little motivating factors in its presentation.

12. Marelli, Leonard R. American English: Pronunciation and Dictation. Philadelphia: Didier, 1971.

Many dictation exercises. Work on spelling. Tapes and tapescripts available, as well as a teacher's manual.

13. Mortimer, Colin. Sound Right: Selected Sounds in Conversation. London: Longmans, 1975.

Very good and useful book. Recommended. Contains heavily "seeded" dialogs for given consonants and vowels. (Each dialog has many words which contain the selected sound being considered.) Well-written, humorous.

14. Nagore, M.L. New Sounds of English Consonants. Tucson, Arizona: Published by author. 1970. (P.O. Box 3354. Zip 85722)

A non-technical explanation and idea book which deals with teaching English consonants to Spanish speakers. The entire book is written in Spanish and English and includes many words in Spanish suggested as helps in pronouncing

an English word with the same sound. This useful book contains tongue-twisters, cartoons, tongue position charts, and dialogs, too. Recommended.

15. Nielsen, Don L.F. and Alleen Pace Nielsen. Pronunciation Contrasts in English. New York: Regents, 1973.

An exhaustive list of minimal pairs and minimal pair sentences. Very good as a teacher reference in preparing drills. Many helpful charts, the most helpful of which is the "Language Index" which lists language pronunciation problems for fifty language groups.

16. O'Connor, J.D. Better English Pronunciation. London: Cambridge University Press. 1967.

An explanation for intermediate and advanced students of the problems of pronunciation of English as a Foreign Language. Many practices are included. The Appendix lists the difficulties for five major language groups: Arabic, Cantonese, French, German, Hindi, and at last, Spanish.

17. Olguin, Leonard. Shuck Loves Chirley: A Non-Technical Teaching Aid For Bilingual Children. California: Golden West College, 1968.

A most useful guide for EFL teachers in Mexico, especially those working with children. Is adaptable for older students as well. A very good diagnostic test, a contrastive analysis of Spanish-English sounds, and error predictability are included. Suggested lessons for the individual sounds with poems, rhymes, drills, and games is well-done. Recommended.

18. Prator, Clifford H., Jr. and Betty Wallace Robinett. Manual of American English Pronunciation. New York: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, 1972.

An analytical, complete explanation, best for teachers. Exercises and sentences to analyze are included in each chapter. A good "Accent Inventory" is part of this book as well. Good for teacher training.

19. Trager, Edith Crowell and Sara Cook Henderson. Pronunciation Drills for Learners of English (The P.D.'s). Portland, Oregon: English Language Services, 1956.

The Trager-Smith phonetic alphabet is used in this drill book. Besides consonant and vowel sounds, a short section on the super-segmentals is given. Also a spelling section and a list of pronunciation problems according to eighteen languages. Tapes.

20. Trim, John. English Pronunciation Illustrated. London: Cambridge University Press, 1975.

Cartoons for sounds. Could be used for minimal pair cards. Sometimes too much like tongue twisters.

THE UNDERESTIMATED TIME ELEMENT IN THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES¹

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The time element in foreign language teaching has been, and still is, very much underestimated. It seems that we do not care, that nobody cares very much, about time and how to handle it more efficiently in the process of teaching foreign languages. By time is meant enough time, and wisely managed, so that we can accomplish the desirable objectives of our teaching.

We know that instructors of languages find themselves very limited in regard to time by factors that escape their control. But they are also limited because of factors that are within their own control, considering what goes on in the classroom. In other words, they are limited by external, as well as by internal factors.

By external factors I mean mainly what everybody recognizes but what no one has done anything about, the limited time allowed by school administrators and academic planners in the formulation of curricula, programs, and schedules. In spite of the modern world's social, economic, and political conditions, which have brought tremendous interdependence among the different countries, in the field of education little importance is given to the role played by foreign languages nowadays. On one hand, there is a growing demand for bilinguals in many different activities of our business, scientific, governmental, and cultural life; on the other hand, those who are responsible for solving the problem seem to be hardly aware of it. For a long time there has been a continuous struggle between those who decide what and how much has to be taught in the schools and those who are conscious of the problem because they are directly in charge of teaching languages in these schools. The struggle has been about the time allowed, because teachers know that the limited time at their disposal is insufficient to achieve the good results that should be expected.

We have always thought that the amount of time allotted to teaching in the schools should be distributed according to the nature and importance of the different subjects in a program, but that is not so. Even in the field of languages in general, there seems to be a paradoxical situation in relation to the mother tongue and the foreign languages: while the total curricula of our schools, from kindergarten to college levels, generously allow in every year plenty of time for the required study of our own language, which we already know before entering school, the time allowed for the difficult study of other languages is no more than an average of two to three hours a week for two to three

¹A revised version of a paper delivered at the Second Annual MEXTESOL conference at Cocoyoc, Mor., October, 1975.

school years, usually at the secondary or college levels. The results are also paradoxical in proportion to the time invested, because what the student learns of and about his own language in all his school years is less valid and less useful than what he gets in the foreign language in those two or three years. How frequent it is to read term papers full of errors by students who are about to graduate from professional schools.

I have always maintained that the study of foreign languages should be a requirement from elementary school to college, with properly distributed time, so that the target language should be learned in the elementary cycle, with strong emphasis on oral communication; in high school, the student should learn about the language and develop an acceptable written expression, without dropping his oral practice; and at the college level, he should study in the foreign language certain courses that nowadays are taught in the mother tongue unnecessarily. I am referring to courses like foreign literature, culture, history, etc. This would be an ideal situation that I doubt could materialize within a short time, but its feasibility has been proved by the few bilingual or multilingual schools that exist in this country and in the United States. Meanwhile, something should be done to break the stubborn resistance of those in charge of deciding on matters such as these, so that the length of time is increased for the benefit of improving the results in foreign language learning. Some of the professional associations in the United States, and probably here also, have been using valid arguments in this respect.

So far, it seems that I am only aiming at external factors to solve a problem in which internal factors have so much to do. So, I want to indulge in some self-criticism, because if we are not permitted to increase the teaching time by adding hours and days, at least we can make better use of the time that is allowed to us. My experience as coordinator and teaching advisor at a professional graduate school in the United States led me to the conclusion that properly managed time is equivalent to increasing it by a substantial percentage. In my visits to other institutions I could witness that poor pedagogic methods and procedures reduced the hour of teaching time as much as half. This might seem unbelievable but it is a fact, and this takes us to the issue of how we shall proceed to make better use of the limited amount of class time.

We have heard such words as "taylorism" and "stakhanovism" in regard to economic production. Taylorism is a method of scientific organization of work so as to make it more efficient through intelligent planning of the different operations, all of which result in a better and larger production per unit of time of labor. The tremendous output of the industrial countries is a result of modern methods of economic production based on last century's taylorism. In the socialist countries, stakhanovism is a method that was developed in order to increase agricultural and industrial production through a series of steps, techniques, procedures, and incentives so as to produce more and better within a unit of time. As we can see, in the two opposed economic worlds they give great importance to the value of time. I remember that I used to get valuable ideas from reading articles on psychology applied to business management, and I am convinced that with intelligent adaptations, some of those principles could be applied to our teaching.

There might be people that would frown at the ideas that I present here, believing

that all I want is to make robots out of teachers and students, or that the hidden intention is to increase the teacher's burden to the point of exhaustion, or that I am suggesting pushing the students to work harder to the point that they will develop a hostile attitude. Nothing like that is intended; all I mean is that, through intelligent organization and proper procedures, we strive to achieve more and better results in proportion to the time invested. Let us be assured that if our teaching is properly done, the students will accept being more active. On the other hand, if the instructor gets more tired, it is because his actual participation in class is more than what he should be doing. Since it may be convenient to know some of the things that could be done in regard to the problem of time, let me state here some of the recommendations that our instructors had to follow in their teaching. But first we gave the newcomers intensive training for three days, before starting classes every semester, and under each period, morning and afternoon, the old instructors acted as models and as students, and contributed ideas. Afterwards, classes were visited to see if the new instructors had grasped the idea of what we wanted them to do. Old instructors were also visited to see if they were still performing according to our methods and procedures. After class, they were supposed to meet with me individually for friendly and constructive criticism. We did not have the so called "freedom of teaching" at the elementary and intermediate levels. Here are some of the recommendations in relation to the problem of time:

1. Plan your lessons ahead of time. Be conscientiously prepared for every class, have your materials ready, and be sure you know what is to be done during each step of the teaching process.
2. Be in the classroom three minutes before time, so that when the bell rings the lesson is started immediately. Dismiss the class on time, not before. Students can always learn something before the bell rings.
3. Do not waste time calling the roll. Even in large classes you can invent a scheme in order to know who is absent.
4. Teach the class at a normal rate of speed, not too fast but not too slow. Become more dynamic, but without rushing or being tense. If the students are properly motivated, they will be more active, which keeps them more alert.
5. Omit prolonged silence and slowness when the students perform. Language learning is not a question of continuously deciphering crossword puzzles; it is a question of developing quick responses.
6. Omit unnecessary pauses between steps during the whole process of teaching. This can be accomplished in different ways.
7. Time is lost if the teacher talks more than the students, and it is worse if he does it consistently in the mother tongue, giving lengthy and awkward explanations.
8. Be sure the whole presentation of the class materials is clear, orderly, and well organized; the students appreciate it and time is saved. Speak

clearly but fluently without rushing, so that the students learn to speak fluently also.

9. Use signals instead of words in directing the class in different routine aspects. Students do not gain much by constant repetition of phrases like "Mr. Martinez, will you please repeat?"
10. Signals should be according to what the instructor wants the student to do, and by all means they should be simple, clear, and opportune.
11. Too much chorus repetition is a waste of time, especially if the repetition is done mechanically. Here, as in pattern drills, students should be conscious of what they are doing.
12. When a student is called on to perform, the rest of the students should not be passive; they should repeat to themselves in a low voice as if they had been asked, and see if the instructor corrects the student in turn.
13. When the students are performing in a conversation, they should not be interrupted; the instructor should wait until they finish and then make the pertinent corrections, applying an alternating procedure, which works against passiveness. However, correction of grammar in pattern drills is advisable at the time the error appears.
14. Do not waste too much time on individual questions that pertain to the interest of only one student; otherwise the rest of the class loses time and interest. It is better to help students with many problems individually, outside of class.
15. Whenever possible and according to the nature of the materials being studied, break the class into small groups and rotate among them to check on performance.

These are not all the suggestions that we made. We advised that the instructor himself should be objective about his methods and procedures, and the way he applied them; he should be his own critic in order to avoid wasting any time.

One objection we have heard about making the teaching of foreign languages more dynamic within the allowed time, was that the instructor who has to teach several classes a day could not stand that pace. Our answer has been that we do not want the instructor to work more by increasing his actual participation in class; what is suggested is to carry the class more swiftly and that the students' participation be more active. And we suggest that the instructor should not talk so much in class; this in itself contributes to make better use of time.

To summarize, then, these suggestions about how to handle the difficult problem of time in the teaching of English and other foreign languages, there are two principle avenues for improvement. One involves insisting with administrators and educational

planners on realistic periods of time to master foreign languages. The other approach, perhaps more fruitful because it is an internal factor within the reach of all foreign language teachers, involves our language teaching methodology and making the most efficient use of the time we are allotted to teach foreign languages.

ENGLISH TEACHING IN MEXICO: AN OVERVIEW *

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Kindergarten and Elementary Levels

English at kindergarten and elementary levels is offered only in private schools. There are 725,114 students enrolled at this level in private schools and more than half of them study English.

There is at present no official Secretaría de Educación Pública syllabus for English teaching at the elementary level. However, the Consejo Nacional Técnico de Educación of the Secretaría de Educación Pública is studying the possibility of drawing one up.

Some of the textbooks which are now in use at the elementary level are the English Around the World series, edited by Irene Anderson (1970 - 1973), Look, Listen and Learn by L.G. Alexander (1968- 1975) and Welcome To English by Thomas Lismore (1973).

Junior High School (Enseñanza media, ciclo básico)

Approximately 80% of the students at the junior high school level are enrolled in English classes, that is, some 1,518,424 students, of a total enrollment of 1,898,053. The program provides for three hours a week of classroom instruction over three years, for a total of 180 hours. Classes often have 55 to 65 students. There are approximately 10,000 teachers of English at this level.

For 1976- 1977 there are 15 texts which are officially recognized for use in the first, second, and third years and which contain the materials and structure stipulated in the new syllabi. Five of the most widely used ones are: Inglés Objetivo Simplificado (1976) by Carmen Ochoa Fernández and María Luisa Garduño, Junior ACE, by Ethel Brinton et al (1975), English Alive, (1975), by Bertha Gómez Maqueo, My First English Book, I and II by Federico Hess et al (1975), and English Through Teamwork by Carlos Reyes Orozco.

* This introductory overview is the first of a series of articles which will treat the different levels of English teaching in Mexico in detail.

The 1976 - 1977 syllabi were prepared by a group of educators : Susana Astivia, Víctor Calderón, Rubén Campos, Elsi Ma. Castaldi, Bertha Gómez Maqueo, Federico Hess, Barbara Hopkins, Librada Maciel de Garcia, Ma. de los Angeles Moreno Enríquez, Carlos Reyes Orozco, Esperanza Robles, Ma. Luisa Sigg, Martha L. Vargas, and Arturo Zentella.

The syllabi provide for 60 hours of classroom instruction during each of the three years, with a spiral approach, the same features turning up in different combinations or contexts at different stages and with different meanings. They are designed for use at both general and technical schools at this level. The handling of grammatical structure is emphasized rather than building vocabulary. Prof. Bertha Gómez Maqueo's new book English Alive (1975), has some 340 words. Each of the other four texts mentioned above has approximately 800 words. The past tense is presented in these texts before the "simple present", since students find it easy to understand the past tense, and it is difficult for them to grasp the concept of the " simple present". "Do and does" are not presented until the end of the second year, although the use of "Who has...?" to ask questions is given at the end of the first year.

In Mexico City, Prof. Bertha Gomez Maqueo is one of the best known coordinators for English classes in Mexico City at the junior high school level. (She is also the author of the three-volume textbook series entitled Inglés Cotidiano - Daily English (1969 - 1975) and, as mentioned above, of English Alive (1975).

Dr. Ma. de los Angeles Moreno Enríquez and her assistant, Mrs. Barbara Welles Hopkins, are the coordinators for the technical schools at junior high schools (ETIs; that is, Escuelas Tecnológicas Industriales).

Senior High School (Enseñanza media, ciclo superior: preparatorias, Colegios de Ciencias y Humanidades, Colegios de Bachilleres, Centros de Estudios Científicos y Tecnológicos.)

At this level less than half of the students take English: approximately 250,000 to 300,000 students of a total enrollment of 606,796. There are perhaps 3,000 teachers of English. The programs vary greatly as to the number of hours a week for one, two, or three years.

Some of the textbooks used are New Horizons in English by Lars Mellgren and Michael Walker; Active Context English by Ethel Brinton, et al; The Written Word and Inglés como Medio de Comunicación by Thomas E. Garst; New Concept English by L. G. Alexander and American English Course by Jack Morris, James P. Carter et al. Various published and unpublished materials are used at these technical schools (172 CECYTs).

The Instituto Politécnico Nacional has announced that it is studying the advisability of drawing up a syllabus in 1977 for English teaching at CECYT's.

It is expected that technical schools will continue to grow rapidly and prosper during the current six-year presidential regime, and that the emphasis will continue to be on English for Special Purposes focused on reading comprehension, rather than on a comprehensive English course aiming at inculcating the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Qualified teachers of English are urgently needed for technical schools. Newly established schools in the provinces have often been obliged to employ teachers who speak English, whether or not they have completed adequate teacher-training or had previous experience.

Once the resolutions approved at the plenary session of the Consejo Nacional Técnico de la Educación at Chetumal in August of 1974 have been implemented and the Reforma Educativa has worked its way through the secondary levels, it will be feasible and desirable to establish a unified program consisting of five or six years of English at the junior and senior high school levels (enseñanza media, ciclo básico y ciclo superior). At present students at the senior high school level begin anew to study English even though they have had three years in junior high school.

Higher Education

There are 72 institutions of higher learning in the Mexican Republic; of these, 45 are universities, 34 located in the provinces and 11 in México City. The total enrollment is 542,292.

At the level of higher education, English as a course of studies leading to a university degree now attracts a very small number of students. In recent years English for Special Purposes has become of paramount importance.

Because of the urgent need for English for Special Purposes, several universities have established language centers which function as service units but are not accredited within the university academic system; e.g. the Centro de Lenguas Extranjeras at UNAM* and the Instituto Politécnico Nacional. Other universities depend on local language academies to do this work. Perhaps the most prestigious and long-established of these academies are the Institutos Mexicanos Norteamericanos de Relaciones Culturales and the Institutos Anglo-Mexicanos de Cultura, both nonprofit, cultural organizations. The former have 17 academies in Mexico, located as following: two in Mexico City, two in Monterrey, and one in each of the following cities: Morelia, Guadalajara, Veracruz, Mérida, Hermosillo, Torreón, Saltillo, Chihuahua,

* Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

Colima, Zacatecas, Mexicali, San Luis Potosí, Tampico. Of the Institutos Anglo-Mexicanos, two are located in Mexico City, one in Ciudad Satélite, one in Guadalajara, one in Puebla, and one may be established soon in Monterrey.

Ronald MacKay, a Scot researcher at the Centro de Lenguas Extranjeras (CELE) at UNAM until June of 1976, has perhaps contributed more than anyone else in Mexico to the field of English for Special Purposes, and has had a great deal of influence at UNAM and at the Instituto Politécnico Nacional. He has started a trend which will undoubtedly gather momentum. The current tendency is to provide English language materials specifically geared to a wide range of disciplines and the acquisition of skills: e. g., reading comprehension, listening comprehension, etc. Michael Long, a British researcher-teacher at the Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, was also active in this field until he left Mexico in October of 1976. He edited the English for Special Purposes section of "EDUTECH," a publication of the Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, which has proven to be a very useful journal to teachers in this field.

With regard to English textbooks in Science and Technology, British publishers have been active for many years, while American editors and publishers have entered this field more recently.

Teacher Preparation

It is estimated that not more than 10% of all of the teachers of English in Mexico at the junior and high school levels have taken methodology courses at one of the twenty Escuelas Normales Superiores which now exist. Not more than half of these twenty normal schools have methodology courses for English teaching, and perhaps not more than 100 teachers at Normales Superiores teach these courses in all of Mexico.

For the first time in 1975 the Dirección General de Mejoramiento del Magisterio Mexicano of the Secretaría de Educación Pública provided in-service training for English teachers at the junior high school level in the provinces. This program was not continued in 1976, but will be implemented in 1977, both in the provinces and in Mexico City.

During 1976 there was no official coordination among the twenty Normales Superiores (The Escuelas Normales Superiores are not members of the Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Institutos de Enseñanza Superior, A.C., ANUIES, the coordinating body for higher education.)

It is believed that an Universidad Pedagógica will be established in 1977. Such an institution, which might be a "decentralized" federal government agency, would serve as a coordinating body and would establish minimum

norms in English teacher preparation and act as an official accrediting organization.

Conclusions

Many educators feel that the most urgent need in Mexico in the field of English teaching is adequate preparation of teachers, and that priority should be given to training teachers for the junior and senior high school levels.

In addition, many believe that it is essential that the English program for junior and senior high school secondary levels be integrated into a five or six year program, rather than continuing the present system of independent English courses at the junior and senior high school levels (enseñanza media, ciclo básico y ciclo básico superior).

Finally, it is also a widely held opinion that it would be highly desirable to continue preparing materials in the field of English for Special Purposes, for students at the university level or comparable advanced levels.

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ACCURACY VS. FLUENCY IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING¹

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One of the most important questions that second language teachers must answer is "Do I want my students to be accurate or fluent?"

Most of us, perhaps not wanting to reveal our own limitations as teachers, will probably answer both. "I want my students to be both accurate and fluent." And you are right to feel this way because these are certainly important and reasonable ultimate goals for all of our students: the ability to communicate in another language with reasonable correctness and without undue hesitation. However, I do not believe that both of these goals--i. e., accuracy and fluency--can realistically be met in the early stages of language learning and I would like to share with you the reasons for my pessimism.

First let's look at a typical beginning or lower-level course. The lessons are most likely structured so that an average student can "master" them in the time allotted. But just what does "mastery" imply? Does it mean to talk, read, and write like a native speaker in any situation? Or does it mean less than this and, if so, what is the criterion of success? And what are the performance standards? If the student is expected to be completely accurate, s/he will obviously learn less in a given time than s/he would if s/he were working towards a less demanding (and perhaps more useful) criterion, e. g. fluent intelligibility.

Many features of the grammar and pronunciation of a foreign language carry little, if any, semantic information. Verb endings, case inflections, gender distinctions, prepositions, and many spelling rules can all be inaccurately used without affecting intelligibility. The sentence "She see her boy friend every day" is hardly more intelligible if the -s inflection is added to the verb. Of course, such errors are irritating to some people and must eventually be dealt with if the learner's ultimate aim requires accurate performance, such as becoming a teacher of the language.

In the end it is a matter of priorities: Do we want an emphasis on fluency in the early stages which will probably result in inaccuracies but which will provide the

¹ A talk given at the Mexico City MEXTESOL Chapter Meeting on February 12, 1977.

pupil with a useful command of the language relatively quickly, or do we want slower progress with stress laid on accurate performance of new points as they turn up in the course? It is tempting to go for the latter aim, particularly if one believes that inaccuracies tolerated early in the learning will be more difficult to deal with later on. However, how many of you have noticed that, even when the teaching is very precise and accurate, students still find it extremely difficult to achieve a high standard of accuracy in the details of the language?

It is extremely important not to attach irrelevant and biased value judgements to the two different approaches by thinking of one as "disciplined" and the other as "undisciplined," or "formal" vs. "informal." The issue at hand is basically one of timing. If our aim is fluency, we can let the student move along as fast as possible in the beginning stages, aiming only at a reasonably confident comprehension and production of the foreign language in spite of inaccuracies in semantically unimportant rules such as gender, case, conjugation, etc. Then at a later stage we can take up the details and work on a more correct performance. If we do this, there will be certain consequences. First, some students will drop the course of study before the question of detailed accuracy has been dealt with seriously. Their performance will therefore be faulty, but at least it should be useful. Second, students who have been trained to be fluent will probably resist the teacher's attempts to enforce accuracy because it temporarily slows up their fluency of expression. Finally, there may be a problem of "unlearning" points which have been allowed to pass without much comment in the past.

If one believes very strongly that language learning is essentially a matter of habit formation, then the "fluency first" argument will probably carry a lot of weight. Furthermore, we know that inaccuracies persist even with the most stringent teaching methods. This suggests that there is a natural timetable for learning a foreign language. Indeed, the utterances of small children are full of inaccuracies if measured against the standard of adult speech yet for the most part they go unchecked because they are not thought of as inaccuracies but as "underdeveloped speech." However, if a six-year old still talks like a three-year old, then s/he will likely be given special attention of some sort.

If we adopt the more usual aim of accurate performance, we can at least examine the pupils to see whether or not they have acquired this accuracy or not. Accuracy is simple to examine, mainly because it tests grammatical rules which can easily be judged right or wrong, so tests can be marked without too much argument. Fluency, on the other hand, is almost impossible to mark fairly, which is a pity since it is a more important skill than accuracy in most real-life situations. The second consequence (and a very serious one) of an accuracy-dominated approach is that many pupils leave the course of study before they have learned enough of the foreign language to be of much practical use. Finally, there is the thought that insistence on detailed accuracy is premature in the early stages, something like forcing a plant's growth in a hothouse.

Forced with a choice between accuracy and fluency, many teachers will try to compromise: as much accuracy and as much fluency as possible in the time available. In the long run, however, teaching systems being what they are with their inevitable demands for testable behavior from the pupils, the accuracy criterion is

almost inevitably bound to win out. But the problem goes even deeper than this, a veritable Catch-22. Fluency in the early stages is very difficult to recognize. After all, if a student has not learned much of the same language, s/he cannot very easily demonstrate how easily s/he can express ideas in the language. Accuracy, however, is very easy to recognize, with the result that an inaccurate student is a much more salient comment on a teacher's skill than an inarticulate student. As teachers, we dislike inaccuracy because it's a direct affront to our teaching abilities and, ultimately, to our positions as teachers. We should not overlook the fact that accuracy tends to be the shibboleth of authoritarian teachers and authoritarian institutions

In the final analysis, we seem to be left on the horns of a dilemma. If we can't have both accuracy and fluency in beginning language learning, and if we are in a teaching situation which demands testable results, which way do we go? The answer to this question lies within your students and their goals and within your own understanding of what you're trying to accomplish as a teacher.

Personally, I believe with deep conviction that the purpose of language is communication and that communication is achieved through attention to fluency. Extreme attention to accuracy, unfortunately, tends to detract from fluency. Like the Winston cigarette commercial, we need to ask ourselves whether we want good grammar or good taste. We can't have both in the early stages of language learning.

REFERENCE

This paper has been abridged and amplified from Anthony Howatt, The Background to Course Design in J. P. B. Allen and S. P. Corder (Eds.), Techniques in Applied Linguistics (The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics, Vol. 3), Oxford University Press, 1974, p. 16-18.

MEXTESOL NEWS AND COMMENTS

MEXTESOL: YESTERDAY, TODAY, AND TOMORROW¹

Enrique Gutierrez
Cenlemex
Mexico City

Members of MEXTESOL,
Distinguished guests,
Ladies and Gentleman:

It is with great pleasure that I am here to welcome you to the THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE MEXICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES.

I am very happy to see that, again, as we experienced with our first and second conventions, we have been able to attract a great number of teachers of English and people related to English Language Teaching in Mexico, the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and many other countries. I have been informed that almost 500 people have registered for this Convention.

Many things have happened since the formation of MEXTESOL, many things are happening now and many more will happen in the future.

It is my intention to take you through all these happenings because we, in the National Executive Committee, want to share with you the satisfaction we have experienced in being close witnesses of the rapid growth of an organization we all want to see become stronger and worth belonging to.

In June of 1973, a group of teachers of English from Mexico were returning to our country after attending the seventh annual convention of TESOL in Puerto Rico. They were commenting on the accumulated experiences they had had during that convention, the excellence of the workshops, seminars, round table discussions, and the great moments they had had communicating with colleagues from all over the world, sharing techniques, learning new approaches to different problems in teaching the same language to different peoples all over the world.

They thought of the possibility of forming a Mexican Association of Teachers of English, in order to concentrate on the problems we face in our country, teaching English mainly to Spanish speakers.

We should all be very grateful to these teachers because they had the strength and dedication to succeed in their efforts.

¹ Plenary address given by MEXTESOL national president Enrique Gutierrez at the Third Annual Convention, Guadalajara, Jal., Oct. 8, 1976.

The first meeting for the formation of the Association was called for August of 1973, to be held at CEMAC in Colonia del Valle.

Some teachers thought at first that this meeting had political implications, or that it was a move from groups or institutions to gain power. Fortunately, most of us attending that meeting realized that it was a genuine effort to form an organization we all had envisioned. The meeting was long- it lasted more than 8 hours- but in the end, la Asociación Mexicana de TESOL (as it was first called) was formed.

Officers were elected at that meeting and they were given their first and extensive task: the writing of the Constitution of the Association.

The members of the First National Executive Committee were headed by Harley Stevenson as President, Bill Marshall as Vice President, Grace Scott as Treasurer, and Vivian Blair as Secretary.

They immediately became aware of the need of forming a National Association and local chapters wherever a group of Teachers of English would be interested in joining the Association

The Mexico City Chapter, the Tampico Chapter and the Toluca Chapter were formed and they then elected their local Executive Committees.

The National Executive Committee took on the writing of a Constitution, modeled after the TESOL Constitution, but taking into consideration the legal and practical situation in the Mexican Republic. A draft was approved and taken to a Public Notary to have our Association legally constituted as an ASOCIACION CIVIL, (a non-profit institution according to the Mexican Law). The Name was changed to MEXTESOL, the Mexican Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, as it is now known.

Having its members divided in different geographical areas, Mexico City, Tampico and Toluca, the need for a meeting to communicate, discuss new trends in our profession and meet old and new friends, became imperative. Plans started, a Convention Committee was formed, and the FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION was scheduled to be held in the City of Tampico.

That FIRST CONVENTION, organized with the efforts of the First National Executive Committee and the Tampico Chapter was a definite success. Two hundred and eighty teachers from all over the Republic went to Tampico to find themselves among a group of like-minded professionals, eager to communicate, to learn, to share, to spend time talking, both academically and socially, to colleagues from almost every State in the Republic of Mexico.

Prof. James Alatis, Executive Secretary of TESOL, and Dean of Georgetown University's School of Languages and Linguistics and Prof. Clifford Prator, at that time Dean of the School of Linguistics of the University of California at Los Angeles, came to our Convention representing the international organization which inspired ours and made us aware of the great potential our young association had.

There were more than 35,000 teachers of English in the Republic. Millions of pesos were spent each year in this area of education. A great percentage of those teachers were unable to communicate in the language they were teaching. These facts alone made MEXTESOL's existence valid. MEXTESOL should be the force of encouragement for all teachers to be better prepared to face their daily obligations in the classrooms, to become better teachers, and to try to improve themselves.

The academic program of that first Convention was praised by everybody who attended it and we all left Tampico looking forward to a year of work in our different schools, feeling that we had then a real forum to discuss our individual efforts in the classrooms, a forum all professionals must have in order to improve themselves.

During the business meeting of the Tampico Convention, elections were held for new members of the National Executive Committee. At that time there were no bylaws to determine election procedures. However, members understood this lack and the electoral process proceeded congenially.

Grace Scott was elected President for the 1974-1975 term together with Vince Carrubba as First Vice President, Herlinda Díaz as Second Vice President, Miriam Rosas as Treasurer, Carmina Florencia as Secretary and Paul Davies as Parliamentarian.

This new Executive Committee had the difficult task of strengthening the newly formed Association, spreading the word so that new chapters could be formed and, of course, consolidating the efforts of that first group.

Grace Scott's charm and hard work, Miriam Rosas's firmness and organizational know-how, and all of the other officers' efforts were very successful and we began to witness the creation of new chapters in Ensenada, Comitán, Mérida, and Monterrey.

The Mexico City Chapter, with Richard Rossner as President, became the most active, offering its members an excellent program of academic activities. Audiences of more than 300 members became a common occurrence at Saturday meetings. Speakers not only from Mexico City, but from many other parts of the country and even from other countries gladly donated their time to MEXTESOL, and this organization was really on its way to becoming the prestigious Association we all wanted it to be.

Vince Carrubba, Jo Claudio and some other very active members, aware of the need to communicate with colleagues from other parts of the country, published a Bulletin, which then was distributed to the different chapters. We recognize the amount of work it involved, especially at times when very little funds were available. They built the foundations for future MEXTESOL publications.

The second ANNUAL MEXTESOL CONVENTION was scheduled for October 1975 in Cocoyoc, State of Morelos. This time almost 400 members attended. The President of TESOL, Mary Galván, attended the meeting, together with Christina Bratt Paulston, then First Vice President, and now President of TESOL for the 1976-1977 term. Both spoke very highly of the academic program of the convention and encouraged us to pursue our efforts to have a stronger and better MEXTESOL.

The high academic quality, the focusing on problems of relevance to teachers of English in Mexico and the variety of workshops, talks, reading of papers and plenaries, were praised by everybody who attended the Cocoyoc Convention.

However, problems were brought up by some of our members during the Annual Business meeting. One of them was, that, in some people's opinion, the convention was too expensive for some teachers. The other problem mentioned in that meeting was, that of not having a well defined electoral process, open to all members of MEXTESOL in the Republic. I think both of these problems have been taken care of for this convention. Members from all over the country have been able to register for only the academic part of this convention, without having to pay for hotel accommodations, meals, etc. At the same time we have been able to offer packages which include food and lodging for those interested in them. The other problem, that of defining election procedures, has also been given a solution. A nominations form was published in the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER Number Three, almost three months ago, together with a suggested procedure for election of officers, which is going to be carried out during the Business Meeting this afternoon.

MEXTESOL's third year of existence was initiated at the end of the Convention of October 1975 with the new elected officers; myself as President, James Taylor as First Vice President, Jerrilou Johnson as Second Vice President, Gloria Nelson as Treasurer, Ana Maria Payan as Secretary, Antonio Cabrera as Parliamentarian. Grace Scott was then elected by the Board as Ex-Officio member; she later was replaced by Vince Carruba when she left Mexico.

The first difficult and painful steps in the formation of an organization such as ours, had been taken. We were aware that the members of Executive Committees of local chapters had direct contact with members affiliated to those chapters, but there was very little contact with members of the National Executive Committee. We felt that, except for the Convention, members knew very little of our existence and our functions. Thus, we became convinced of the great need of establishing better and continuous means of communications between the Executive Committee of National MEXTESOL and all of its members in the Republic. At the same time, we did not want to have as our only function that of organizing a convention.

After deliberating on this and many other related matters, we decided to establish several objectives for our term of office:

The first and most important, as I mentioned before, was the establishment of a good media to communicate with our membership, at that time around seven hundred.

The MEXTESOL JOURNAL, a professional publication aiming to serve as a forum for disseminating new ideas and techniques in English Language Teaching, serving the specific needs of those working in Mexico, was created.

Looking for the right person to be the Editor of this JOURNAL was not an easy job, but we were lucky to find Dr. Eugene Long willing to give his time and expertise to this very ambitious project. With his advice, we appointed the rest of the Editorial Board, Josephine Claudio as Associate Editor, Paul Davies as Methodology Editor, to edit the Chalk Talk Section (a section devoted specifically to methodology and classroom activities and letters to the editor on problems of EFL teaching in Mexico) Francine Marasco as Managing Editor for Advertising, Gloria Nelson as Assistant Managing Editor to keep the finances in order and Linda Anthony and Penelope Johnson as Review Editors; later on we asked Barbara Langworthy to join us as Copy Editor.

It was a wonderful experience for all of us to embark on an operation of this kind. Finally, after all kinds of problems, delays, etc., the first issue appeared in April of 1976. I must say that we were very happy with the results. The Editor received many letters from all over the Republic, The United States and other countries praising the Journal and encouraging us to continue the effort. Ruth Crymes, Editor of the TESOL QUARTERLY wrote a very impressive letter congratulating us and saying that the articles seemed to her "very practical and meaty, . . . An excellent contribution to professionals in our field." We are grateful for this support. We are also very grateful to the commercial enterprises and institutions which supported us right from the beginning. They bought advertising or Institutional memberships when there was no material thing to show to them. But they believed in our dream and that dream came true. Thank you again.

At the present time three numbers have appeared, and I must say that the quality has been very much improved. Thanks to the good will and overtime work from the Instituto Mexicano Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales printing shop, and the hard work and dedication of Jo Claudio, we were able to publish a convention issue, which now you must have seen. Thank you again to all those people who contributed to this worthwhile project.

Besides the JOURNAL, we wanted a publication which could be a vehicle for announcing matters of importance to all members, academic programs of different schools, Chapter programs, job opportunities and, perhaps, in the near future, one or two professional articles. The first NEWSLETTER was painfully mailed (Gloria Nelson and I licked stamps for three hours at the Post Office), but fortunately Kamila Knap agreed to be Editor of the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER, and things have improved considerably. We have published 5 NEWSLETTERS, the last one also a convention issue, containing the bylaws of MEXTESOL so that you will be able to read them and comment during the Business Meeting.

We have decided to use the NEWSLETTER as a means of attracting new members to our organization, advising them of the different MEXTESOL programs in the various chapters in the Republic. To this end we are mailing the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER to more than 2000 teachers of English in Mexico, irrespective of

whether or not they are members of the organization. (The MEXTESOL JOURNAL is only sent to paid up members of NATIONAL MEXTESOL.)

Our Second objective was the drafting of the much-needed Bylaws of the Association. A Bylaws Ad-hoc committee was appointed with this special objective as its goal. Tony Cabrera as Chairman and Josephine Claudio, Richard Rossner, Jim Taylor and myself served on this committee. We met at least once a month from the beginning of the year and in the last stages we received the very valuable cooperation from Aaron Berman, former President of CATESOL (the California Chapter of TESOL) and at present working for TESOL as Exhibits and Advertising Manager, based in Mexico City.

I must tell you about several important considerations we had in presenting the Bylaws to you in their present form. These matters are very important for the future of MEXTESOL, and I hope you will consider them very carefully.

The FIRST CHAPTER deals with membership; it specifies the dues we have to pay in order to become members of MEXTESOL.

The SECOND CHAPTER specifies the duties of each officer of the NATIONAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, which as you know, is composed of a President, a First Vice President, a Second Vice President, a Treasurer, a Secretary, a Parliamentarian, and an Ex-Officio Member from the past Executive Committee.

The THIRD CHAPTER presents an idea that we feel can be very good for the future of MEXTESOL. It provides for the possibility of the Executive Committee of our organization appointing an Executive Secretary of MEXTESOL. This person would function as Secretary of MEXTESOL and Secretary to the Executive Committee, of which he or she would be an Ex-Officio non-voting member. The Executive Secretary would be, in business terms, a Director or Manager of the Association. I think it is time we have a person, appointed by the Executive Committee, to take care of the more and more demanding tasks of MEXTESOL.

If we really want to see our Association grow and provide the excellent services we demand from it, we have to have a person dedicating if not one hundred per cent of his time, at least enough time to make things work. This person would be responsible for the day-to-day operation and the well-being of our Association.

CHAPTER FOUR of the BYLAWS defines all Standing Committees of MEXTESOL, such as the Convention Committee, the Nominations Committee, the Publications Committee, the Speakers Bureau and the Membership Committee.

I am going to explain briefly the functions of each one of these committees:

The BYLAWS provide for a Convention Committee with overlapping terms, so that there will be greater continuity and efficiency from convention to convention. The committee will consist of the Second Vice President, The Exhibits and Advertising Manager, the Local Chairperson and the previous year's Second Vice President.

These people will have to select, among themselves, a chairman to be approved by the President.

A very important committee is the Nominations Committee, it will be formed by one representative of each Chapter, plus one member chosen by the President. They will convene once a year to formulate a slate of officers. This slate will be mailed to all members of MEXTESOL in the form of a Ballot. This way, every member of MEXTESOL will be able to vote for his candidates, and not only those attending the Convention. In my opinion, this will increase the participation from members throughout the Republic and we will be able to have good representation in the Executive Committee.

The Publications Committee will consist of the Editor of the MEXTESOL JOURNAL, the Editor of the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER, any Co-editors of the preceding publications, the Exhibits and Advertising Director and two other members chosen by the President. The members of this committee will select from among themselves a Chairman, subject to the approval of the President.

The Speakers Bureau will consist of a Chairman chosen by the President or by the Executive Secretary. This person will collect, screen, and disseminate information about persons who are available for speaking, within the Republic, on topics of professional interest to MEXTESOL Chapters and/or members.

The Membership Committee will consist of a Chairman chosen by the President or the Executive Secretary. This person will maintain up-to-date lists of the membership. He will be able to provide mailing lists to any MEXTESOL Committee Chairman or the Treasurer. He may rent the list to any commercial enterprise wishing to send direct mail advertising to the membership.

The FIFTH CHAPTER sets the rules for election of officers. As I mentioned before, the new elections procedure will require members to mail their ballots before the Annual Convention. There is a problem, however: our present Constitution requires the General Assembly to elect the officers of the Executive Committee at the Annual Business Meeting. Therefore, in the Bylaws, we are providing for the President to entertain a motion from the floor to request ratification of the results of the balloting. If those results fail to be ratified, elections of officers will be held on the floor at the General Meeting. In case, later on, it is decided to conduct elections only through mail balloting, the Constitution should be amended. This would require the proposal of the amendment at least 6 months before the next Annual Convention, and its approval by at least 75% of the members attending the Annual Business Meeting.

The SIXTH CHAPTER defines the General Assembly. It sets down the rules for eligibility for delegate membership. In other words, only members in good standing will become delegates, and therefore will be able to vote on any matter brought before the Assembly meeting.

CHAPTER SEVEN defines the special relationship between Chapters and the National Organization. We want each Chapter to have its own Constitution and Bylaws,

which can be molded after MEXTESOL's own Constitution and Bylaws. Therefore, according to this Chapter, any group of 25 or more teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, may become regional Chapters of MEXTESOL.

We will require from the Chapter the following information:

- I. Statement of membership.
- II. Summary report of the Annual Meeting of the Chapter
- III. Results of the election of officers.
- IV. A summary of projects undertaken or proposed.
- V. A notice of special situations and problems in the Chapter's area.
- VI. A notice of the special needs of the Chapter.

MEXTESOL, the National organization, will cooperate with the regional affiliates, through the office of the President or the Executive Secretary, by:

1. Screening applications and keeping records of the Chapter's activities.
2. Providing counsel and appraisal.
3. Assisting and promoting local and regional meetings and programs.
4. Sending speakers to local Chapter meetings through MEXTESOL's Speakers Bureau. These speakers will be experts in specific areas of interest to the different Chapters.

We would like to receive a copy of each Chapter's yearly program, stating when they would need a speaker and on what subject. This way, the Speakers Bureau will be able to contact the different speakers and be sure they are available at the required time.

I am happy to say that there are very good possibilities of receiving a grant from the United States Information Service, which will give us the opportunity of sending speakers and pay not only transportation, but also food and lodging. We have experienced that in most cases this is very difficult, if not impossible. Especially in cases when we are trying to open a new Chapter. We hope now, with this grant, to be able to meet the demands from the various chapters for programming speakers at their local meetings.

The remaining chapters, EIGHT, NINE, and TEN, specify the rules for amending the bylaws, parliamentary authority, and a moral obligation for any member of MEXTESOL to separate any commercial interests from any MEXTESOL activity.

I am very grateful to the members of the BYLAWS COMMITTEE and Aaron Berman

for the wonderful job they have done. During the Business Meetings, this afternoon, you will be able to make the necessary comments or changes in these bylaws, but I think that they are a definite step forward in the maturity of MEXTESOL.

The THIRD OBJECTIVE of our present Executive Committee was that of increasing membership. This in my opinion, should be a consequence of meeting the previous objectives, that is, if we become a well organized Association, if we have something to offer to our members, it should be very easy to affiliate as many members as we want to.

This year we were able to add two more chapters to our list, the Guadalajara Chapter with more than 150 members, and the Puebla Chapter with close to 50. These chapters, plus the members we already had, increased our membership to almost 1,000.

We know that groups of teachers from Morelia, Pachuca, Guanajuato, Poza Rica, Veracruz, Tijuana and many other cities in the Republic are anxious for Chapters of MEXTESOL. I am sure that with the organization we are providing for our future Executive Committee, it will be possible to help organize Chapters in these areas and affiliate all these teachers to our organization.

I have been telling you about what has happened and what is happening at the moment. I want to talk to you now about the many objectives MEXTESOL can meet in the very near future. The number and quality of the services MEXTESOL can provide to the membership are innumerable.

FIRST, MEXTESOL could operate some sort of a placement service. We could develop a candidate file, consisting of brief resumes of qualified job seekers in the field of EFL. I think this is a necessity in our field. There are many qualified teachers looking for jobs and many institutions looking for teachers; it should be a natural thing for us to help both. The Membership Committee could be in charge of this operation.

SECOND, We have been very busy publishing the MEXTESOL JOURNAL and the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER, but with the experience gained, and with the Publications Committee operating, we should be able to start publishing other volumes related to our profession, such as a Survey of English Language Teaching in Mexico. Fred Hess and Geoffrey Kaye have done extensive research in this field and they would probably be interested in publishing with us. Also, this time, we will try to publish some, if not all, the papers presented in this Convention in a special volume.

THIRD. We should be affiliated with other organizations whose main interest is the teaching of languages, in order to exchange information. There are organizations of this sort in many parts of the world, such as the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes, the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, and so many others existing in the world. I think we would benefit by keeping in close contact with all of them.

FOURTH. MEXTESOL should play an important role in teacher-training programs, I am certain that our Association could organize these programs in conjunction with TESOL in the United States or IATEFL in the United Kingdom. I see a lot of possibilities of doing a good job in this area.

FIFTH. We wanted very much to organize meetings of Special Interest groups during this convention. Unfortunately, there has not been enough time. I hope the next Executive Committee will start working immediately in this area. It should be of great advantage to all members of MEXTESOL, because they would be able to attend meetings geared specifically to the areas they are interested in. Some of the areas of special interest that have been suggested to me are the following:

English as a second or foreign language for pre-primary children.

English as a second or foreign language for primary students.

English as a second or foreign language for secondary students.

English as a second or foreign language in adult education.

Bilingual and bicultural education.

Applied linguistics.

English Literature for Spanish Speakers.

Meetings of the Special Interest Groups could be held during our Annual Convention and also, perhaps, during meetings of the local chapters.

SIXTH. I am convinced that the growth and progress of MEXTESOL depends upon the health of its regional affiliates. We should maintain close contact with all of them, helping in every possible way. I know that our new BYLAWS provide for this kind of cooperation and I am confident that the new Executive Committee will be aware of this fact.

SEVENTH. We all know that a professional organization should not be primarily concerned with making money. At the same time, without it we would not be able to meet the objectives we have set for MEXTESOL. A member who registers for NATIONAL MEXTESOL pays only \$50.00 and he receives 4 copies of the MEXTESOL JOURNAL, 10 copies of the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER, plus all kind of information and notices of programs, conventions, etc. It is obvious that it would be impossible to even meet the printing costs of these publications with the dues we are collecting now. We have had many dedicated professionals who have accepted to go to chapter meetings and conventions, and in many cases, they have provided personal funds for the work we have been asking them to do. It is time we started paying expenses at least, and eventually even rewarding these people with an honorarium. I am, then, proposing a careful study of our budget for the coming years, which will depend on the services we think we will be able to offer to our members, and in accordance with that, set the dues we will have to charge for membership.

We have been able to sell advertising in the MEXTESOL JOURNAL, and that has helped us financially very much. However, I think this income should be used for the JOURNAL, to cover its own budget and make it a self-supporting publication. Something similar should occur with the NEWSLETTER. Here I am very happy to communicate to you that the United States Information Service, through our friend Pete Cecere, has agreed to print the NEWSLETTER at no cost for us. This will save us quite a considerable amount of money. And here a special note of thanks to Pete.

So, the future looks very promising for MEXTESOL, if we all work hard to make it come true. I am sure that in a very short time we will be able to see many of these, at the present time dreams, become a reality.

I have to thank all of those people who worked very hard all this year to make things happen: Jim Taylor bringing more and more members to MEXTESOL; Jerrilou Johnson organizing this convention with the very valuable help of Mike Long, the academic Chairman; Gloria Nelson, who succeeded in keeping the money away from us and worked extremely hard in every single project we undertook this year; Tony Cabrera as the most strict Parliamentarian I have met in my life, Ana Marfa Payán as Secretary and later on, Ninfa Gonzalez as Assistant Secretary; Grace Scott, who was with us for a short time this year before she moved to Washington; Vince Carrubba sharing with us his experience and wisdom; Gene Long doing a wonderful job with the JOURNAL and Jo Claudio working very closely with Gene on this job; Francine Marasco going after advertisers and selling what at first was only an intangible promise; Linda Anthony for her reviews, assisted by Penney Johnson. Paul Davies for his section, Chalk Talk. Kamila Knap as Editor of the MEXTESOL NEWSLETTER; and Gladys Gudíño as the first employed person of MEXTESOL doing secretarial work and being responsible for the mailing of all our publications.

Some days ago I was talking with Michael Scott, the Director of the Instituto Anglo-mexicano de Guadalajara and a group of teachers from the Guadalajara Chapter about MEXTESOL's activities, problems of the Convention, and many other things, and a person asked us... Why do you do all this?... Are you being paid or something?... Upon trying to answer this question, many thoughts came to my mind. I remember when I was finishing my studies in Architecture and I had doubts about whether I really wanted to work as an Architect after all, or to continue teaching Spanish and English, as I had done to support myself up until that time. Unfortunately, the image I had of language-teaching and language teachers at that time was not the greatest. And I am sure that many of you would have echoed my feelings. Most of our English teachers did not present the professional image I wanted to be associated with. In my own case, after many years of taking English courses in various schools as part of a regular program, I did not communicate well in English. I felt the teaching was somehow deficient.

Although my views at that time did not convince me in the end, and I decided to dedicate myself to language teaching, they were instrumental in my having joined the ranks of all those many present who have taken up the heavy task of working to upgrade our profession, to give it the professional image it deserves, and make every English teacher proud of his or her work and able to share experiences, problems and interests with others through MEXTESOL. At the same time, the sense of vitality, of youth-

fulness, idealism and social mission, makes all of us work with enthusiasm and affection for this organization...

So after expressing these thoughts, it occurred to me that there is another important reason; we work in MEXTESOL because it is fun.

And so, to all of those present, I hope that in addition to learning and sharing in this Convention, you will have lots of fun.

Thank you.

CHALK TALKTHE GAME'S THE THING

Paul Davies
Instituto Anglo Mexicano
Puebla, Pue.

Many teachers today are concerned with the "lack of real communication" in their classrooms. They worry that, although they try to "teach English communicatively", the focus of attention is seldom really taken off the language as a formal system and concentrated on the notions and communicative functions of the language. Role-playing, guided composition, guided discussion, and project work can redress the balance between work done on the language system (structure and usage) and work done on language use in social contexts (communicative functions).

However, a real problem is whether there is adequate attention at all, either on the language system or on communicative functions. The traditional teacher's exhortation "Now pay attention, please!" does not necessarily get attention, and if repeated often (as it frequently is) may have the opposite effect of producing instant slumber.

Games, if handled with clarity, credibility and enthusiasm, can increase the level of attention considerably.

A general knowledge game (handled, perhaps, as a team competition with the score kept on the blackboard) can get high attention for elementary structure practice:

- A. Where's Paris?
- B. It's in France. Where's Ottawa?
- C. It's in the U.S.A.
- B. No, it isn't. It's in Canada.

or for patterns of social communication:

- A. Excuse me. Could you tell me where the nearest public telephone is?
- B. Certainly. It's on the corner of Madero and Juárez.
- A. Thank you.

- C. Excuse me. Could you tell me where the nearest café is?
- D. Certainly. It's on Reforma.
- C. Thank you.
- E. No, it isn't. It's on Cinco de Mayo.

The pieces that follow are about puzzles and games that can increase attention and make classroom language experience more memorable. The first is by Ronald Ridout, of Britain, a prolific textbook writer, and the second is by Ana Maria Madrazo of the CELE Unit of U.N.A.M. who reviews a popular commercially produced game, JABBERWOCKY.

A well-known reference book on games is Language-teaching Games and Contests by W.R. Lee, published by Oxford University Press. A number of useful articles on games are collected in the Special Issue of "Forum": The Art of TESOL, Part 2, Volume XIII Numbers 3 and 4, 1975.

THE USE OF WORD PUZZLES IN TEACHING ENGLISH

Word puzzles have often been used in EFL teaching in the past, but almost invariably as light relief only. I want in this article to make out the case for their use as a serious and indeed powerful instrument for teaching the language.

The student cannot solve the kind of word puzzle I have in mind without first understanding the meaning of the English in which the clues are written. Consequently, if they are carefully devised so that he can in fact solve them, they provide excellent material for encouraging reading for meaning and for bringing the language into general active use.

But I can make my case much clearer with a few actual puzzles. I have taken my first example from Puzzle it Out, Grade 3 (Evans). It concentrates upon the past perfect tense in its more elementary sentence patterns, and is therefore appropriate towards the end of a normal third year course. Here it is:

To solve this puzzle, you have to find the right participle to fill the gap in each sentence. Choose from the list on the right.

1											
2											
3										///	
4										///	
5										///	
6										///	
7											
8										///	
9										///	
10										///	

arrived
plugged
escaped
finished
driving
stopped
returned
written
learning
waiting

1. When I had ---- reading, I turned out the light and went to sleep.
2. We reached Tom's house before he had ---- home.
3. The author had already ---- three novels when this one appeared.
4. We started playing again as soon as the rain had ----.
5. Ann had been ---- half an hour when her friend at last arrived.
6. Though I was late getting to the station the train had not yet ----.
7. He said that he had been ---- English for nearly four years.
8. I had been ---- several minutes before I realized that I had a flat tire.
9. The record player did not start because I had not ---- it in.
10. The officials discovered the plot before the prisoners had ----.

What, then, does the puzzle achieve? First of all, the desire to solve the puzzle gives the student a purpose for understanding the reading matter; it generates motivation. And I suggest that this motivation for practicing the language is a fairly strong one, compared, that is, with other means of generating motivation in a classroom situation. It is, after all, using language for a perfectly natural purpose-solving puzzles. Secondly, the student is given special practice with a particular structure or sentence pattern. He is given it with all the concentration of a language drill, but without any of the artificiality of a drill exercise. Thirdly, because the

whole idea behind the puzzle is to make the learner search for an answer, it provides a good deal of repetition, a good deal of going back over the clues, but in a way that is relatively free from the boredom of most repetitive language practice. Fourthly, it directs attention to the meeting and use of certain words and thus provides practice in vocabulary building as well as in reading, the two in any case being inextricably linked. Finally, the way the puzzle is devised and presented oils the whole learning process, since it is very largely self-solving and therefore self-teaching. The student is not only challenged to solve it; he is given the means of solving it. If the puzzle has been chosen to suit the level of the student's progress, he is in the end and with the help of his dictionary almost certain to be able to solve the puzzle. And in doing so, as he has been obliged to work with an alert mind, he can hardly fail to gain some insight into the language and vocabulary he has been handling and so strengthen, however little, his command of English.

My second puzzle, which comes from Puzzle it Out, Grade 1,¹ has two purposes. It shows first how the type of puzzle can be varied, and secondly how it can be adapted to a first year beginner's level. It is different in as much as the clues are this time the more traditional definitions and the emphasis is more on spelling and pronunciation. To enumerate, the puzzle is useful in four distinct ways, each of which, it seems to me, is important enough to transform a mere game into an effective teaching instrument.

First, it clarifies three points of pronunciation based on the vowel sound common to each of the three groups of words. So, secondly, it establishes spelling patterns linked to pronunciation. Thirdly, the meaning of the 12 words is verified by their being brought into active use through the clues. Finally, the reading and use of English is practiced within the limits appropriate to first year students, since the clues are controlled by the structures and vocabulary of a normal first year zero course.

As before, the student will be able to accept the challenge to solve the puzzle and will be likely to stay with it until he succeeds, largely because all the material he needs for its solution is available in the puzzle design itself, although a dictionary might also be helpful. This is the puzzle:

Can you solve this puzzle with these words?

brain	nail	weak	coat
rain	sail	meal	road
train	tail	clean	soap

¹Ronald Ridout, Puzzle it Out, Grade 1 (London: Evans Bros., 1975)

1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					

1. You wash with this.
2. Cars go along this.
3. This falls from the clouds.
4. You wear this.
5. You think with this.
6. Not strong.
7. This runs on rails.
8. Not dirty.
9. You eat this.
10. An animal has one.
11. Ships do this.
12. You hit this with a hammer.

I have chosen my other example to show the kind of twist that puzzles can be given at a more advanced level. It comes from Puzzle it Out, Grade 5 and has been designed for the direct purpose of teaching idiom. It is still a word puzzle since we are still searching for words, but there is little vocabulary building as the words are entirely subordinated to the idioms.

The puzzle motivation, however, remains high; there is still a good deal of reading for meaning to be done; it is still self-solving; it still produces insight into the language. Its main teaching purpose is, of course, to clinch the meaning and use of certain idioms that have been met previously but have not in all probability been mastered completely. It is made fully self-teaching by means of a word list and by means of a sample paraphrase of the sentence in which the idiom is used.

Here is the puzzle:

The clues explain the meaning of certain idiomatic expressions. If you find each missing word, the second column down will give you the title of a reader in Grade 4 of Evans Graded Reading. Choose your words from the list, which contains more than are needed.

1					///	///	///	///
2								
3					///	///	///	
4			///	///	///	///	///	///
5					///	///	///	///
6					///	///	///	
7								///
8					///	///	///	///
9					///	///	///	///
10				///	///	///	///	///

ideas noise
 mouth angry
 well still
 skillful capable
 arm eye
 listened cross
 quiet edge
 sound away

- Is the same as:
- Ann was on ---- having to wait. = She was tense and irritable having to wait.
 - John was all ears. = He ---- very carefully.
 - I have picked David's brains. = I have used his ----.
 - Mrs. Taylor kept an ---- on the child. = She saw that no harm came to him.
 - Mr. Smith looked down in the ----. = He seemed in low spirits
 - Rachel held her tongue. = She kept ----.
 - Mr. Jay's hand has lost its cunning. = He has become less ----.
 - It made my blood boil. = It made me very ----.
 - He has a very keen ear. = He can pick up the slightest ----.
 - Michael took to his heels. = He ran ----.

As I said at the beginning of the article, the puzzles need to be carefully devised. To be really effective, they need to be closely integrated with the whole language course, for it is clear that the student can handle them successfully only when he is in possession of the resources for their solution. The language, as in all early reading practice, must therefore be structurally within the limits of what he has covered in his course and, except for a few that are so basic that they can be taken for granted, all the words required must be available somewhere on the page, since the EFL learner cannot draw them out of a non-existent cultural memory.

Then, too, they must be straightforward. Any playing with words, however simple for the native learner, will puzzle the EFL learner in exactly the wrong way. For him, the puzzle must always be to find meaning within normal usage, especially during the first few years. That is why the traditional crossword puzzle is not an adequate substitute here. It is not an effective teaching instrument. The need to make the words fit together both across and down inevitably forces the compiler to introduce material that is inappropriate to good EFL teaching. Artificiality and distraction creep in and there is, as a result, a diminution of learning.

But given this straightforwardness, given a presentation whereby the student is enabled to help himself to solve the puzzle successfully, given the appropriate control of structures and vocabulary so that the student is always working within the limits of what he has covered in his general language course, then these word puzzles will justify more than a casual place in the language program. They can be used at regular intervals, slotted in to reinforce particular sections of work, or they can be taken home as a rather different and more active kind of private reading. There is, incidentally, a notable further advantage to this kind of reading: it does not involve the time-consuming and often boring business of testing for comprehension. The puzzle is its own test of comprehension; nothing further is required by even the most fastidious quantifier of language learning progress!

Ronald Ridout
Haslemere, Surrey, U.K.

"JABBERWOCKY"¹

"What's Jabberwocky?" It is a large, red box full of cards, cards containing little words like prepositions, articles, and particles like yes, no; there are suffixes like -ed, -ied, -er, -ing, -ish, -ly, -ily etc., and what's more there are punctuation marks like commas, interrogations, apostrophes, and stars.

"Jabberwocky" is quite a fascinating game and has not only the advantage of entertaining, no mean feat in itself, but helps the students in word formation and in finding the order of words in an English sentence. This it does without reference to grammatical terminology or rules. It also helps the students, in a relaxed way, to work and advance with structures he found problematic before, and gives the teacher clues, through the student's mistakes in the game, to problem areas.

¹"Jabberwocky: A Language Game," designed by Alan Wakeman (London: Longman's)

These possibilities are clearly explained in the "Notes to the Teacher" under the different names of the individual games, "Tinker," "Palover," "As it were,..." "Jabberwocky" is recommended as a likely game for the EFL classroom to teach and to entertain at the same time.

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R E V I E W S

Jordan, R. and Mackay, R., A HANDBOOK FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE ASSISTANTS: London: Collins, 1976.

Although this book is written specifically for teaching ESL in Europe, it has many valuable suggestions for English teachers in Mexico. In the first chapter there is a long list of possible realia (from newspapers and money to personal photographs of family and special occasions) to carry into the classroom to emphasize the reality of the language and culture being studied.

The book continues in the next ten chapters to give many useful suggestions and wise professional comments about developing oral skills. For example, in the second chapter, there are comments about when, what, and how to correct a student. Jordan and Mackay feel that over-correcting, especially at early levels, impedes the development of fluency, which is the main oral goal. They suggest, then, other ways to get at errors, rather than stopping and correcting individuals at the moment a mistake is made. To beginning teachers or students in a teacher-training course, the practical suggestions contained in these chapters make the book well worth having at hand. Even the experienced teacher will find some new ideas and be reminded of forgotten techniques. The authors stress the need for thorough preparation and go into detailed description of all types of oral activities, from quite controlled picture description to debates and free discussion. There are also illustrations of simple chalkboard drawings, examples of useful songs and rhymes, and a discussion of simple audio-visual aids and their use in English teaching. In the appendix there is a selected bibliography of magazines and books.

The chapters are extremely well organized and clear. An experienced teacher might feel a little frustrated because some sections are superficial and brief, although in such a handbook this would naturally occur. Other sections are very detailed, including all the points an experienced teacher takes for granted, such as the list of recommended techniques for oral lessons on page 28, which begins with the suggestion to smile.

Throughout the book cultural content from Great Britain is infused in the examples. To an American this abundance of unfamiliar references could inhibit his envisioning the use of the techniques in his own classroom. Since the book is so clearly written though, this minor problem should not be a hindrance. A Handbook for English Language Assistants is recommended as a valuable resource book for novice as well as experienced EFL teachers.

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Gretchen, Bloom, ENGLISH FOR CAREERS: THE LANGUAGE OF HOSPITAL SERVICES IN ENGLISH. (New York: Regents, 1976.)

The Language of Hospital Services in English is one book in an ambitious series titled ENGLISH FOR CAREERS. To date, this series represents the most comprehensive American attempt to meet the growing need for Specialized English around the world. The list of titles in print has reached approximately twenty four and the publisher promises many more, some covering completely new areas for the student of Specialized English.

The Language of Hospital Services in English consists of ten units, ninety-four pages of reading selections, vocabulary explanations, comprehension questions and suggested discussion topics. The reading selections are devoted to the various parts of a hospital, medical and non-medical, which are necessary for the patient's treatment, well-being, comfort and convalescence. A complete trimester or semester of study would be necessary to cover the abundance of material provided in the book.

In the Foreword, the author states the following purpose: "The book is not intended as a training manual, but rather, as a broad introduction both to the occupations and the problems involved in this kind of work". The author has accomplished this purpose admirably, giving us a wealth of interesting material in a very readable style. This type of information and presentation would be of enormous value to a high school guidance counselor in his efforts to orient students to various fields of work.

It is questionable, however, that the foreign medical student would need this type of basic information on the general set-up of hospitals. Most students of medicine have been pursuing an interest in this field many years prior to their internship and often in advance to their entrance to medical school. They can be found working in hospitals as nurses' aids, orderlies, orthopedic technicians and stretcher bearers. They have been reading autobiographies of famous doctors, following TV's contribution to this area; and reading medical articles. Hence, for many, an explanation of how a typical hospital is run would be superfluous. However, it must be pointed out that in spite of the claims made in the Foreword, the author does not describe a typical hospital. She has chosen the highly complex, multi-layered structure of a modern medical center in the United States. Herein lies both a strength and a weakness in the book.

It is quite probable that many students and doctors who are proficient in English would enjoy reading this book and would gain much from it about the complexities of a medical center. But it is equally probable that the medical student doctor trying to learn English from this book would find that he was struggling with words and phrases which only lead him

to descriptions of basic departments, functions, personnel and problems, many of which he already knew about.

Descriptions is emphasized because this approach presents a fundamental problem with this book. If the medical student or doctor is already familiar with the basic hospital set-up then what are his needs in Medical English? He may have one or several or all of these needs: to read medical texts and journals; to converse with English-speaking patients; to talk with English-speaking doctors and paramedical personnel. The reading selections in The Language of Hospital Services in English do not represent the technical type of writing found in medical textbooks or journals, nor are there any exercises other than comprehension questions which would help a student acquire skill in reading. (Though many discussion situations are given as exercises for the student, there are no dialogs in the book, either between doctors and patients or between doctors and medical and paramedical personnel. No explanations are given of the troublesome non-technical words and phrases such as "confined to."; "may give rise to"; and "may be brought about." Rather, the vocabulary explanations are dedicated to hospital departments and functions within these units and to names of the various postions.

Would the book be useful to the student of general English who has arrived at the "high intermediate or advanced level", the level of learning for which the author states the book is appropriate? This is also questionable. It is difficult to imagine the type of student who would feel he was gaining useful vocabulary when it is dedicated to hospitalese such as "prepping the patient", "administering I.V. s", and the fine differences between "malpractice and negligence", LPN's, RN's, and Candy Strippers.

This book, like so many in Specialized English, has been compiled for students of all cultures with no regard for the particular problems individual language groups encounter in learning English. Many of the terms in the book are Spanish-English cognates. Words such as ambulance and dentist will be no problem for the Spanish-speaking student, whereas a Japanese or Finnish student would not be able to recognize them. The roots of the problems in Technical English mostly are not technical terminology or concepts, but non-technical words used in explanations, definitions, and descriptions.

The mixture of general information and technical terms in this text makes it difficult to understand what language learning group would benefit from using this book. Had the author incorporated her interesting material into typical dialogs situated in the various parts of the hospital she describes so well, the text would have filled a real need for hospital and medical personnel.

These comments aside, The Language of Hospital Services in English does provide interesting reading in a specialized field hitherto not touched upon in EFL teaching materials.

Ashby Rocha
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Anthony Howatt, John Webb, and Michael Knight, *A MODERN COURSE IN BUSINESS ENGLISH*, London: Oxford University Press, 1976.

For those of us who are strong believers in the teaching and learning of languages for special purposes, a new text in Business English is available. And although we debate the issue of introducing a specialized language course to beginning level students, all such texts designed for students below the advanced level warrant our immediate attention.

A Modern Course in Business English is suited for the intermediate adult learner of English who is engaged in commercial life or is interested in economic affairs in general. It presupposes a basic knowledge of English but is specially constructed to review familiar basic patterns of the language and to take the student to a more specialized knowledge at the same time. Bridging foundation and specialist English is one of the main objectives of the course. The underlying assumption for this objective is that before using this text, the student has studied "regular" English, and beginning with this course he will develop his English with a more meaningful approach, one appropriate to his career orientation in business.

The course provides a wide variety of types of English, topics of discussion, and kinds of activities in order to suit as extensive a range of student abilities and interests as possible. Along with a textbook for students and a teacher's guide, the course also consists of a set of tape recordings and a supplementary book of programmed self-instruction units which deal in detail with the basic patterns in the class text and provide the opportunity for a very thorough preparation of the class text material at home.

Here is a brief description of Unit Two which will enable the reader to make a critical evaluation of the basic components included in the course. (1) There is a pretest for the use of 'can' and 'may' in the programmed units booklet. Next the student reads a small passage entitled "Mr. Carlson's Arrangements" which is followed by a grammar discussion on the difference between 'can' and 'may'. On his own initiative, the student can proceed through the 19 programmed exercises, which aim to reinforce the correct usage of 'can' and 'may'. Following the exercises, the pretest reappears (in the form of) a post-test. (2) which begins with the class text, which is a conversation between Mr. and Mrs. Carlson concerning their arrangements and appointments. Suggested new vocabulary with their phonetic spellings follow the class text. As well, there is an explanation of expressions used, such as "Let's talk shop." (3) The dialogue follows and is composed of a telephone call in which Mr. Carlson confirms his appointment with Mr. Smith. Again, vocabulary and expressions are found. (4) This chapter deals mainly with auxiliaries, therefore an exercise on them is given. The student has to interpret the short forms of a diary while inserting correct auxiliaries. (5) The first phase of drills for the chapter cover a phone conversation and the use of auxiliaries. (available in tape form). (6) The Reading Text is a factual passage concerning a related topic; for this unit, it is entitled "Sending Messages." Again we see vocabulary, yet this time there are extras, i.e. Information Notes and Language Study. Also

accompanying the Reading Text is a chart of the national newspapers in England as well as the London evening papers. The chart tells us the title of the newspaper; who it is controlled by; and the average daily circulation figures for the period of January to June, 1974. (7) "Good old" Comprehension Questions. (8) We are introduced to a different type of vocabulary exercise, as for example: the act of making a sentence stronger by changing "I don't understand" to "I simply don't understand". (9) Each unit has a problem or problems to solve. The student is given a certain amount of information and has to use that information to solve the problem. (10) The second phase of drills is composed of a practice for asking questions and an active listening comprehension exercise. (available on tape)

The most efficient way to analyze a new textbook is to use it. A Modern Course in Business English is highly recommended as a useful intermediate course in business English.

Paula Grobman
Cenlemex
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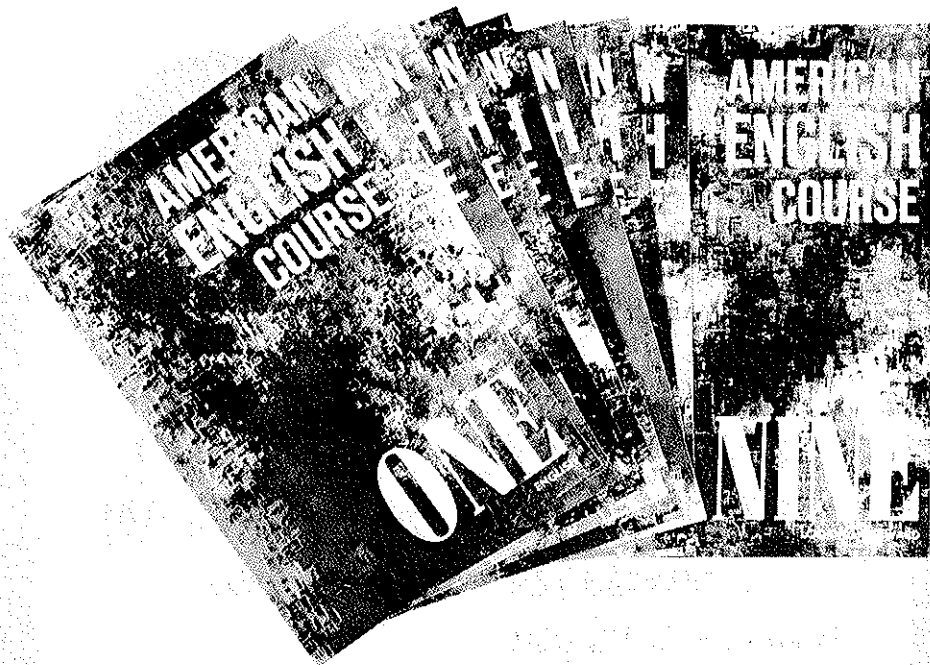
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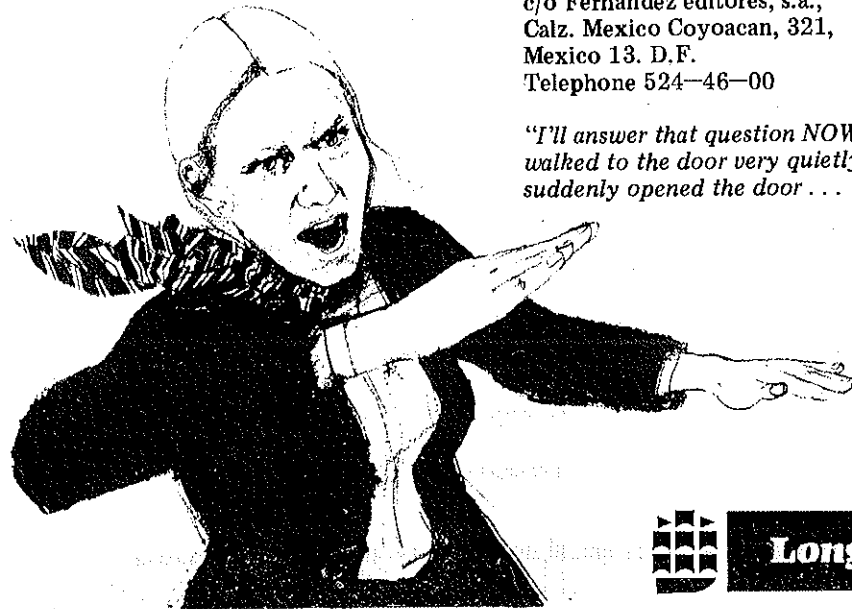
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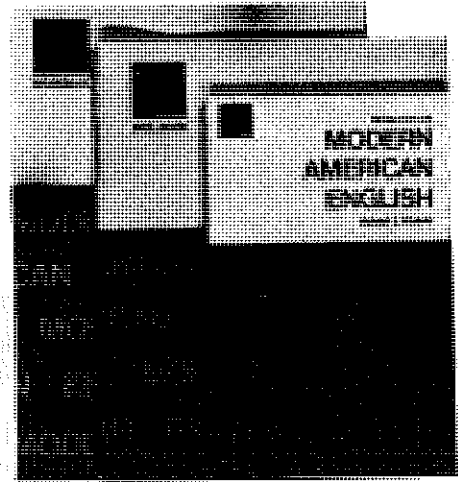
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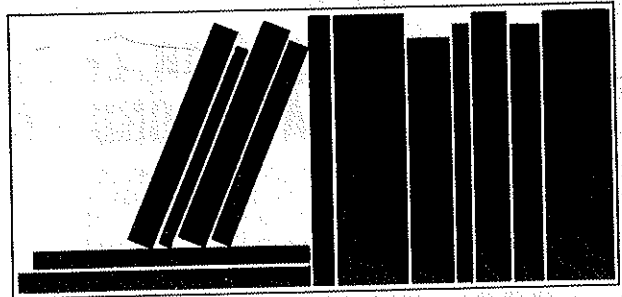
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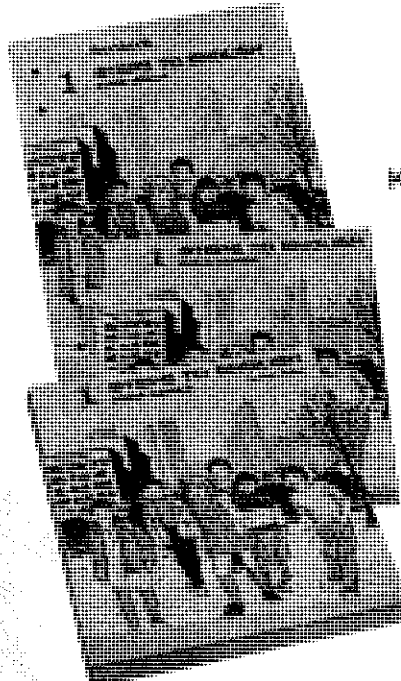
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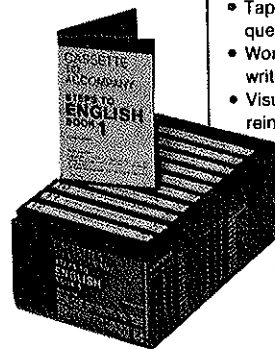
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