From the Editor

Again, as in the past, this issue will offer you a wide variety of articles dealing with both practical techniques and research. We also are *estrenando* a Book Review Editor. Patrick Smith of the Universidad de las Américas-Puebla has sent us two very interesting book reviews for this issue and promises more for future issues.

Our first article is by Peter Hubbard. In this written version of his well-received presentation at the Twentieth National Convention in Puerto Vallarta last October. Dr. Hubbard looks into the polemic of the native versus the non-native teacher. He examines exactly what advantages and disadvantages both teachers have and then makes some realistic suggestions for the professionalization of our field.

The second article deals with a techniques for teaching reading, presenting ideas involving schematic theory and how to use it in the classroom. The authors, Wilma Clark and Lydia Giles from Indiana University of Pennsylvania, also offer an appendix including materials that can be used in the classroom with a reading about Christopher Columbus or that can be adapted to other similar readings.

Susan Zimmerman H. and Catherine Merel have written the third article which offers suggestions for the creation of content-based after-school workshops to augment traditional language classes. They also include an example of a curriculum that could cover six semesters of English study at the Preparatory level.

Our final article presents the results of a three-year study into the effects of matching teaching styles to students' learning styles. This monumental project was carried out at the Universidad de las Américas-Puebla by Coral Ibarra Y.

Just as in our last issue, Betty Phillips' column, *Tidbits and Teaching Techniques for Tired Teachers*, gives us useful hints that we can used to improve our teaching. This issue's topic is peer coaching.

As usual, I would like to encourage you to participate in MEXTESOL. Write an article, book review or letter for our Journal; present or just attend local, regional and national meetings. Remember our Twenty-First National Convention will be held at the Hotel Krystal-Ixtapa from October 13 to 16. Look for the registration information included in this issue.

4 MEXTESOL Journal

Finally, I would like to thank Dean Hugo Loyola of Americom-Tlalpan (Universidad del Valle de México) for all his assistance to MEXTESOL and Francisco Lozano for help with proofreading.

We'll be waiting to hear from you!

The Editor

Editorial Policy

The MEXTESOL Journal is a quarterly publication dedicated to the classroom teacher in Mexico. Articles and book reviews related to EFL teaching in Mexico and in similar situations throughout the world are accepted for publication. Articles can be either practical or theoretical.

Articles and Book Reviews: The Journal welcomes previously unpublished articles relevant to EFL professionals in Mexico. The Editors encourage submissions in Spanish or English. Unsolicited book reviews are also published in either English or Spanish.

Send three copies of each manuscript, including all appendices, tables, graphs, references, your professional affiliation, and an address and telephone/FAX number where you can be reached to the following address:

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If you FAX your article, be sure to also mail three copies to the Journal since FAX service in Mexico is not completely reliable. Articles can also be submitted on either 5.25" or 3.5" Diskettes, prepared to be read with IBM compatible programs.

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Manuscript Guidelines:

1) Articles should be typed, double spaced and no more than twenty pages long. References should be cited in parentheses in the text by author's name, year of publication and page numbers.

For example: "The findings were reported (Jones 1979: 23-24) although they cause no change in policy."

2) The list of references in an article must appear at the end of the text on a separate page titled *References*. Data must be complete and accurate. The following format should be followed:

For books:

Jones, T. J. 1984. How to Spell. New York. ABC Press.

For articles:

Moore, Jane. 1991. "Why I like to Teach." Teacher's Quarterly. June, 56-64.

Perez, Beatriz, 1962. "El griego antiguo en quince días." La revista de la universidad, 10(2), 136-139.

Note: A copy of these guidelines in Spanish is available on request from *The Editor.* Si usted quiere obtener la versión de este texto en español, favor de solicitarla a *The Editor.*

Native Versus Non-Native Speaker: Professionalism over inheritance

Peter Hubbard, Universidad de Guadalajara [1]

Introduction

It is a fact that the vast majority of English teachers in the world are not native speakers. There are no official statistics that I am aware of to support this statement, but anybody with experience in the field of English teaching would probably accept a conservative estimate of about 80% non-native speakers in the entire worldwide population. If this is true, there are certain inescapable implications which might provide food for considerable thought in our profession. In particular, educators of future non-native speakers of English have to rethink traditional approaches to teacher education, which have mostly been controlled by native speakers. We also have to think about the purposes of English teaching and about the varieties of English we are teaching. If English is truly an international language, then it no longer **belongs** to native speakers of Great Britain or the United States, Canada or Australia. By the same token, native speakers of English are not automatically entitled to exclusive rights in the question of **how** their language should be taught. We should regard the world dominance of schools of applied linguistics or TESOL in native speaking countries as a mere historical accident rather than a logical necessity. We should be looking out for a considerable amount of initiative on the part of non-native speakers in non-native speaking countries to establish innovative approaches to both the teaching of English and the education of English teachers.

It is also a fact that in most countries in the world native-speaking English teachers (NEST's) enjoy an elevated status over their non-native speaking colleagues (non-NEST's) that is at times difficult to accept.

The issues that we have to consider in this paper are therefore at the same time linguistic, professional and, to some extent, political.

Specifically, the questions that we have to discuss are the following:

1. Are there any differences between native and non-native speaking teachers of English? If so, what do such differences amount to in practical terms in the average English language classroom?

2. How do such differences affect the English teaching profession? Specifically, what effect do they have on the English teaching scene in Mexico?

3. What is the English teaching profession in Mexico? Can English teaching be a profession, in the accepted sense? What are the limits of professionalism in the English teaching community in Mexico and what are the implications of this for teachers of English and schools of English in Mexico?

Native and Non-Native Speakers: What are the differences?

The first point here is that there are differences between native and non-native speakers and it would be extremely misguided to think along the lines that they can be regarded as the same. This is not, of course, to say that one can automatically be regarded as superior to the other.

However, before comparing the two, there remains the question of who is or is not a native speaker. In other words, what does *native speaker* mean? The answer to the question is not as obvious as it might seem. This issue was exhaustively discussed by Rampton (1990), who pointed out that the main ideas behind the concept *native speaker* are the following:

The Myth of the Native Speaker

1. A particular language is inherited, either through genetic endowment or through birth into the social group stereotypically associated with it.

2. Inheriting a language means being able to speak it well.

3. People either are or are not native/mother-tongue speakers.

4. Being a native speaker involves the comprehensive grasp of a language.

5. Just as people are usually citizens of one country, people are native speakers of one mother tongue.

Rampton follows this up with the observation that each of these concepts is now contested. Inheriting a language is not genetic and it is a question of chance which social group *native speakers* are born into. Many native speakers do not in fact have a total mastery of a language. For example, many cannot write it or tell stories in it, whereas many *non-native speakers* can. In any language group, users' functional proficiency varies according to their occupation, social class and education. No native speaker's command is total. It is false to assume that each person has just one native language: there are very few countries in the world that have just one language. Assertions 3 and 4 are therefore invalid. Assertion 3, that people either are or are not native speakers is perhaps the key issue. It is either false or irrelevant in the case of language teaching, depending on one's interpretation of the term.

Rampton further points out that there are political interests at stake. It is convenient for certain governments that English be automatically identified with either the United States or the United Kingdom.

He also observes that there is a fallacy involved in automatically equating a certain language as **an instrument of communication** with the same language as **a symbol of social identification**.

If we accept these arguments, at least in part, we are left with a greatly diminished certainty that we understand the concept *native speaker* as a monolithic entity; that we are more doubtful of a clear division between native and non-native speakers; and that we feel distinctly uncomfortable about the use of the term in general.

Rampton finishes his article by distinguishing between different aspects of language user's relationship with the language: inheritance, expertise and affiliation. Whereas inheritance is a product of mere chance, expertise is learned and can be related to proficiency for specific purposes of communication and so on. Affiliation, on the other hand, is a matter of loyalty or allegiance to a language. Inheritance and affiliation together contrast strongly with language expertise. The latter is learned, not acquired; it is relative rather than absolute; it is defined by **areas** of use; and it can be tested and certified. He also points out that inheritance and affiliation are not in fact absolute and indisputable qualities, but the subject of negotiation by both governments and individuals. In short, Rampton concludes that language expertise should be one of the criteria by which we judge teachers' proficiency, whereas inheritance or affiliation should not.

The main differences can be summarised as follows:

	Inheritance / Affiliation	Expertise
Can be learned?	No.	Yes.
Can be tested?	No.	Yes.
Is absolute?	Said to be absolute, but in reality is negotiable.	Relative to background.

Figure 1. The Main Differences between Expertise and Other Aspects of Native-Speakerness

How does the distinction between NEST's and non-NEST's affect the English teaching profession? What effects can we observe in Mexico?

Is it true that this distinction has an effect on English teaching in Mexico? Yes. There is a strong bias in favour of employing or being taught by NEST's. This is becoming a serious problem now that there are a greater number of professional degree courses to prepare Mexicans to be teachers of English. These young professionals are putting themselves in the job market, only to find that they are displaced by **unqualified** native speakers. The "hippie system" has been operating all over the world for some time and employers are unwilling to change their habits, even if the government is putting more and more pressure on them to take out official work permits for all foreigners.

Peter Medgyes (1983, 1986, 1992), who is himself a non-NEST, has dedicated a considerable amount of time to investigation of this issue. One survey he conducted in Britain and France indicates that the bias is a real one. The questions he asked were the following:

Medgyes' Survey on Employer Bias

Suppose you were the principal of a commercial ELT school in Britain. Who would you employ?

A) *I would employ only native speakers, even if they were not qualified EFL teachers.*

B) *I would prefer to employ native-speaking EFL teachers, but if hard pressed I would choose a qualified non-native rather than a native without EFL qualifications.*

C) *The native/non-native issue would not be a selection criterion (provided the non-native speaking EFL teacher were a highly proficient speaker of English).*   (Medgyes 1992)

When he conducted the survey during a conference in Britain, approximately two thirds voted for **(B)** while one third opted for **(C)**. Nobody voted for **(A)**. Medgyes took this to indicate that for all potential employers of ELT teachers professionalism was important: Hence, **(A)** was not selected. However, the majority followed both market and professional criteria in making their decision; whereas a minority were more self-conscientiously "correct" in observing no bias between native and non-native speakers.

On a later occasion, Medgyes conducted the same survey on a group of ELT specialists at a conference in Paris. The majority of this group were non-native speakers of English. In this survey, two thirds of them voted for (C), one third for (B) and again nobody voted for (A). He then rephrased the question as **"Suppose you were the principal of a commercial ELT school in France..."** This time, an even greater majority chose option (C).

The implications of Medgyes' surveys can be summarised as follows:

Implication of Medgyes' Surveys

1. Potential employers of English as a foreign language teachers recognise the importance of professional training.
2. However, they are also aware of market forces and the fact that students prefer to have a native speaker as a teacher. Their decision between a NEST and a non-NEST would therefore be based on the balance between these two forces.
3. Non-native speaking employers of English teachers have less bias against non-NEST's than their native colleagues. They have even less of an objection to employing non-NEST's if they are working in a non-English speaking country.

(Based on Medgyes 1992)

Why should there be less objection to employing non-NEST's in a non-native speaking country? Is this a question of acceptability or social justice in following fair employment practices? As Medgyes points out, there are complex dynamic forces at work. He suggests the following: market, professional, linguistic, moral, political, and others.

How do these forces work out in Mexico? It is perhaps still too early to say. We have now passed the time when English teaching was a predominately amateur occupation. More and more teachers are being trained to various degrees of professional acceptability. There are now signs that *Gobernación* is stepping in with more rigid insistence on work permits for foreigners; and work permits require solid paper qualifications. This does not, of course, entirely solve the problem, which remains one of prejudice--a matter of attitude rather than of law. Mexico is noted for its *malinchismo*. Is this the cause in this case? Or do Mexican learners feel that a perfect language model is essential? Or is it simply that many learners here have had traumatic experiences in secondary school at the hands of Mexican teachers of English? It will take time for the new Mexican professionals to be accepted by their students as such. But there are indications that this is happening. However, unqualified NEST's still abound,

mostly teaching advanced classes in their amateur fashion with greater or lesser degrees of success.

What are the Real Differences between NEST's and Non-NEST's?

In yet a further survey among about 220 teachers working in 10 countries, Medgyes (1992) demonstrated that a convincing majority of respondents accepted that there were real differences in the way in which NEST's and non-NEST's conducted their classes. If this difference is real and not just perceived, further research would be necessary to find out exactly what these differences are. This would not be easy to conduct. However, what seems to be indisputable is that the NEST can always claim to be more proficient than a non-NEST in terms of most aspects of linguistic knowledge. This difference in linguistic competence has an inevitable effect on teaching style. Be this as it may, Medgyes does go on to suggest some important differences in role and capacity between non-NEST's and NEST's. Stating the case from the side of the non-NEST, we could affirm:

What Non-NEST's can do.

Non-NEST's can:

1. serve as imitable models of the successful language learner of English.
2. teach learning strategies more effectively.
3. provide learners with more information about the English language from the learners' point of view.
4. anticipate language difficulties better.
5. be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners.
6. communicate better with their learners.

(Based on Medgyes 1992)

On points 1 and 6, Medgyes may be underestimating those native speakers of English who have mastered their students' language to a high degree of proficiency. Perhaps yet further research is needed to find out what the differences are between NEST's who have a good mastery of the students' mother tongue and those who do not. Clearly, this is not a simple area for a researcher to work in, since there exists a fair measure of prejudice and resentment in the various parties involved and the dynamics of forces at work is a difficult one.

Medgyes has also pointed out (Medgyes 1986) that the current emphasis on communicative teaching favours the NEST and places a heavy burden on his non-NEST colleague. This could cause a disenchantment with the communicative approach

among non-NEST's and increase their resentment toward NEST's, especially since the communicative approach has been imported by NEST's themselves.

And what of the NEST? Her or his advantages might be:

The Strengths of the NEST

The NEST can:

1. serve as a perfect linguistic model for the learner.
2. be highly effective in promoting fluency.
3. give students essential cultural knowledge.

These assertions are speculative rather than research-based. However, they are probably not far from the truth.

A short comment on each of these qualities is needed.

The assertion that NEST's can serve as perfect linguistic models for students should be qualified by the obvious, but disconcerting, fact that nobody speaks "standard" English and therefore there may be a serious mismatch between the kind of model students need and the native speaker they get. For example, if your students have most interest in learning American English, a British teacher might cause them some problems. Since native speakers often appear by chance rather than by design, the argument that they make better language models may be weakened by the fortuitous nature of their language background. In particular, we may wish to modify the word "perfect" in the above assertion.

The argument that native speakers are better for students who need to acquire fluency is a strong one as long as a teacher-centered classroom is under consideration. However, many fluency approaches nowadays make extensive use of group and pair work. The teachers' own fluency becomes less important under these conditions. It is worth pointing out also that if fluency is to be taught under strongly teacher-fronted conditions, students are likely to lack sufficient opportunity for practice to acquire any reasonable degree of fluency. This argument is therefore flawed. It is certainly true that a teacher who lacks fluency cannot be a good fluency teacher, but this is not the argument under consideration. We are comparing the linguistically and methodologically competent non-NEST to any NEST, qualified or not.

It has been convincingly argued that learning a language includes the acquisition of at least two different kinds of knowledge: **systemic** knowledge, which involves knowledge of the internal language system; and **schematic** knowledge, which is knowledge of the world of the target language user. The idea is, then, that only the native speaker has sufficient knowledge of the language user's world to provide students with the richness of cultural detail they will require to learn the language adequately. This argument might work well for learners whose motivation is strongly integrative, who wish to become thoroughly immersed in the target culture. But it is not so strong for those--arguably, the majority--whose motivation is instrumental and geared more towards learning English for one or several specific purposes. In any case, if the hypothetical non-NEST under comparison with a native colleague is really linguistically competent, then she or he must have more than enough knowledge of the target culture to satisfy students' needs. We are reduced therefore to quibbling about a NEST's ability to interpret subtle nuances of the language. This, I would suggest, is a luxury that most students can do without. Moreover, it is sadly true that many amateur native speakers on the ESL teaching circuit are unable themselves to master these subtle nuances or explain them satisfactorily to students. I would therefore question the assumption that all NEST's have perfect knowledge of the target culture: They have a knowledge that corresponds to their background experience, whatever that happens to be.

As we can see there are important differences between the NEST and non-NEST--especially with respect to the role the teacher can play effectively. But it is not a situation that automatically casts the non-NEST in an inferior role. On the contrary, the non-NEST enjoys certain strong advantages over his NEST colleague, setting aside mere prejudice.

Professionalism and the Non-Nest

If an employer is forced to make a choice between a professional non-NEST and an amateur NEST, who will she or he choose? This seems to be a crucial question.

I have been arguing that the preference for NEST's is largely based on student prejudice, which school directors take strongly into account in making their choice of employees. My arguments are aimed to redress the balance in favour of employing non-NEST's and displacing amateur NEST's in Mexico. I have been maintaining that,although the differences between NEST's and non-NEST's are real ones, they do not amount to much in terms of teaching or learning advantages. By implication, I have been arguing for a greater emphasis on professionalism in Mexico.

This, however, raises the question: What is professionalism? This is another controversial area and it would be impossible to go over all the arguments here. Neverthe-

less, it is worthwhile taking a look at two examples of commentary on the subject from opposing points of view.

Alan Maley (1992) has argued that the ELT "profession" is not a profession in the accepted sense of the word, but that it is moving towards that position. This process of professionalization is steady, but sure. He maintains that the "profession" as it stands is enormously diverse and impossible to subject to rigid standards. He further maintains that this diversity is also an advantage, because it admits new ideas and encourages growth. However, he admits that English teachers are not accepted as professionals in the same sense that lawyers and doctors are. This could be a disadvantage for practitioners.

A comment on Maley's position is required. Two obvious reinforcers of professional respectability are: paper or university qualifications; and the prestige that society confers on practitioners. These two determining factors are very different. University qualifications carry weight, but only up to a certain point. Both in developed and developing countries, the public at large are wary of charlatans in any profession. University qualifications are considered necessary if a practitioner is to be taken seriously, but the public also demand a demonstration of results. A professional's reputation cannot rely solely on paper qualifications: it also needs to be backed up by publicly accepted success in practice in the field.

Another factor that can reinforce professional status is the existence of professional bodies that officially accredit a practitioner who has been admitted. These bodies can also discredit someone who has been found guilty of unethical or unprofessional conduct. Although English language teaching has certain professional associations, these do not assume the role of professional accreditation. They are simply support organizations.

For some reason or other, it is the case that teachers are not normally accepted as professionals. There are several reasons for this. One is that they are popularly considered to be the passers-on of already established knowledge. It is thought that such an occupation is a low level, technical one. There are, however, other reasons. Normally, professionals are accepted as authorities in their fields. That is to say each professional can make a decision based on their professional judgement and this decision is final. Clients may, if they wish, seek the advice of other professionals, but the decision of any professional consulted is considered to be authoritative.

Let us consider an example in the field of medicine. Suppose that a person who suffers from pain in the back goes to a doctor and seeks her/his professional opinion. The doctor, after examining the patient, may do a number of things. S/he may immedi-

ately diagnose the problem and recommend a cure. Alternatively, s/he may decide to send the patient to a specialist in back problems for a more detailed analysis.

What is happening here is that the professional gives her/his judgement. This may include the recommendation for further, more specialized analysis and attention by another professional. In either case, the professional judgement of the doctor is not called into question. The doctor does not consult with another doctor. If, by any chance, the patient does not trust the professional opinion of the doctor, s/he may decide to consult another professional. This is always a possibility.

The situation of the teacher is not so clearly defined. Teachers, however well qualified they may be, are almost always under supervision. Although they may have sole authority over the groups of students in their classes, they are always subject to the rules and regulations of the school in which they work and their decisions may be called into question by their supervisors. In short, teachers are always aware of the supervisor looking over their shoulders; they do not really feel that they have the authority of a normal professional.

It is also the case that many teachers lack solid paper qualifications. This is especially true in the case of language teaching. Since they are in a relatively weak position regarding their paper qualifications, they tend to accept a less than dignified status and low pay, with little possibility of criticizing the working conditions in their school.

Should we then argue in favour of a policy that obliges all teachers of English to have professional qualifications? And if this were both desirable and possible in Mexico, how could we ensure that teachers receive the pay and status that they are entitled to?

It will certainly be better for the future of the "profession" if there is an insistence in all quarters that teachers should have paper qualifications. This will not of course ensure that they will automatically receive the status that other professionals do. It is ironical that lawyers as a class are disliked both in Mexico and the United States, yet they enjoy absurdly high status. Why are engineers and architects treated like professionals, while teachers are not? Status is not conferred according to the logical application of criteria.

It is also sad but true that the more people earn, the higher their status. So English teachers are poorly paid because they have low status; and they have low status because they are poorly paid. So how can they break out of this vicious circle?

An alternative point of view on professionalism is that of Pierce (1993). He argues strongly in favor of regarding all language teaching operations, whether in the public or private sector as being basically open to free market conditions. Teaching, in his view, is a service which can be contracted. Status and pay will be established according to the value and quality of the services provided. If this is the case, the professionalism of language teachers remains in considerable doubt. Pierce argues that professional bodies are nothing more than trade unions in disguise: They protect their members and help to elevate their pay.

I must admit that I feel rather uncomfortable with this argument. It is as if anybody could wander into the classroom and begin to give a lesson. If the students like the class, then the teacher gets paid more. There are some universities in this country (Mexico) where teachers' salaries can indeed be affected by their students' evaluations. I am against this policy. Teaching under these conditions could deteriorate into a popularity competition. It is not a teacher's job to be popular with the students: it is his/her job, however, to see that the students learn. Patients do not always like the medicine or advice they receive from the doctor.

Essentially, the danger in treating the student like a client is that of accepting the slogan, "The customer is always right." Students should be consulted, but they are not always right. Often what they want is not what they need. They have to accept the teacher's professional judgment on that point. That is why professional training and experience are so important.

Conclusions

It is a fact that the majority of English teachers in the world and in this country are not native speakers of the language. I have tried to show that:

1. The distinction between "native" and "non-native" speakers is not as clear-cut as most people assume.
2. Although there are real differences between the two groups of teachers, there are both advantages and disadvantages on both sides.
3. More important than nativeness is professional training and experience.
4. As EFL moves towards professionalism., the distinction between NEST's and non-NEST's will become less important.
5. Professionalism is not merely a question of paper qualifications and membership in professional bodies: it also involves a change of attitude and public recognition of the new profession. This will not happen overnight, but it will happen.

The controversies surrounding nativeness and professionalism will remain open to discussion for some time; but I hope that teachers and employers of teachers will become less prejudiced and more rational in their attitudes. And I hope that the remaining years of this century will afford us greater justice in the situation of young Mexican professionals working in our field.

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Polishing Pearls:
The on-going process of schemata activities on reading

Wilma Clark, Indiana University of Pennsylvania [1]
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In Mexico, a reading knowledge of English is often important to academic studies, professional success and personal development. In the past, however, reading material and instruction for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) remained controlled by the practices which saw reading as obtaining meaning from print, without recognizing the full importance of the reader's background knowledge. We could compare the schematic view of reading to a pearl. Before a pearl has been polished or even seen in its rough form, it starts as a minute grain of sand or other small object that disturbs an oyster's way of life. The oyster, although annoyed by this new material, continues to cover and use the invading substance to develop successive layers, forming within itself a pearl. The earlier view of reading did not fully consider its complex process. Reading also thrusts new material onto the reader. The new reading material will be less obtrusive if the teacher applies schema theory to the process, allowing the layers of knowledge to build up around existing schemata.

This article presents schema theory or background knowledge of the learner, its relevant importance to reading, and suggests specific reading activities which are firmly based on schema theory. Each new reading is not presented simply to provide students with either how-to-read tools or only new information. Rather, the new information needs to be incorporated into the students' existing schemata. Reading activities which generate schemata are frequently limited to what is done before the actual reading, but the process is continual and holistic. We suggest that you provide schema activation at the beginning of the reading process and then continue with follow-up activities so that the new information solidifies and becomes a part of your student's ever-building schemata. This continuous elaboration resembles that grain of sand whose on-going process produces a smooth, lustrous pearl which started from an incomplete and undeveloped procedure.

Psycholinguistic studies show the importance involved in readers understanding texts by using or triggering the background knowledge or schema of the learners. Carrell states that

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Goodman has described reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (1983: 554) The better the readers are able to bring in appropriate schemata, the less the readers have to depend on the text itself to confirm their assumptions. We would like to briefly explain this schemata or background knowledge and how a person recognizes and applies it. Remember, it is similar to a pearl—the oyster contains the pearl, but it has no useful value unless the pearl undergoes the polishing process. Students have schemata, but we teachers must help our students actively realize the values of their unpolished pearls within.

We chose the topic, Christopher Columbus, because of its cultural richness. Examples to trigger schemata in the accompanying activities can be adapted to all levels of EFL students and may be done in groups or in pairs. These activities, in turn, will provide individuals with both ideas and confidence, which will encourage them to tackle readings on their own. You can choose any text or topic from magazines, newspapers or textbooks.

One important aspect of schema theory is that "schemata provide the basis for 'filling the gaps' in a text: no message is ever completely explicit and schemata permit a coherent interpretation through inferential elaboration of this message." (Steffensen and Joag-Dev 1984: 54) Based on studies done by researchers, such as those by Nelson and Schmid (1989) and Shih (1992), several kinds of activities provide strategies to improve students' interactions with the text. In this article, paragraphs with * at the beginning contain activities for schemata activation. Solutions for two activities are given in Appendix C.

*One of several strategies to trigger schemata is previewing. Previewing helps the reading process because it provides the readers with a glimpse of the essential context. This overview of text organization activates the triggering process. We teachers realize that readers will encounter new information that is unique from their existing schemata. It is important, therefore, to be aware that the more relevant the readers' schemata or background knowledge is to the text, the more prepared they will be to interact with the reading and the more capable the learner will be at narrowing the gaps.

*How can we teachers start triggering schema? One way of allowing readers to bring their background knowledge into the reading is by either you or your students drawing stick figures. Have learners create imaginary dialogues relevant to the topic and place these dialogues into *conversational bubbles* next to each figure.
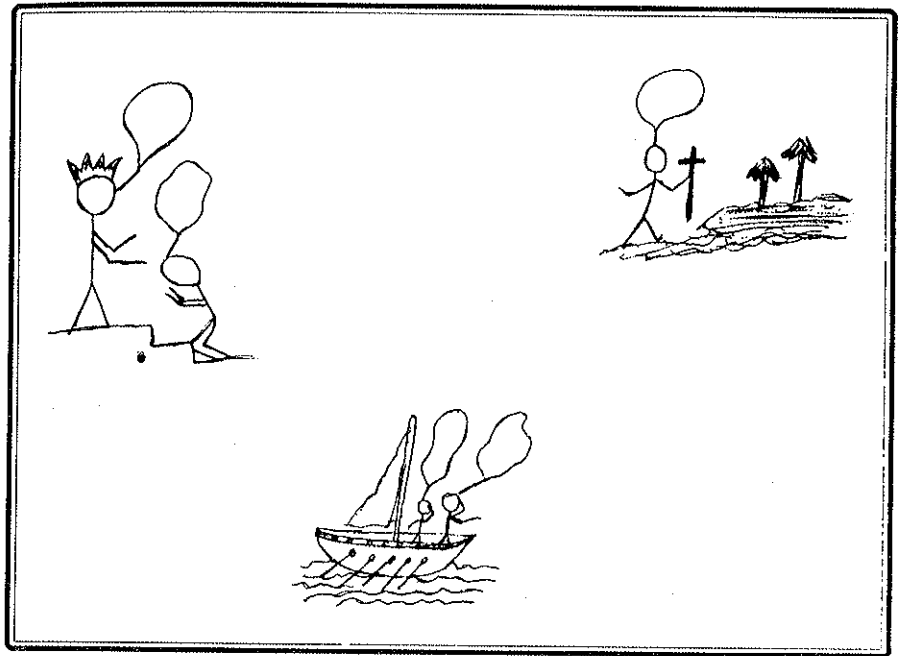
*A cultural checklist contains categories to trigger students' background and equips them with topics for discussion. We have developed a comprehensive list from which you can select appropriate categories for each of your individual texts.

(Select topics applicable for each text)

Food	Clothing	Weapons
Religion	Dwellings	Livelihood
Recreation	Transportation	Finances
Tools	Government	Music / Art
Use of Land	Entertainment	Authorities
Home Life	Education	Handicrafts

For example, in an article about Columbus, students can choose to talk about these: food, dress, weapons, religions, dwellings and transportation. Teachers probe students to think about how these items were during the time of the reading and then contrast them with their present way of life. Eliciting comments on these items from the students' own cultural background will draw them to the article's content, thereby triggering the readers' existing knowledge and making their schemata the foundation for comprehending the newly introduced topic. This comprehensive list helps teachers effectively prove to students that they already contain a wealth of information in their lives. Studies provide consistent indications that readers understand, remember and enjoy their reading more when they possess relevant cultural knowledge (Joag-Dev and Steffensen 1984).

What about the text that appears to be totally removed form the students' schemata? We, as teachers, still have the awesome task of finding one thin thread which, when united with other threads, will tie the students to the text. Pictures are always a source of sharing, but teachers may have neither access nor time to search for such specific resources. Two convenient resources that teachers frequently overlook are the encyclopedia and the overhead projector.

*Teachers can use the encyclopedia to help students understand the fears of 15th century sailors. For instance, make a transparency of a map of the Old World. Make another map using the same proportions of the world as it is today and place the latter on top of the first. The map overlay impresses students as they contrast with their eyes how much of the world belonged to the fearful unknown in comparison to our knowledge of the world today.

*To help students comprehend the smallness of Columbus' ship, use a whole transparency and draw an outline of one of today's air liners or freighters. Put this on the screen first. Trace or draw onto a piece of paper a small image of one of Columbus' ships and place this paper on top of the transparency. This visual activity allows the students' schemata to correlate the smallness of ocean-going vessels of the past compared to the modes of travel available in today's world.

*Tell students they are members of Columbus' crew. Their ship has hit a reef and they must leave it. Hopefully, they will be rescued by one of the other ships, but they will have to live on a nearby island until then. By themselves, have them quickly list five items that they would want to take from the ship. Follow this with the students forming small groups. Their next task is to limit the list and agree on the eight items the total group will take from the ship. This part of the task requires negotiation. After

a sufficient amount of time, each group reports their eight items to the rest of the class. Several students act as scribes to write down choices and tally results. Initially, you may want to give the class a choice of 20 items if you feel that they need help awakening their schemata on the aspects of culture relevant to the text.

Once schema is awakened, the process of schema accommodation forces readers to restructure their concepts and align them with those of the text. Readers do this process of schema accommodation to incorporate adequately the new information and to reestablish a logical, mental and rational balance between the new information and their experiential interpretation of it. Schema constrains readers' interpretation of an unclear message. When readers possess background information and assumptions different from those of the writer, the readers will be able to reinterpret the text confirming it with their own schemata.

By establishing a correspondence between things known and those given in a text, readers monitor their comprehension and know whether they have understood the text. As Pearson-Casanave in Nelson and Schmid (1984) points out, the text does not carry meaning; it provides cues that enable readers to construct meaning from existing knowledge (539). Reading comprehension requires the ability to activate the appropriate schema into which to integrate the data from the reading passage (Carrell 1984: 332-333).

A wide diversity occurs in much reading, but it seems that this diversity is especially prevalent in cross-cultural settings. Text comprehension depends upon readers' previous knowledge, but when EFL learners do not have this previous, necessary schemata, they are confronted with a lack of comprehension.

Whenever possible, select several activities for one text. A multiple approach activates appropriate schema for your students' variety of learning styles and their own cultural diversity. Ask students to explore issues in writing before they read assigned texts; this empowers readers to approach the text from a position of authority. This position of authority motivates students and fosters a positive attitude toward their reading. Once students' schemata have been triggered, EFL readers can relate to the text. During reading, selective underlining, annotating and self-questioning allow readers to interact with the text as well as to monitor comprehension. Important strategies after reading are note-taking and summarizing both of which are processes useful for organizing and condensing information. This on-going process of schema activation produces the same result: whether polishing a pearl or activating schemata, both enhance their existing value.

*The use of crossword puzzles has multiple benefits. Used first as a pre-reading power activity, the clues should be written in simple language. The purpose of the answers is to introduce students to a new topic and its necessary vocabulary. The crossword puzzle pro-

vides students with common core-words that act as a foundation for understanding the text. The teacher designs the puzzle, using clue words which are not far from the students' comprehension as well as some of the necessary vocabulary.

The making of crossword puzzles applicable for a specific text formerly took hours. Now, inexpensive computer programs arrange the puzzles using your list of words or clues. These crossword-making programs can be bought from commercial companies such as *Crosswords* by Mindplay (800-221-7911) or be acquired through public-domain shareware diskettes usually costing about $5. (Sources listed with references).

*Students can help design a follow-up crossword puzzle. After reading, students select words they feel are relevant to the text. Have them give you their list of words and definitions. Using the same diskette, enter this information into the computer and develop a "cementing the terms" crossword puzzle. A sample crossword puzzle designed using shareware is shown in Appendix A. The puzzle has been decorated with pictures cut from the newspaper.

Research strongly suggests that when groups of students are given a specific task, they work with more involvement, and incidental learning takes place. An integrated skills task *(Who did it?)* is given in Appendix B. Students must listen to your directions and then use their oral communication skills while working in small groups to solve tasks. Integrated tasks require the use of all communication skills to arrive at answers. Linguistic repetitions, coupled with the non-linguistic element of communication, can also facilitate the unconscious assimilation of certain structures such as prepositions or tenses when the emphasis is involvement in a task. (Widdowson 1990).

*The problem-solving task *(Who did it?)* , requires students to use cues to find the culprit who lied. A student will say that he/she saw another person in a certain place at the time of the theft. This student will also indicate his/her own activity. Together, the groups record each answer, using a map of the palace and a symbol chart representing activities. At the end of the task, students deduce that one of them has lied by discovering that he/she was not the person as claimed. This task, using problems that require authentic language for their solution, serves as a preparatory stage for exposing students to content and vocabulary.

*Ask students to use their new knowledge to write their own short story or mystery. The more artistic students may even draw a new scene of the crime and illustrate their writing. You can make an original task for your specific text; just replace the names of people on the chart and re-design a fictional scene of action.

The activities we have presented in this article are techniques that we have found useful in our own classrooms. These practical activities, based on schema theory, have been successful

in the EFL/ESL context. By applying the on-going process of schema activation, you aid the students' polishing process of their pearls within.

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APPENDIX A: COLUMBUS....SCHEMATA

ACROSS:

1. The country that gave ships and money to Columbus so that he could sail.
4. The main product Columbus wanted to find.
5. Country where Columbus was born.
6. The queen who financed the trip.
11. The blocking out of one heavenly body by another.
12. To learn about something before anyone else does.
14. Columbus wanted to find a new route to the Far East, so he sailed in what direction?
15. Number of ships on the first voyage.

DOWN:

2. What did Columbus name the people he found when he first landed?
3. A place where men who have taken religious vows live apart from the world.
7. Someone who visits and studies unknown lands.
8. What was the occupation of the people whom Columbus found?
9. This usually means a trip across the sea by ship.
10. An old name for the Asian lands around China and Japan.
13. How many feet long was the largest ship?

APPENDIX B: WHO DID IT?

At 10:00 yesterday morning, Christopher Columbus' log of his last voyage was stolen. The commander of the palace guard asked six suspects:

1) where they were.
2) what they were doing at that time.
3) where one other person was at that time.

The commander used symbols to record the answers:

KEY: Activity Symbols   KEY: Map / Location

Symbol	Meaning
* =	sit
☐ =	rest
△ =	eat
< =	wait
O =	read
> =	walk
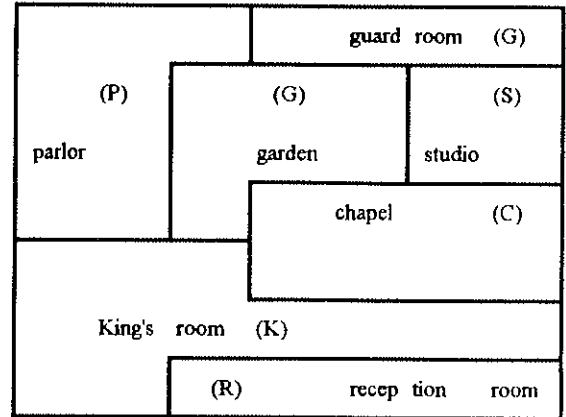
The commander's notebook looked like this:

		Where	What
Isabella	I	P	△
	Father Juan	K	>
Ferdinand	I	R	*
	Columbus' son	GR	O
Christopher	I	G	<
	Bahaini	R	☐
Father Juan	I	K	>
	Bahaini	C	<
Columbus' son	I	GR	O
	Ferdinand	R	*
Bahaini	I	C	<
	Isabella	P	△

The thief told two lies. Everybody else told the truth which was verified by one other person.
What was each of the 6 doing? Where was each one?

Use the commander's notebook to complete the answer sheet and to solve the mystery of who stole the log:

Isabella: I was _eating_ in the _parlor_ .
                 She said Father Juan was _____ in the _____.
Ferdinand: I _____ in the _____.
                 Columbus' son _____ in the _____.
Christopher: I _____ in the _____.
                 Bahaini _____ in the _____.
Father Juan: I _____ in the _____.
                 Bahaini _____ in the _____.
Columbus' son: I _____ in the _____.
                 Ferdinand _____ in the _____.
Bahaini: I _____ in the _____.
                 Isabella _____ in the _____.

Who told the lies? Read the sentences again to find the room where each person was at 10:00. Then write each name in the room below:

```
+-----------------------+----------------------------------+
|                       |              guard  room   (G)   |
|                       |----------------+-----------------|
|         (P)           |      (G)       |       (S)       |
|                       |                |                 |
|       parlor          |    garden      |     studio      |
|                       |         +------+----------+------|
|                       |         |    chapel       | (C)  |
|-----------------------+         |                 |      |
|                                 |                 |      |
|                                 +-----------------+------|
|     King's   room    (K)        |                        |
|                 +---------------+                        |
|                 |  (R)        recep tion      room       |
+-----------------+----------------------------------------+
```
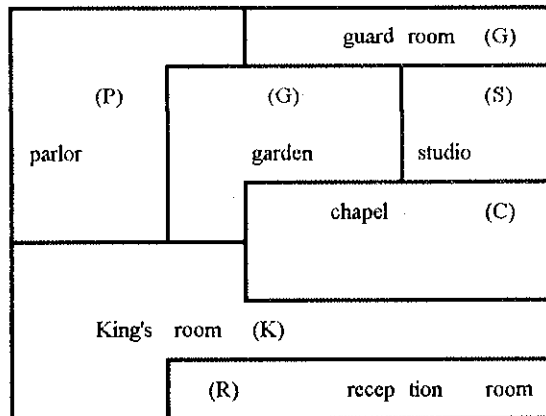
_____ told two lies so he is the thief!

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After-School Workshops:
A total language experience[1]

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The concept of after-school workshops as a tool or methodology in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language is a response to the current realities of language teaching in Mexican schools. Too many times the inflexible grammar-based course guidelines of other eras keep us from providing our students with what experts tell us are the optimal conditions for language learning. Furthermore, even when we and our administrators *are* convinced of the importance of incorporating communicative, content-based and whole-language methodologies into our English programs, few schools have the luxury of a well-trained staff, up-dated materials, physical space, comfortable budgets and curriculum flexibility which would allow us to implement these modern, attractive elements in our classrooms on a daily basis.

Given the economic and methodological restrictions imposed on us, what alternatives do we as teachers have for providing our students with the user-friendly, language-rich environment they need to learn and enjoy a foreign language? The answer requires a shift of perspective and borrows heavily from the cultural values of the American school system.

In contrast to Mexico, the American public school system places a strong emphasis on the value of participating in after-school, club-like activities. The concept of a "well-rounded" individual who has a wide-range of non-academic interests, like sports, music and art, is intrinsic to the idea of a good education.

In Mexican metropolitan areas nowadays, too, there is a growing interest among families in enrolling children in karate, swimming, scouting, and other formal instruction. The social context of such activities encourages the student's interest in his task. For many young people, after-school activities are fun, and not "educational" at all, even when their content is instructional in nature.

In terms of language teaching, then, we are talking about an approach which places less emphasis on teaching English during the school day, and more on the use of language in an extra-curricular setting. For this, and other reasons, the focus of this paper is on setting up after-school workshops as an attractive way of packaging English classes. The challenge, however, is what kind of curriculum, methodology or approach to package. *The answer, surprisingly, is not to teach English at all!*

Content-Based Instruction

> Outside the isolated language classroom students learn language and content at the same time. Therefore we need a broad perspective which integrates language and content learning. (Mohan 1986: 18)

The truth is that only the tiniest part of what we know about of our own first language was learned in a classroom. Our skills in our native language progressed according to our exposure to increasingly complex needs, situations and contexts. In a sense, the content of our native language learning was...our life itself.

Linguists, psychologists and families with small children who have moved to foreign cultures have observed a correlative behavior in second language acquisition:

> It is a common experience that when translated to a town where their native language is not spoken, children will become reasonably proficient in the new language in the space of months. It is an equally common experience that after six years of schooling in the second language, whatever the teaching method, most children emerge with a very poor command of the language. (Macnamara 1977: 96)

The implication is, of course, that when given a context, or content, of compelling enough interest to the learner, be it the art of negotiating on the playground, or singing along with Madonna, or studying a Ph.D. abroad on a scholarship, most language learners will find a way to pick up the code that goes with it any way they can. The need to communicate is crucial. Equally important is having a topic worth communicating, or a content worth teaching.

Combining content and language

Bernard Mohan (1986) has described three types of relationships between language teaching and content teaching.

1. Language teaching BY content teaching, in which the focus is on content, and the language skills develop almost incidentally. Language immersion programs arc examples of this type.

2. Language teaching FOR content teaching, in which students learn the specific language needed for success in various subject areas as quickly as possible. English for Special Purposes operates on this principle.

3. Language teaching WITH content teaching, in which the focus is on teaching both language and content. In such an approach the language and content objectives need to be in close alignment. Language teaching WITH content teaching demonstrates the principle of a holistic, whole-language approach to language teaching, and as such seems particularly adaptable for after-school workshops like ours, where we can use the best of all worlds--materials from academic content, social interaction from the after-school setting and hands-on experiences provided by the workshop motif--to generate and motivate the program.

Support for content-based instruction

For the well-informed teacher, one of the added benefits of working with a content-based curriculum is that he/she has the opportunity to mix and match from the entire menu of methodologies and techniques available to him/her instead of being tied to one inflexible model of language learning. Unlike many teaching methodologies, content-based education finds its theoretical justification in not one, but several approaches.

For one thing, content-based teaching is highly communicative. After all, in order for communication to take place, there must be some knowledge or information to be shared. Incorporating subject-content into the second language class puts language in a meaningful context and provides a situation that requires language use rather than just talking about language.

Second, content-based language instruction fills the need for what Krashen calls "comprehensible input." The teacher in a content class surrounds the student with language to which they can relate by means of concrete experiences. The kind of hands-on materials and physically active participation called for in workshop settings combine perfectly to support the development of comprehensible language input. In fact "the addition of subject content to the goals of the traditional language classroom can more than double the effectiveness of second language instruction for each student." (Curtain & Pesoa 1988: 97)

Finally, support for integrating content instruction into the language curriculum also comes from the move towards more holistic education in general. When the

teacher is not dealing with a language that is isolated and reduced to small pieces, students **see the language** and concepts to be learned as part of an integrated whole, and benefit as well from the opportunities this learning setting provides for the development of critical thinking skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Areas with Potential for Content-Based Instruction

Up to now we have been concerned with justifying the use of content-based instruction as a viable alternative to traditional language class instruction. The next matter, however, is what topics or subjects are most appropriate for this approach. Fortunately, many curricular areas are well suited for content-based instruction, and can easily be adapted for interesting group projects designed for an after-school setting.

1. **Social Studies** is one area which is particularly adaptable for young people of all ages. Some of the appropriate topics are home, community, social patterns and comparative cultures, the latter being particularly meaningful for students studying a second language. Most of the techniques and resources frequently associated with social studies are especially motivating in language teaching; for example, the use of media, the inquiry method, the use of photo, pictures, *realia* and colorful periodicals.

2. Elementary level **Mathematics**, with its computations and concrete problem solving situations can also be adapted for content-based instruction, and may come as a welcome change of pace to students who perceive themselves to be less than gifted in more verbally-oriented subjects. Concepts of size and shapes are easily communicated in the target language. Especially for younger children, the ideas of composing graphs for simple counting and computation activities (e.g., what colors of shoes are students wearing in class today?) is absorbing and a highly integrative use of language. Other mathematical activities of particular utility include: measurement, statistics, arithmetic and geometry.

3. **Science** is especially suited to content-enriched foreign language instruction because of its hands-on, project-oriented nature. For example, entire content-based curriculums can be developed around a single ecological theme. In one instance, a single topic, TREES, has been adapted as the focus of an entire program. (See PLT)

4. **Arts and Crafts**, because of their highly-experimental and visual nature, have long been a staple in elementary school language programs. **Music**, especially popular songs from the English-speaking cultures, are by now a traditional part of most secondary and preparatory English programs.

5. Finally, **the study of journalism** is a less traditional way of motivating older students to work with English composition. Teenagers **seem** to find it infinitely more interesting to plan, research, lay out, edit, and produce a newspaper than to compose and rewrite a term paper, yet the process and the academic skills emphasized are exactly the same.

The Affective Factor

> Affective education is effective education. It works on increasing skills in developing and maintaining good relationships, showing concern and support for others, and receiving these as well. Humanistic education is a way of relating that emphasizes self-discovery, introspection, self-esteem, and getting in touch with the strengths and positive equalities in ourselves and others. **In addition to all this, humanistic education is fun.** (Moskowitz 1978: 14)

In the final analysis, content in language learning isn't only about an academic curriculum. It's about communication and the interaction of human beings. Remember that our first language skills are developed only to the extent that our own experiences with the world and people around us have become more complex and sophisticated. One of the goals of our after-school workshops, therefore, is also to provide the opportunities for emotional and social growth which will correspondingly translate into an ever-increasing sophistication in the student's comprehension and use of the second language. To this end, the affective element plays a major role, and the humanistic component becomes the underlying foundation of our workshop concept.

As students find that their thoughts, feelings, and experiences are regarded as important in this language setting, the language itself becomes more important to them. It is essential, therefore, that the after-school workshop also be a forum for students to relate in a positive way not only with the content, but also with each other and with the educational environment. There must be a concern for personal development, self-acceptance, and acceptance by others, in other words, making students more human. In short, after-school workshops are not school; they are beyond mere school rooms.

> It is a live classroom, full of learning activities in which students are enthusiatically and authentically involved. Each student is genuinely respected and treated as a human being by his teacher. The learning involves living. (Browning 1975: 2)

It's easy to make humanistic education our creed as teachers, but not so easy to carry it out. We all know that the hectic demands of the traditional school routine leave little time for noble aspirations. It's fortunate, therefore, that within the informal, less demanding setting of after-school workshops, we have the freedom to integrate some of our favorite humanistic activities. The techniques and activities provided by Gertrude Moskowitz in her book *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class* have a magical way of fitting into almost any content-based settings: In fact, they ARE a content-based curriculum of and by themselves, and we recommend them highly.

Reality Check: Putting it all together in after-school workshops

In this paper we have tried to demonstrate some of the theories and methodologies behind the establishment of complementary, after-school language workshops. Following this text is a brief outline of how two of these workshops programs were included, although, unfortunately have yet to be implemented, in the curriculums of nationally prestigious educational institutions. But before we go on, we'd like to add a few words about practicality, and offer some basic, down-to-earth arguments for setting up workshop programs.

Academic

1. There is a growing market in Mexico today for young people's English classes. Moreover, the parents of students already enrolled in government or private school English programs are realizing that their children just aren't learning enough, and are looking for complementary programs. The workshop approach offers both parents and administrators a new and more concrete (Projects are completed and kids have something to show off to the family.) option to traditional programs.

2. In addition, parents of students who need *regularización* will probably be pleasantly surprised by their children's change in attitude about studying English, once they are enrolled in a workshop program.

Economic

1. After-school workshops are geared for study-center-style classrooms. One room and one teacher can facilitate a broad range of language skills and levels. In short, workshop programs are more cost-effective and call for less physical space.

2. Because of the social and general academic nature of the workshop programs, institutions can attract students who might not want English classes *per se*, but are interested in the hands-on, workshop idea.

3. Workshop programs are highly interactive and communicative,. In order for students to complete their group projects, they must spend a great deal of time going out among family, friends, and the community, talking about their institution and their projects. This word-of-mouth publicity is the cheapest and most effective kind an institution can ask for!

4. Workshop programs don't cost that much to set up. They utilize school space and resources already available but sitting idle after hours. The initial investment is in curriculum planning and materials, the latter of which can be included in student fees.

5. Finally, after-school workshops are first and foremost concerned with providing quality education for our children, and the public is willing to pay well for quality. Charge accordingly and make money for your institution.

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Appendix

After-School Workshops in the Preparatory Curriculum

ITESM-CEM

(3-hours per week)

Participation is required and is equal to 30% of classroom participation grade. Workshop function in conjunction with the language and grammar objectives for each level.

First Semester, English One

English One students have only just begun to develop their productive language skills; therefore, the emphasis is on manual arts representations based on the themes presented in this course. Students will be offered ever-increasing opportunities to express verbally the significance of their world using description and simple explanations.

During the semester, students will work on three different projects, one per partial period, which correspond to the thematic units studied in class:

1. OUR HOME, SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY. Working in groups, students will plan and present their vision and model of a utopian community.

2. FAMILY AND FRIENDS. Students will research and produce individual family heritage trees.

3. SPORTS, HOBBIES AND LEISURE ACTIVITIES. Students will make presentations of their favorite leisure activities.

Workshop hours represent an opportunity for teachers to meet with students in order to explain goals and objectives, to help "hands-on" with projects, and to provide added language and academic support which the students may need to complete oral presentations of their work.

Students will be asked to share their projects in oral presentations with their classmates at the end of each corresponding partial period. The semester will culminate with a "Community Fair" exhibit during the fourth partial period at which time the best projects from each group will be exhibited and evaluated for awards.

Second Semester, English Two

Workshop activities this semester revolve around international and cultural themes. Students will have the opportunity to demonstrate their growing oral and writing skills.

1. KNOW YOURSELF. Student-created short videos in English which express their self-image.

2. WHAT IS CULTURE? Role-play representations of Mexican stereotypes vs. reality.

3. TRAVELING IN OUR WORLD. Student-produced travel brochures about Mexico.

4. HOLIDAYS AND CELEBRATIONS. Groups invite classmates to learn about and take part in holiday celebrations from other cultures.

Once again, the purpose of workshop time is to provide students with the teacher support they'll need to successfully work on their projects. The fourth project should be carried out during the fourth period only, and should be composed of a series of parties and social gatherings during which students can truly get a sense of participating in the cultural activity represented.

Third Semester, English Three

Since the English Three content material deals with topics related to mass communication, the workshops for this semester will give students an opportunity to express their growing skills in the production of mass media materials.

1. THE ENVIRONMENT. Planning, promoting and staging a town meeting about local environmental concerns.

2. COMMUNICATION AND MASS MEDIA. Public service announcements about environmental issues.

3. INTEGRATION. A student-produced publicity campaign promoting the ITESM-CEM. Projects will be exhibited and reviewed by campus directors.

Fourth Semester, English Four

Content-based material will be introduced during the course of the regular curriculum, specifically through the use of dramatic readings and the introduction of English for academic use and study skill development. Therefore, the workshop activities this semester are specifically designed to support the academic content of the course, as well as aid in the integration of all language skills.

Students are asked to cooperated in groups to write and produce one-act plays which will be part of a competition during the fourth partial period in an English Theater Festival.

Fifth Semester, English Five

Fifth semester students are focusing on developing their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency Skills in English. The goal of this course is to involve the students in a student-centered environment which gives them an opportunity to use their English skills in a literature-based content class with close teacher supervision.

During workshop hours student will learn the principles of journalistic writing and its applications. Students will work on the planning and production of an original ITESM-CEM preparatory school newspaper.

Sixth Semester, English Six

English Six is an academic writing course. The objective of the course is to synthesize the total range of students' language abilities with high-level reasoning through the production of a university-level research paper.

In order to demonstrate their complete integration of language skills, students will concentrate during workshop time on compiling and producing a prep school yearbook for their graduating class, one which is of sufficient quality and presentation to share with the parents and the community at large.

ESL Teaching and Learning Styles:
A follow-up study

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Introduction

In 1989, a study was conducted at the Language Department at the Universidad de las Américas-Puebla (UDLA) by Jacqueline Milman and Thomas A. Bauder (1989) to examine ESL learning and teaching styles as shown by UDLA language students and teachers.

The present paper reports a follow-up study done at the UDLA which was carried out to study the appropriateness of adapting teaching styles to accommodate the preferred learning styles expressed by students at the basic ESL level in the University English Division. This aspect was also considered in the original research questions of the Milman & Bauder study. (p. 2)

In this study, the dimension of the relationship between learning and teaching styles was further explored, especially taking into consideration that students learn best when taught according to their preferred learning style, as attested by several experts (Dunn & Dunn 1979, Kuchinskas 1979, Lawrence 1979, Newman 1980, Maynard 1974). Also these experts and others in the field (Fischer & Fischer 1979, Bennett 1986, Herbster 1992, Sun 1992) have shown that teachers can learn to teach and/or resort to alternative teaching strategies from their repertoires in order to adapt to a variety of learning styles and, consequently, to maximize learning in their students.

The Preliminary Study (Background)

Research Questions

The original study done at the Language Department at the UDLA was based on the following research questions: (Milman & Bauder 1989: 2)

1. What are the preferred learning styles of the ESL students surveyed?
2. What are the preferred teaching styles of the ESL teachers surveyed?
3. Is there a match or a mismatch among learning and teaching styles?

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4. Is further study of how to adapt teaching styles to accommodate
preferred learning styles warranted?

The Survey, design, subjects and procedures

Two forty-one item surveys, one for students and one for teachers, were administered in the Language Department of the UDLA-Puebla, during the Fall semester. 1989. A sample of students that was evenly distributed across the ESL Coordinations among males (221) and females (199), completed the survey (a self-reporting questionnaire about their preferred learning styles within the ESL classroom). All students surveyed were Mexican.

At the same time, 28 teachers participated in the survey: 4 were male, 24 female. They answered a 41-item self-reporting questionnaire about their preferred teaching style. This instrument was designed by adapting the categories for teaching styles from the corresponding learning styles, since no set instrument was found in the relevant literature for the former. The teachers were distributed as follows: 14 Anglo-Americans; 7 Mexicans; 2 Mexican-American; 5 from other countries (Germany, France, Poland).

The student questionnaire used in the first study was designed based on the following definition of learning styles (Bennett 1986: 96):

Learning style is that consistent pattern of behavior and performance by which an individual approaches educational experiences. It is the composite of characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with and responds to the learning environment.

Expanding this same definition, it was considered that a teaching style is a pattern of behavior or performance by which a teacher approaches teaching tasks and responds in a teaching environment.

The survey was designed to include twelve variables that related to behaviors that could be easily responded to in a classroom situation. They were a combination of the learning styles presented in the Learning Style Inventory (LSI) developed by Dunn, Dunn & Price (1975), together with Reid's (1987) learning preferences for six of the learning styles. These variables included[2]:

Definitions of these terms and copies of the questionnaires are available from the author upon request.

- Modes of perception:	auditory/visual/tactile/kinesthetic
-Social preference:	group/individual
-Conceptual time:	reflective/impulsive
-Psychological elements:	field dependent/field independent
	competitive/cooperative

For the teachers' questionnaire, items related to learning styles were adapted to match teaching behaviors shown in an ESL classroom.

Results of the Preliminary Study: Students

Regarding the results of the students surveyed, the six most frequently and consistently chosen learning styles were *reflective, cooperative, visual, kinesthetic, individual,* and *auditory,* which ranked the highest on the total 12-item list.

Rank	Learning Style	Percentage
1	reflective	92
2	cooperative	85
3	visual	82
4	kinesthetic	79
5	individual	79
6	auditory	75
7	field independent	72
8	group	70
9	tactile	69
10	field dependent	68
11	impulsive	67
12	competitive	47

Table 1. Preferred Learning Styles (Students)

As far as the *field dependent* or *independent* modes are concerned, the UDLA students demonstrated considerable cognitive flexibility. These two categories ranked quite evenly on the list, and the distribution showed the flexibility in the categories of "always", "sometimes", "almost never", "never" with a noticeable low number for "don't know." These preferences were expected to be different for the ESL students at the beginning level, together with the element of *individual/group* learning style. This aspect posed some new questions for the present study and will be reported further on

On the other hand, the differences and ranking of the responses of male and female students were not significant, although female students indicated more definite preferences as shown below:

Males		Females	
reflective	79%	reflective	100
cooperative	70%	cooperative	82
auditory	65%	individual	82
individual	64%	auditory	80
visual	59%	visual	79

Table 2: Top Five Preferred Learning Styles

Based on grade averages, students continued to choose the same top six styles. Nevertheless, it was apparent that students with a grade averages of less than 7.0, in other words, those in danger of failing English, show a different set of styles, namely *visual, tactile, kinesthetic, group, reflective* and *cooperative*. This raised another question for the follow-up study, and will be dealt with further in this paper.

The learning style for which the least preference was shown was competitive. This factor was considered especially in contrasting the students' learning styles and some of the professors' teaching styles.

Teachers

The global results obtained in the preliminary study of teachers' preferred teaching styles are shown in Table 3. As can be noticed, the top six teaching styles preferred by the teachers surveyed were *cooperative, reflective, auditory, group, field dependent,* and *individual*.

Rank	Teaching Style	Percentage
1	cooperative	93
2	reflective	80
3	auditory	65
4	group	65
5	field dependent	59
6	individual	53
7	visual	46
8	kinestheic	43
9	field independent	38
10	competititve	21
11	tactile	16
12	impulsive	16

Table 3: Preferred Teaching Styles (Teachers)

These categories do not coincide totally with those chosen by students. The hierarchies as chosen by both groups studied are shown in Table 4.

Learning Style				Teaching Style		
Rank	Style	%		Rank	Style	%
1	reflective	92		1	cooperative	93
2	cooperative	85		2	reflective	80
3	visual	82*		3	auditory	65
4	kinesthetic	79*		4	group	65
5	individual	79		5	field dep.	59
6	auditory	75		6	individual	53
7	field ind.	72*		7	visual	46
8	group	70		8	kinesthetic	43
9	tactile	69*		9	field ind.	38
10	field dep.	68		10	competitive	21
11	impulsive	67*		11	tactile	16
12	competitive	47		12	impulsive	16

* = more than 30 percentage point difference. (Milman & Bauder 1989)

Table 4: Comparison of Student-Teacher Survey Results.

Several inconsistencies can be seen in Table 4. There is a contrast between the *visual-auditory* modes of perception in the students' and the teachers' rankings. It is actually reversed, with a big point difference in this case; therefore, there is a discrepancy between learning and teaching styles.

Another contrast exists between the *individual-group* social references shown by students and teachers. If each list is considered separately, the preferences are also reversed, and if we look at them in a parallel way, there is almost a 30 percentage point difference between teachers' preferences for individual work as opposed to students' preferences for group work. So, another mismatch was found.

On the other hand, it is interesting to mention that between the elements of *competiveness-cooperation,* although both lists show a match between learning and teaching styles, all the male Anglo-American teachers and 20% of the female Anglo-American teachers marked *competitive,* while in the case of students, both male and female students ranked this aspect very low, and ranked the *cooperative* aspect consistently very high (Table 2) This shows a need for at least an awareness process on the part of the teacher.

The *kinesthetic* mode was also demonstrated to be different between the student and teacher groups, students consistently ranking it as one of the top six learning styles of their preference, while teachers ranked it very low.

In spite of these differing styles, the two aspects at the top of both the learning and teaching styles lists coincided strongly. That is, *reflective* and *cooperative* learning and teaching styles were consistently chosen by both the students and teachers surveyed, with the smallest point differences on the lists.

While these preferences showed consistency in both populations analyzed, the same was not observed in students who were at risk, or had obtained a grade of 7.0 or below. Their top preferred learning styles were *visual, tactile, kinesthetic, group, reflective* and *cooperative.*

Follow-up Research

Recently, looking at the results of the preliminary research done at the UDLA in 1989, new questions and possible implications suggested the need for a follow-up study. About the same time, a new study, which also throws light on the problem, was conducted for the Lilly Endowment 1992 Workshop on Liberal Arts in Colorado, in which success rates of the Language Department were analyzed. Based on these studies, the researcher found the need to examine several problems prevailing in the basic

ESL levels at the UDLA: The students at the basic levels showed a strong tendency to fail the basic ESL course (48%) in 1992. Out of this percentage, 32% were repeating the course. The global dropout rate was also high during the first three semesters, reaching 35% in 1992.

During their first three semesters, and after a placement exam in English, the majority of students at the UDLA enroll in these basic English courses. Students with insufficient knowledge of English (about 30% of the incoming freshmen) are placed in the basic ESL course. This is actually a remedial course meant to give such students a grounding in English. It is a Pass/Fail course, and is therefore called a "pre-university" ESL course, in the English Division[1] which corresponds to their major.

The present research was conducted over three semesters in the University English Division and included all the students who obtained the fewest points in the placement exam and who were systematically grouped together into classes for the first time.

Research Questions

1. What are the preferred learning styles of the pre-university ESL students surveyed?

2. What are the preferred teaching styles of the pre-university ESL teachers surveyed?

3. Can the use of alternative teaching styles be accommodated to foster learning to its maximum at the pre-university English level?

4. Can a new teaching strategy which matches the learning styles preferred by students reduce or avoid repeaters and/or dropouts in the level surveyed?

Review of the Literature

The same definition cited by Bennett (1986) and used by Milman & Bauder (1989) was the basis for the present study. As attested by Dunn & Dunn (1979) and Reid (1987), most students are able to "correctly identify their learning strengths, particularly when an element is strongly preferred or rejected." (Dunn & Dunn) At the same time, from the following research techniques: daily observation, error analysis and paper-and pencil instruments, the latter were chosen to identify learning and teaching styles for the present study. It was also assumed that a difference between

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[1]The English Division is the part of the Language Department which teaches ESL to students enrolled in the Social Studies and Liberal Arts Schools.

learning and teaching styles can affect learning (Reid 1987, Oxford 1990, Lam 1990, Morgan 1976):

> The challenges to education are great [...] and the challenges particularly include a need for experimentation in teaching approaches that could reach individuals whose full potential for learning has scarcely been tapped. (Morgan 1976: 84)

Furthermore, although educators might understand the concept of learning styles and differences, they often have not actually applied these variables in determining appropriate teaching methods and strategies. This was the situation in the University English Division. There is evidence that teachers can be trained to become flexible and teach with a variety of teaching styles. Dunn & Dunn (1979), Oxford (1990), and Nickel (1981) among others have presented evidence that matching teaching styles to the learning styles preferred by the students can be highly beneficial both for the students' achievement, as well as for the increased motivation that results from the process.

In the case of the students surveyed in the preliminary study, those failing ESL courses showed a significant difference in their learning styles preferences. Therefore, the data from similar students surveyed in the follow-up study had to be explored along these lines because

> It is precisely those students who are most difficult and who absorb most of our attention whose learning styles do not match the kind of instruction to which they are being exposed--and who most need the organized, sensitive matching of their learning characteristics with an appropriate teaching style. (Dunn & Dunn 1979: 241)

It follows that teachers should resort to, and/or be trained in, a variety of teaching strategies and methods, and become aware of the potentially successful process if they approach their teaching in a rich, flexible way in order to match their students' learning styles.

Survey Design, Subjects and Procedures

This research was conducted during the following semesters: Fall 1991, Spring 1992, and Fall 1992 in the University English Division of the Language Department at the UDLA-Puebla. The level surveyed was the pre-university basic ESL course.

For the Fall 1991 and Spring 1992 semesters, all the pre-university course sections were scheduled at the same hour, thus allowing for a grouping or "pull-out" system for

those students obtaining the lowest placement scores. These students became the experimental group. For the Fall 1991 semester, the researcher and teacher of the experimental group also taught one of the two control groups, chosen at random from a total of six sections. For the Spring 1992 period, the same grouping procedure was followed. In this case, there were two experimental groups taught by the same teacher, and one control group (chosen at random from the total number of sections) taught by another member of the faculty.

For the Fall 1992 semester there were two experimental groups, one of which was taught by a different teacher who was new to the experiment, one was taught by the previously involved teacher, and there was one control group taught by a third faculty member. Student distribution by semester is shown in Table 5.

The same survey questionnaires used in the preliminary research were applied to students and teachers involved in the follow-up study in order to explore their learning and teaching style preferences.

	Fall 1991		Spring 1992		Fall 1992	
	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group	Experimental Group	Control Group
Number of Students	22*	17*	24*	25	21*	23
		24	21*		21	
Total	22	41	45	25	42	23

Table 5. Distribution of Pre-University Students Surveyed (*Sections taught by author.)

A total of 119 students participated in the experimental groups during the three semester study. After being pulled out of the pre-university sections, and immediately after beginning each semester, these students completed the self-reporting questionnaire, choosing their preferred learning styles.

Based on these results, decisions were made about systematically matching the teaching styles of the teacher in charge. A set of alternative teaching strategies involving specific teaching techniques, materials, timing and sequencing of content, classroom management, group dynamics, and the allocation of other resources were then considered, organized, and implemented in the experimental groups to meet the learn-

ing styles and strengths of the students involved. No questionnaires were completed nor specific strategic decisions made for the control group.

Then, assessment decisions were made. All ESL students in the Language Department, including the University English Division with its pre-university courses, are evaluated on a departmental basis, which means that all sections of one course take the same formal examination every month (four monthly exams per semester). Regarding the pre-university courses, it was decided from the very beginning of the project that the experimental group(s) would have their own examinations to evaluate the first three months, and that they would take the same departmental final exam as would the rest of the students enrolled at that level. Still, the exams for the experimental group(s) were designed following the same format as the regular sections. As with these regular sections, the exams were always accumulative-objective in nature.

Results and Discussion

In this section the most relevant results of the follow-up study will be discussed. Table 6 shows the learning styles preferences chosen by students in the first semester (Fall 1991) in which the study took place.

Rank	Learning Style	Percentage
1	visual	96
2	tactile	90
3	kinesthetic	89
4	group	86
5	cooperative	85
6	reflective	81
7	field dependent	78
8	auditory	74
9	individual	52
10	field independent	50
11	competitive	33
12	impulsive	18

Table 6. Preferred Learning Styles of Students in Experimental Group (Fall 1991)

Of the 22 students surveyed, the division between sexes was practically even: 10 male and 12 female.

Several aspects are interesting. The *visual, tactile,* and *kinesthetic* preferences strongly coincided with the results of the preliminary study concerning the relationship between lower academic average and styles preferred by students. Interestingly enough, this semester there were no repeaters in the experimental group; all were first semester students. A further aspect is that the *visual* and *kinesthetic* perception modes match the control groups' extrapolated data and the preliminary research findings.

On the other hand, there was a very consistent and close relation between the *group* and *cooperative* styles preferences in the top six learning styles chosen by the experimental group. These also match the data found in the preliminary study for the students at risk. But the more successful students did not show the same rankings in the base study. So, this may imply that these styles may not be as productive in the ESL courses at the UDLA.

A more striking contrast is the one between these learning styles and the typical teaching styles preferred by ESL teachers surveyed in the base study (see Table 3).

So, in the follow-up research a systematic attempt was made to match the students' preferred learning styles. The first step was to analyze the preferred teaching style of the experimental teacher. The results are listed in the following chart:

Teaching Style	%	Teaching Style	%	Teaching Style	%
Visual	97	Reflective	88	Auditory	63
Kinesthetic	95	Field Dependent	85	Individual	50
Group	91	Competitive	71	Field Independent	45
Cooperative	89	Tactile	65	Impulsive	25

Table 7. Experimental Teacher's Teaching Styles (Fall 1991)

Except for the *tactile* mode, there was a match between the students' preferred learning styles and the teacher's teaching styles. Nevertheless, and taking into account that the students' styles should be matched as much as possible by the teacher's teach-

ing styles, decisions were made to enhance their learning through specific teaching strategies.

1. Visual materials such as wall charts, flash cards, and materials which students could manipulate were systematically included in a large number of class sessions.
2. Some TPR techniques were employed, such as physically responding to directions, mimicry, silent dramatizations followed by spoken-acted dramatizations, and some games like *Simon Says, Memorana* and *Concentration* with activities, verbs action cards. TPR responses were adapted too.
3. Taking into consideration the *group + cooperative* modes chosen by students, numerous small group activities were implemented with the experimental group, especially those using problem-solving or jigsaw puzzle approach (Kagan 1985, Johnson, Johnson & Johnson-Holubeck 1987, Aronsen 1978).
4. A conscious and systematic effort was made to allow enough time for students' *reflective* time, using appropriate questioning techniques, always establishing the objectives for the activities conducted in class, and explicitly sub-dividing students in subtasks so as to give them a sense of achievement.
5. Based on the *field dependent* learning style, consistent reinforcement was provided permanently by the teacher and peer reinforcement was welcomed.
6. In the weekly lesson plans, a balance between inductive and deductive teaching techniques was established in order to train students to be exposed to a variety of approaches in class and with the intention of letting them experience flexibility in their own learning styles for their future academic life.

Two teaching assistants, who matched the learning styles of the students and who were also very committed to learning and experiencing innovative teaching approaches, participated in the experiment as resource TA's. Two sub-groups were formed within the experimental group: the more *kinesthetic-tactile* students worked an additional hour with a highly *kinesthetic-tactile* TA, who used a highly participatory approach and TPR. The other sub-group was formed of those students who ranked the *group-cooperative-field dependent* categories very high. They worked for an extra hour with a TA whose own teaching style showed a high tendency for the *group-cooperative*. The extra sessions were held in various locations (library study cubicles, outdoor sessions, the cafeteria, etc.) and were not limited to a typical classroom setting. Both TA's and the experimental teacher met once a week throughout the semester. All kept daily journals of their classes, and all activities were planned and organized together. Table 8 lists the teaching styles of the teacher in charge of the experimental groups (Column 3) and those of the two TA's involved in the Fall 1991 semester (Columns 4 and 5).

Rank	Teaching Style	Percentage: Experimental Teacher	Percentage: TA 1	Percentage: TA 2
1	Visual	97	92	97
2	Kinesthetic	95	96	89
3	Group	91	93	87
4	Cooperative	89	90	90
5	Reflective	88	89	89
6	Field Dependent	85	85	87
7	Competitive	71	84	75
8	Tactile	65	82	86
9	Auditory	63	60	65
10	Individual	50	51	54
11	Field Independent	45	43	40
12	Impulsive	25	32	11

Table 8. Preferred Teaching Styles: Experimental Teacher and TA's (Fall 1991)

Results of the experimental group grades are listed in Table 9 and Table 10 shows these results compared with those of the control groups.

Student Number	Month 1	Month 2	Month 3	Month 4	Final Grade
1.	83	78	88	80	82 / AC
2.	62	70	73	74	69 / NA
3.	72	80	85	79	79 / AC
4.	73	85	88	80	81 / AC
5.	80	88	92	87	87 / AC
6.	84	89	87	80	85 / AC
7.	86	92	95	90	91 / AC
8.	94	95	98	89	94 / AC
9.	86	91	93	85	89 / AC
10.	81	87	88	74	82 / AC
11.	90	80	82	81	83 / AC
12.	89	81	90	87	87 / AC
13.	92	88	94	80	88 / AC
14.	92	83	78	77	82 / AC
15.	91	82	85	73	83 / AC
16.	78	70	78	67	73 / NA
17.	94	90	92	85	90 / AC
18.	91	89	88	89	89 / AC
19.	100	95	93	89	94 / AC
20.	84	78	67	60	72 / NA
21.	80	72	74	65	72 / NA
22.	83	70	80	72	76 / AC

Passing (AC-*Acreditado*): 18 Students (81.82%)
Not Passing (NA-No *Acreditado*): 4 Students (18.18%)

Table 9. Monthly Grade Results of First Experimental Group (Fall 1991)

Student Number	Experimental Group	Control 1	Control 2	Control 3
1.	**82**	72	**88**	68
2.	69	**84**	65	DROP
3.	79	65	34	**83**
4.	**81**	79	71	66
5.	87	67	**79**	81
6.	85	80	76	90
7.	91	73	77	75
8.	94	77	72	85
9.	89	64	69	DROP
10.	82	50	72	**80**
11.	**83**	**82**	56	77
12.	87	73	**86**	54
13.	**88**	**76**	**75**	75
14.	82	72	**80**	**89**
15.	**83**	60	64	61
16.	73	71	DROP	60
17.	90	73	94	80
18.	**89**	-	77	65
19.	94	-	DROP	**82**
20.	72	-	66	**88**
21.	72	-	72	35
22.	76	-	**89**	63
23.	-	-	DROP	**80**
24.	-	-	DROP	-
Passing (AC)	**81.82% (18)**	**35.29% (6)**	**35.71% (10)**	**54.17% (13)**
Failing (NA)	18.18% (4)	64.71% (11)	50% (14)	37.50% (9)
Drops	0	0	14.29% (4)	8.33% (2)
Total Number of Students	100% (22)	100% (17)	100% (28)	100% (24)

Table 10. Comparison of Results (Final Grades): Experimental vs. Control Groups (Fall, 1991)

From the results presented in the previous tables, one can see that the number of students passing (AC) the pre-university course in the experimental group is by far greater than the control groups. After working with and observing both the experimental group and control groups this first semester of the research project, some elements demonstrated the positive effect that using teaching styles that match the learning styles preferred by students at the beginning levels, leading them to higher and more consistent achievement.

When looking at the monthly grades of all groups, there was a pattern showing that students who passed the first monthly departmental exam, but did not pass the rest of the departmental exams were putting themselves at high risk of not passing the course, and becoming potential repeaters and/or dropouts.

Another interesting element that was observed was that there were several cases of students dropping out in the control groups. This might be an indicator of their not being able to cope with the course content, the teaching styles used by the teachers, the working-learning styles thus expected from students, among other factors. This was different in the experimental section as can be seen in Table 10. Even the students who failed the course stayed in it and worked during the whole semester without getting so discouraged that they dropped the course.

All students in the experimental group knew what their monthly goal was, including the final month, which included the regular departmental final exam. It is noticeable that the results obtained on this exam were very consistent with the rest of the results throughout the semester, a fact which allowed them to pass the course. On the other hand, a contrasting pattern exists in which students in the control groups pass the first and/or second monthly exams, but fail the final. This very often makes them fail the course and, as a result, repeat it.

In the second semester of the follow-up research (Spring 1992), there were two experimental groups and one control group chosen at random from the rest of the sections being offered that semester. This distribution was changed not by chance, but with specific intentions in mind. There was a need to verify if the first semester had been successful because of the type of students received in their first semester or because of the combination of resources, including the experimental group teacher and the two TA's involved or because of their will to make it work, etc. So, the second semester, the combination changed. Also, it must be kept in mind that at the beginning of the semester all the students in the experimental group(s) had to answer the self-reporting questionnaire of their preferred learning styles. Therefore too, some of the elements of the course were changed to better accommodate them to the students' styles.

The researcher taught two experimental groups and a second member of the faculty taught another section of the pre-university course which was used as the control group for that period.

As can be seen in Table 5, there were 45 students involved in the two experimental groups (24 and 21 in each one), while 25 other students were in the control group.

The preferred learning styles selected by the experimental group students are shown in Table 11 below.

Rank	Learning Style	Percentage
1	visual	96
2	tactile	93
3	kinesthetic	89
4	group	84
5	reflective	81
6	cooperative	75
7	field dependent	61
8	individual	59
9	competitive	55
10	auditory	32
11	field independent	21
12	impulsive	10

Table 11. Learning Style Preferences for Students in the Experimental Groups (Spring 1992)

These choices and preferences closely correspond to what the preliminary research found about students with a grade of less than 7.0 (that is those failing the course). In fact, for the Spring 1992 semester, the majority of the students in the experimental groups had failed the pre-university courses the previous semester, and only a minority (5) were first semester students. The challenge of proving that by accommodating teaching styles to students' preferred learning styles was great.

From the very beginning of the semester, it was interesting to see the mismatch between the regular teaching styles expressed by the faculty in the preliminary study

and the learning styles selected by the students now surveyed. Could that be one of the reasons for their academic failure?

As was done in the first semester, students completed the learning styles questionnaire. Then the results were analyzed and decisions made accordingly. These involved the following:

1. Visual materials (wall charts, flash cards, maps) were included in class and *visual-tactile* materials which students could manipulate were implemented as much as possible.
2. Some TPR techniques were employed, such as physically responding to directions, mimicry, dramatizations, following directions, etc.
3. Class sessions systematically used a stimulus variation including seating arrangement, materials, combination of language skills and types of tasks, interaction styles. Not all class sessions were held in the same classroom, and some sessions took place outdoors.
4. Taking the *group-reflective-cooperative* modes into consideration, and given that most students had already been exposed to the topics of the syllabus, numerous small group activities were included. This allowed students to help each other use their previous knowledge and build knowledge from there.
5. A strong and motivating warm-up period was always present at the beginning of each class session since some students showed low motivation and/or frustration as a consequence of having failed the previous course.
6. An effort was made to teach both inductively and deductively, allowing students to discover facts about language and its mechanisms for themselves. Also, some problem-solving and jigsaw puzzle cooperative techniques were used in class.
7. The combination and sequencing of topics to be covered were different from their previous courses, so as to try new ways of reaching the same goals.
8. A "think-aloud" report for each group or for each individual in conferences with the teacher were included, so as to help students identify their strengths and weaknesses in the learning process *per se*. ("How? Why? Explain it to me in English or Spanish." were used a lot.)
9. During the semester, the *cooperative-competitive* modes of learning changed. This was observed to be connected with the fact that more male students were repeating the course. As we recall, the *competitive* preference was more consistently marked by male students and ranked high by the male Anglo-American teachers involved in the preliminary study. It was also observed that this strategy could change in close connection with the immediate results obtained. Students became more competitive when more differential grades were obtained. This mode was also task-connected. Therefore, this time, both *cooperative* and *competitive* activities were implemented in and out of class.

10. Instead of the extra human resources used in the first semester of the study, a new element was introduced in this second semester: A computerized Basic English program, which could be used outside class and in conference with the teacher. The program included numerous exercises, gave immediate feedback and orientation according to student's responses and gave the user his/her score. This was kept in a weekly scorebook for each student, and was also used as a competitive element.

The grade results of the experimental groups are listed below (Table 12). Table 13 shows the experimental groups' results compared with those of the control group.

Tables 12 and 13 show some interesting results. Both experimental groups practically duplicate the passing percentages in comparison to the control groups. On the other hand, this time there were practically the same number of students dropping out regardless of whether they were in the experimental or control groups, although, as a whole, the dropout rate was reduced in comparison with the previous semester.

Although not used as a formal instrument for the purpose of this study, the evaluation and feedback questionnaires all students have to complete as part of the faculty evaluation system at the UDLA provided interesting data. In the Spring 1992 semester, more students expressed positive feedback as far as their opinions being taken into account, understanding the English class, becoming motivated by the variety of activities, material and group dynamics used in class, practicing out of class more via the English computer program, etc. This confirmed what students reported throughout the semester in the "think-aloud" sessions.

The researcher as a teacher, having rated the *competitive* element rather high, had to systematically balance each weekly lesson plan so as to be sensitive to students' preferences. Towards the end of the course, students expressed preference for the *cooperative* mode, although they reported that the *competitive* style made them more immediately aware of their strengths and weaknesses in a one-shot exposure, instead of in a longer process. This aspect seemed to be very relevant to teachers who needed to become aware of students' needs and learning style preferences to be able to adjust their teaching styles to their students'. This requires a lot of self-control, as can be attested to by the researcher.

Student Number	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2
1.	**91**	75
2.	47	**78**
3.	98	69
4.	**91**	DROP
5.	**86**	79
6.	**92**	83
7.	**84**	75
8.	DROP	53
9.	69	83
10.	**78**	80
11.	**90**	86
12.	49	66
13.	**78**	77
14.	76	75
15.	**84**	80
16.	**89**	79
17.	48	80
18.	77	90
19.	31	71
20.	81	90
21.	81	75
22.	**84**	-
23.	**90**	-
24.	51	-
Passing (AC)	**68.00% (17)**	**76.19% (16)**
Failing (NA)	28.00% (28)	19.04% (4)
Drop outs	4% (1)	4.77% (1)
Total number of students	100% (25)	100% (21)

Table 12. Student Results: Two Experimental Groups (Spring 1992)

Student Number	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control Group
1.	91	75	73
2.	47	78	68
3.	98	69	51
4.	91	DROP	71
5.	86	79	65
6.	92	83	81
7.	84	75	74
8.	DROP	53	81
9.	69	83	DROP
10.	78	80	67
11.	90	86	84
12.	49	66	73
13.	78	77	85
14.	76	75	67
15.	84	80	80
16.	89	79	86
17.	48	80	87
18.	77	90	80
19.	31	71	68
20.	81	90	59
21.	81	75	74
22.	84	-	69
23.	90	-	52
24.	51	-	69
25.	-	-	57
Passing (AC)	68.00% (17)	76.19% (16)	32.00% (8)
Failing (NA)	28.00% (28)	19.04% (4)	64.00% (16)
Drop outs	4% (1)	4.77% (1)	4.00% (1)
Total number of students	100% (25)	100% (21)	100% (25)

Table 13. Comparison of Results between Experimental Groups and Control Group

Let us look at the third semester of the follow-up study, Fall 1992.

As can be seen in Table 5, 42 students were involved in two experimental groups, and 23 belonged to the control group. The majority of the students were first semester students. There were only three repeaters in the two experimental groups.

All students in the experimental groups completed the survey about their learning style preferences. The results are presented in Table 14.

It is interesting to observe that at the beginning levels, all three semester pre-university ESL courses surveyed ranked *visual* at the top. On the other hand, it is noticeable that in this last semester the students selected *reflective-cooperative* with a high percentage, thus making their profile more similar to that of the students in the preliminary study at all levels and across the English Divisions. In fact, the latter chose *reflective-cooperative-visual-kinesthetic* as the top four learning styles they preferred. This time, the order of *visual* is reversed, but the top four are the same and with very similar percentages.

Rank	Learning Style	Percentage
1	visual	92
2	reflective	90
3	cooperative	89
4	kinesthetic	83
5	group	80
6	auditory	71
7	field dependent	66
8	individual	49
9	tactile	35
10	field independent	22
11	competitive	17
12	impulsive	11

Table 14. Preferred Learning Styles of Students in the Experimental Groups (Fall 1992)

In the third semester of the study, there were two experimental groups, taught by the teacher/researcher, who was involved from the very beginning of the study, and another member of the faculty. The teaching styles of both experimental teachers are listed in Table 15.

Teacher #1			Teacher #2		
Rank	Style	%	Rank	Style	%
1.	visual	97	1.	cooperative	96
2.	kinesthetic	95	2.	reflective	95
3.	group	91	3.	visual	90
4.	cooperative	89	4.	group	89
5.	reflective	88	5.	kinesthethic	87
6.	field dependent	85	6.	field dependent	85
7.	competitive	71	7.	auditory	72
8.	tactile	65	8.	individual	60
9.	auditory	63	9.	field indep.	53
10.	individual	50	10.	competitive	40
11.	field indep.	45	11.	tactile	39
12.	impulsive	25	12.	impulsive	37

Table 15. Experimental Teachers teaching Style Preferences (Fall 1992)

This semester it was considered interesting to see the feasibility and practicality of having another teacher conduct one of the experimental groups in order to analyze the impact that trying to adapt to students learning styles has on teacher's planning, course and classroom management, decision making, etc. At the same time, it was time to examine if any teacher could adapt his/her teaching styles to his/her students' learning styles if made aware of them early in the semester.

This third semester there seemed to be a closer match between the new experimental teacher and the students surveyed than the connection between the former experimental teacher and students involved during that period. So, it was relevant to confirm that teachers who are made aware of their students' preferred learning styles early in the semester can really match their teaching styles with those of their students. Could this really be practical and viable?

Looking at students' and teachers' style preference lists, several aspects lend themselves to discussion. For instance, the top four learning styles selected by students were very similar to those of students in the preliminary study, namely *reflective, cooperative, visual,* and *kinesthetic* for the preliminary study, and *visual, reflective, cooperative,* and *kinesthetic* for the follow-up study.

Visual was always at the top of the list, but this might be due to the more extensive use of media in general, as well as in the academic field. Students might be coming to us now with more exposure to visual materials (videotapes, for instance). The combination of learning styles so consistently chosen by students is very interesting. For the correlation between these and the teaching styles preferred by UDLA teachers, the match exists with the *cooperative-reflective* modes of teaching. In the case of the second teacher conducting an experimental group this time, her preferences for *cooperative, reflective, visual,* and *group (kinesthetic* was her fifth preferred style) more closely matched students' preferred learning styles. There was also a close correspondence between the preference of *field dependent,* highly ranked by both teachers, and the same style marked by students. Note that this is a close match with UDLA ESL teachers too.

After students and teachers completed the survey questionnaires, the information was analyzed. The decisions about working with the new students were then made.

1. The same visual materials were used in both experimental groups (most were the same ones used throughout the research period).
2. The *cooperative-reflective-group* modes were taken into account by including small group activities, careful timing to allow for reflection time, and input from all students involved.
3. Students were giveen consistent reinforcement and feedback were given students by beth teachers and peers.
4. Each teacher discovered that they preferred either an inductive or a deductive teaching method, but a conscious effort was made by both to plan their lessons together, and to maintain a balance between these two in order to better accommodate students' learning differences.
5. No additional tutors were included this time, but students were encouraged to have periodic conferences with their respective teachers.
6. The computerized English program was used again both outside class and during some conferences with the teachers.
7. The two experimental groups never met during the semester, but their teachers had weekly meetings.

Table 16 lists the results of the students' in the three groups considered for the Fall 1992 semester.

Student Number	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control Group
1.	78	Drop	Drop
2.	82	53	80
3.	90	50	79
4.	77	83	Drop
5.	85	86	79
6.	73	76	79
7.	54	83	76
8.	76	88	75
9.	80	78	75
10.	92	85	81
11.	85	78	77
12.	69	94	40
13.	88	73	75
14.	84	88	84
15.	72	70	Drop
16.	73	82	86
17.	87	92	87
18.	73	89	Drop
19.	92	83	Drop
20.	62	81	Drop
21.	77	73	Drop
22.	--	--	Drop
23.	--	--	Drop
Passing (AC)	66.66% (14)	71.43% (15)	52.00% (12)
Failing (NA)	33.33% (7)	23.80% (5)	47.83% (11)
Drop outs	0	4.77% (1)	30.43% (7)
Total number of students	100% (25)	100% (21)	100% (25)

Table 16. Comparison of Final Grades of Experimental Groups and Control Group (Fall 1992)

As can be seen in the table, passing students (AC) obtained higher grade averages in both experimental groups. Comparing both of these groups, this time the new teacher's group obtained better results. Although constant efforts were made by both teachers to meet students' preferred learning styles, this might indicate that the matching of styles proves beneficial, but that better results may be obtained if the match is natural. This could limit the practicality of matching teaching styles to learning styles, but the results obtained here still seem to indicate that the effort is worthwhile. It is considered that this could be overcome through a well-thought-out in-service training program for the UDLA ESL teachers.

There were no dropouts in experimental group No. 1 and only one in group 2, while there were 7 students who dropped out of the control group. This high number of dropouts had happened previously during the experiment and may be further evidence that when students are accomplishing something and feeling accommodated regarding their learning styles, they tend to maintain their efforts to get to their goal, of passing their basic ESL course.

Conclusions and Suggestions

Both the preliminary research (Milman & Bauder 1989) and the follow-up study here presented dealt with the preferred learning and teaching styles selected by both the students and teachers of the ESL program in the Language Department at the Universidad de las Américas-Puebla.

The preliminary research explored the preferences expressed by a sample of students and teachers across the English Divisions in order to analyze whether a match or a mismatch existed between them. A strong match was found only in two of the specific elements considered: *reflective* and *cooperative*, while mismatches to various degrees were found in all other elements (Table 4). It was also discovered that a different set of learning styles was selected by unsuccessful students. These elements posed new questions which were the basis for the follow-up study, namely whether an attempt should be made to meet students' preferred learning styles and whether this would prove to be practical.

The follow-up study concentrated on the pre-university (basic) ESL course taught in the University English Division, UDLA, in which the profile of students was anticipated to be different.

1. The pre-university students surveyed consistently chose *visual, tactile, kinesthetic, group, cooperative, reflective*, and *field dependent* as their preferred learning styles. This did not coincide with the teaching styles preferences expressed by the teachers surveyed in the base study.

2. Assigning a teacher whose preferred teaching styles matched the pre-university students' typical learning styles, seemed to be conducive to better achievement and higher student motivation.

3. Obtaining students' information about their preferred learning styles early in the semester helped adapt the styles with which they would be taught and helped the teachers make better low-cost decisions (i.e., more teacher awareness > better planning > less student frustration > better student achievement > more student motivation > a decreasing number of dropouts and also more teacher involvement and a positive impact on their teaching.)

4. In order to further validate these studies, another instrument could be applied, such as the Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) developed by Dunn, Dunn & Price (1975) or the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) by Witkin, Oltman, Raskin & Karp (1971) or the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English (Oxford 1990).

5. A first step for matching teaching styes with learning styles is not only to inform teachers about its theoretical beneficial effects, but also to make them aware of these ideas and give them tools to start using the information about their students and also about themselves as input in their lessons and/or curriculum planning.

6. A sensible approach to matching teaching styles to learning styles is to expand the teachers teaching repertoire. This should include not only specific teaching techniques, but also foundations in group dynamics, classroom management, leadership, ESL material and resources, among others.

7. A special effort could be made to help students increase their learning style preferences and to become more flexible.

8. A replication of the present study could be done in the ESL Divisions of other departments not included in it, such as the Administrative and the Technical English Divisions.

9. A cost-benefit survey could be carried out in order to verify if taking specific steps in the early ESL course at the UDLA could reduce the dropout rates in the short run as well as in the long run. This could be done across Divisions, that is in the Administrative, Technical, as well as in the University English Divisions.

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Book Review Section

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Pyramid

Mary Bowen, Printha Ellis and Len Peterson. 1994. Macmillan Press, LTD. 111 pp.
(Series includes a pupil's book and workbook for the six levels of the course plus the
teacher's book and cassettes)

Reviewed by Veronica Cordero

In keeping pace with the latest methodologies and theories, mainly the communica-
tive approach, children's ESL books are not far behind. There seems to exist a press-
ing need to incorporate all novelty so as to come out ahead in the book publishing
competition.

Macmillan has turned out yet another ESL six-level children's series called *Pyra-
mid*. It consists of six books and workbooks, teacher's book and cassettes. I had the
opportunity of viewing only the first two levels of the book and workbook. They are
designed to introduce American English to primary students.

The book is organized into units, each one introducing a new structure. They do so
via a combination of ...listen and read, sing and ask/answer activities. At the back is
an attractive *word list* in which vocabulary is presented by category with accompany-
ing pictures.

The workbook supplements exercises for each unit along with many fun activities
children would surely enjoy. The series name is indicative of its organization of the
material: a building upon structures in keeping with how language is acquired.

The grammatical structures begin with the introductions using the verb BE and
ascend in difficulty. Book One introduces the modal *can* and auxiliaries *do* and *does*.

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Literature, University of Pennsylvania) is a native New Yorker born of Dominican parents. She teaches and coordinates
the English program at the English Training Center in Puebla.

Each unit introduces new structures with a song and later reinforces them with basic repetition of simple questions and answers promoting their use.

One of the series' merits is its visual appeal. The illustrations are brilliant and colorful--a child incentive Macmillan has taken full advantage of. The figures and characters (fantasy animals, humourous extraterrestials) will surely receive the approval of the most discerning child's need for visual stimulus.

Conceptually the series is noteworthy, particularly in regard to the notion of the *pyramid* use of songs which reinforce retention and the interesting activities. However, in the two levels reviewed here, the structures are presented too quickly: introductions, alphabet, colors, numbers, and a lot of new vocabulary as well as formulation of different kinds of questions in the first two units alone. The quick succession is bound to prevent thorough understanding. In addition, neither the book nor the workbook provide sufficient exercises for practicing the target structures. The activities, however fun they may be, do not aid in reinforcing the concepts. Also, there are few opportunities for practicing writing.

While the series claims to offer student activities and exercises which are student-centered, task-based, and which teach the basic functions, I find that its format fails to provide a truly communicative experience for children. In many cases, the vocabulary is introduced by a song followed by a short exercise where the student simply repeats the phrases. When a question is asked, the answer is already given. Students are not given many opportunities to create with the language, test themselves, or communicate amongst themselves.

In sum, the choice of material, its contextual presentation and visual appeal are the merits of the Pyramid Series. However, the weaknesses mentioned above would require an inordinate amount of teacher preparation in order to adequately introduce and reinforce concepts.

Voices in Literature
Mary Lou McCloskey and Lydia Stack. 1993. Boston: Heinle & Heinle. pp. iii-211.

Reviewed by Sherry K. Rasmussen. [2]

"Good literature is about the human experience," authors McCloskey and Stack write in the introduction to *Voices in Literature*. It "is meaningful to students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds." According to this definition, McCloskey and Stack have compiled a selection of very "good literature" which will be appreciated especially by adolescents and young adults. (The book was piloted in a variety of public schools in the U.S.) While *Voices in Literature* might be more meaningful to ESL students, as it includes texts about moving to another culture, EFL students would also enjoy becoming familiar with the variety of cultures represented in U.S. society and included in this book.

And what variety this book offers! The editors of *Voices in Literature* extend the definition of literature to include songs, speeches, and essays in addition to poetry, drama and short stories. The authors of the literature in this book come from several different North American cultures, such as African-American, Navajo, Chicano, and Chinese-American. In addition, McCloskey and Stack clearly wanted women authors represented as well as men. A small sample of the literature includes poems by Sandra Cisneros, Adrienne Rich, and Leroy Quintana; a play by Arthur Miller; stories by Bette Bao Lord and Langston Hughes; a speech by Martin Luther King; and a song by Paul Simon. Often a short profile of the author is included after the text.

The texts in *Voices in Literature* are organized into five thematic units: *Beginnings, Origins, Friendship, Wishes and Dreams*, and *Generations*. All of the texts are authentic. The editors have selected works which include vocabulary that students will use in other settings. Certain words are glossed in the text, and there is a glossary at the end of the book.

Before reading a text, students activate their schema through a variety of questions or activities related to its theme. After each text, in addition to answering comprehension questions, students examine various literary elements found in the text (such as compare and contrast, or cause and effect). Students are encouraged to share their ideas about the text and relate it to their own lives through discussions, drawings,

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writings, or other activities. Finally, the end of each unit includes a short bibliography of works related to the theme.

Voices in Literature is extremely appealing visually and represents a variety of cultures through artwork. We find drawings, paintings, lithographs, batiks, murals, and photographs by artists such as Keith Haring, Georgia O'Keefe, Grandma Moses, and Edward Hopper. Images vary from girls jumping Double Dutch rope to an Ojibwa family trekking near Lake Winnipeg, and from a turn-of-the-century New York street to a baking Arizona desert. In addition, the book uses brightly colored borders and illustrations which make it user-friendly as well as attractive.

While McCloskey and Stack clearly wanted females represented in their book, we still find few selections where the female is the major character or hero in the text. In many texts, such as various songs and poems, gender is not mentioned at all, and several other texts include both female and male major characters. Still the number of texts in which the male is the main character or hero outnumbers the female. The unit *Origins*, which includes myths from a variety of cultures, is notably male-centered, where leaders and heroes are male, while females are either caretakers or they are simply invisible. Granted, in some of these myths, animals work with the males and are also true heroes (in one myth, Earth is saved by a female muskrat), and McCloskey and Stack ensure that the animals get due credit in the post-reading activities. However, the editors otherwise do not deal with the question of male dominance in these myths (though teachers using this textbook may wish to do so). Similarly the *Wishes and Dreams* unit includes a tale with unfortunate stereotypes of the old woman as an evil witch, the princess as someone easily fooled, and the husband as the hero, but the editors do not address these stereotypes in the post-reading section. Nevertheless, *Voices in Literature* does offer several selections with strong bright female characters, and that is refreshing.

Voices in Literature is well-organized and well-written. It challenges students, and both teachers and students will find the book interesting, fun and educational. A Teacher's Manual and Activity Masters are available to supplement the textbook.

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Tidbits and Teaching Techniques for Tired Teachers
Peer Coaching [1]

Betty Phillips, Universidad del Valle de Mexico-Tlalpan

What is peer coaching? How does it affect your teaching? How will it improve your teaching? These are some of the questions this article will answer.

Have you ever come out of your classroom wondering how you did as a teacher? There are days that you think you're doing a wonderful job and then you see a later student evaluation or coordinator's teaching evaluation and see that it was usually low. Sometimes we dismiss this criticism as "They don't know what they're talking about." But as human beings and teachers we do not want people to criticize us and we do want to be good at our jobs. How can we do this without leaving ourselves open and vulnerable? Who can you ask for help without feeling embarrassed and awkward?

When we have trouble we usually look to a friend...a good friend. A person we can trust. A person who will give us good advice and helpful, constructive criticism. This is what peer coaching is all about. Psychologists suggest that we should have a *stress partner*, a person who will listen to you and respond to your mental needs. This is similar to peer coaching. We all have a colleague who is our particular friend. When you plan to meet with this friend--over coffee in the Teachers' Room or at breakfast or lunch or during a free hour, you both share, tell your special *peer coach* what you plan on doing in class. Give him or her what you want them to look for in your teaching, classroom environment or with your relationship with your students. For example, maybe your students don't seem to understand what you ask them to do during class. You tell them over and over again in English and them you end up having to tell them in Spanish. You want to know what the problem is.

Your peer coach goes into your class and takes notes, only observing what you want comments on. After the class you both get together and discuss the problems and possible solutions. There can even be a later observation to see if you have improved or not. In reality, all segments of a lesson plan and all types of problems can be observed and discussed and you can mutually help each other all year, constantly setting up new goals to be reached.

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[1] With the collaboration of Gloria Elena Diaz Rodriguez.