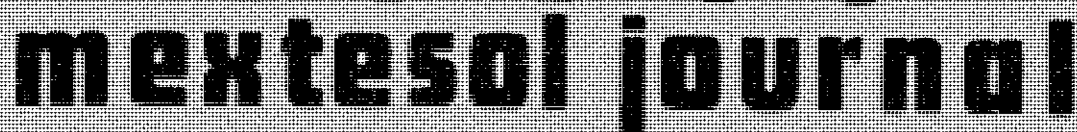

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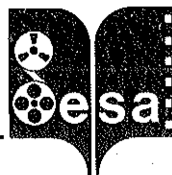

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M E X T E S O L

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From the Editors...

Publishing Number Three, the Fall issue, to coincide with Mextesol's Third Annual Convention, the MEXTESOL JOURNAL must now be counted one of the major accomplishments during the tenure of President Enrique Gutiérrez. Other goals have been reached in the past year: an impressive increase in membership and in Mextesol chapters; the revision of the By-laws; the regular publication of the Newsletter by Kamila Knap; but the editors of the JOURNAL take special pride in the founding and survival of this publication. It has been hard work for a group of dedicated people, at times a drain on their time and energies. But we feel it has been worth it. The JOURNAL has given a new impulse to the professional concerns of English Language Teaching in Mexico. Your continued support, in the form of membership renewal, conference attendance, and, of course, in contributions to its pages assures its future.

Acknowledgements...

The following persons or organizations contributed either their labor or their critical support in ways without which the journal could not have been printed and distributed.

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Special mention must also be made of Josephine Claudio, our talented Associate Editor, who worked long hours, including weekends, to insure that this number would be printed.

E. S. L.

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

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PEDAGOGIC ALTERNATIVES TO EXPLICATION DE TEXTE AS A PROCEDURE FOR TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION [1]

Ronald Mackay,
Research and Development Unit,
CELE, UNAM,
Alan Mountford,
Abdul Aziz University,
Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Introduction:

The purpose of this paper is to (i) examine the shortcomings of 'explication de texte' as a procedure for the teaching of reading comprehension and (ii) suggest alternatives which, in our experience, are more successful especially when dealing with students who are required to read for information as is the case at the tertiary level (University and Polytechnic) in Mexico.

1. - "Explication de Texte "

This is a commonly used technique in reading instruction in which a detailed reading of a text is followed by a detailed linguistic analysis. The approach, as employed originally in France, consists basically of four stages: (i) a consideration of the context (la situation du texte) (ii) the gist and structure (la composition du texte), (iii) the detailed analysis (etude analytique) and (iv) a conclusion.

Its successful and appropiate use in ESOL teaching seems to be associated with the teaching of English for literary purposes or where there is a strong literary bias to the English language programme. However, with correspondingly less success, the method is also applied to reading texts of a non-literary nature particularly with higher intermediate and advanced learners of English. It involves the teacher in going through a selected text word-by-word and sentence-by-sentence, explaining vocabulary and points of grammar which are either new or are expected (by the teacher) to cause the learner difficulty in comprehension. Thus, it involves taking a text apart through analytical scrutiny, dismantling its syntax, and unravelling its meaning in an effort to see as much as possible about what the writer has written, what he is saying, and how he says it.

2. - Our observations in a dozen countries including Mexico indicate that the method is widespread at the intermediate/advanced level of ESOL instruction, (especially with university and polytechnic undergraduates in the sciencies and technology) and is associated with the notion of intensive reading comprehension for special purposes.

[1] A revised version of a paper presented to the IATEFL Conference in London, April 1975.

The materials used are often collections of texts or excerpts from books or journals more or less related to areas of specialist interest of the students, such as, engineering, the physical sciences, medicine, etc. Such lessons are often labelled text appreciation or textual study, "translation" or, plainly, reading comprehension.

More often than not, it is left entirely to the teacher's discretion to decide what features of the text should be explained. This results in an indiscriminate "going through" the passage, after an initial reading aloud, or silent reading. The procedure usually takes up a whole period, which is convenient, and a multiplicity of linguistic points may be "covered" i. e. pointed out, explained and further illustrated, during the class hour. Unfortunately, the procedure leads to something of a virtuoso oral-explanatory performance on the part of the teacher, for which the student is required to use his ears far more than his eyes.

3. - The shortcomings of explication de texte in ESOL instruction are not hard to identify. They can be summarized under three headings: psychological, linguistic and pedagogic.

1. - Psychological:

a). - The method involves the minimal participation on the part of the learner.
This is a clear result of the technique being teacher-oriented.

b). - The method is based on no clear principles of teaching or learning.

As a method of literary criticism, it is justified by the ability of the interpreter to empathize with the writer, to interpret the writer's use of language for an aesthetic purpose from the standpoint of artistic judgement. This is hardly relevant where the texts are scientific in tone and subject matter and where the reading purpose is information - gathering as an auxiliary to vocational, academic or professional studies.

2. - Linguistic

The language points to be explicated are justified on the grounds that as part of a text, they are "contextualized". However.

a). - The selection of such points of grammar and usage is haphazard and arbitrary, governed by their sequential occurrence in the text, and by the limitations of the teacher's mastery of a description of English.

b). - The repeated contextual explanation and practice of such points must come outside the passage in exercises. Thus, there is little justification in claiming that the text itself brings out, in any full sense, the linguistic usages to be acquired:

c). - The points that are treated are generally NOT those that make the passage text, i. e. the features of cohesion. Commonly pointed out are special vocabulary, sentential patterns of some complexity, tense usages and sequences, or nominal and verbal groups within sentences.

We are not claiming that such points do not cause difficulty or do not require explication. However, discussion of them during an "explication de texte" kind of reading comprehension lesson often lacks orderliness and priority, and is cursory and, moreover, confusing to the student.

3. - Pedagogic:

a). - The technique often seems to lead to an equation of reading with translation, reflected in the kinds of tests and examinations associated with the method. An example of such a test might be instructions to the candidate to translate a text taken at random from those covered in the class, together with an unseen text similar in style and theme to those previously studied.

b). - The point already mentioned about the reading lesson becoming an exercise of aural comprehension is surely a confusion of language skills and pedagogic aims. Little actual reading comprehension seems to take place at all. Where the method is employed its very detailedness seems to lead to slow reading speed and poor comprehension in silent reading. The method itself hardly enables the student to develop reading ability when the time spent in class is occupied by the teacher talking. Actual reading is often relegated to homework, the rest of the text prepared, or exercises done, on what has been explicated. The unstructured nature of the lesson, and the lack of clear preparation of the material for the student to learn from, result in the student learning very little from what he has "read". There is hardly any indication by the teacher as to what the student is supposed to get out of the text, or to the student as to what he is supposed to learn.

4. - An alternative approach should suffer from as few of the short-comings discussed above as possible. It is to suggest such an alternative to explication de texte that we now wish to turn our attention.

We may start by examining critically the notion of 'teaching reading comprehension'.

"Comprehension" cannot, in the usual sense, be taught; it can only be exercised and tested. For most ESOL students, the skill of reading with comprehension has already been acquired, and is, furthermore, frequently practised in their own mother tongue. Thus, what we teach is not reading comprehension but the transfer of skills already possessed to material in a foreign or second language. The ability of the student to comprehend a foreign or second language depends upon (a) his having acquired a knowledge of many (if not most) of the rules governing the language system (i.e. its syntax), (b) his having built up a large enough store of vocabulary meanings and relationships (i.e. the semantics of the language), and (c) his having become accustomed to the ways in which the language's syntactic and semantic properties are exploited in the creation of meaning in actual communicative use. What we teach, then, is not the ability to read, nor really the ability to comprehend, but the strategies that will enable the transfer of skills already acquired in the mother tongue to interpret meaningfully the syntactic, semantic and rhetorical patterns of the L_2 *

Developing such a reading strategy has been described as basically a matter of developing in the reader the ability to make predictions as to meaning on the basis of syntactic, semantic and rhetorical clues picked up and accomodated during the reading process (Goodman, 1967). It is thus a synthesizing skill, not, as in explication de texte, an analytic skill.

It is, moreover, a discriminating synthesizing skill. The experiened reader (which presumably includes the students we are teaching) does not read with the kind of precision or close attention to detail which explication de texte and many courses in comprehension demand.

* Our experience indicates that this is an over-generalization. In some cases in S. E. Asia and in Central America, students' ability to read with comprehension in their mother tongue may be seriously limited. The development of that skill in English (their L_2) may, in such cases, actually have a beneficial effect on their use of their mother tongue. This observation would point to the serious need for courses in reading improvement in Spanish in Mexican educational institutions.

5. - We need now to consider what these syntactic, semantic and rhetorical clues might be. They have to do with features of textual cohesion, which until recently * have been neglected in the design of reading comprehension exercises. They may be conveniently considered under three headings: equivalence, connection and thematization.

1). - Equivalence (or co-referentiality)

Two kinds of equivalence or co-referentiality are important in the structure of text: (a) lexical cohesion and (b) syntactic cohesion.

a). - Lexical cohesion is an aspect of the broader problem of vocabulary * *

Poor vocabulary is rightly often regarded as a major factor contributing to reading difficulty (Paulston and Bruder, 1976). Lexical cohesion is achieved by the repetition of a lexical item or of its synonym or hyponym.

EXAMPLE:

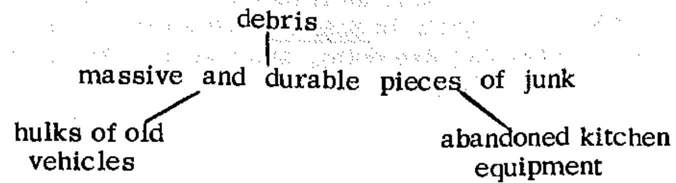
The dumping of massive and durable pieces of junk, like the hulks of old vehicles and abandoned kitchen equipment has become a nuisance. This debris is a menace to the farmer, destroys amenity and costs money... to clear up. This problem cannot be allowed to expand... Dumping of waste in this way is already illegal... Local authorities have established and advertised the existence of tips to which people... can bring bulky objects for disposal.

* In Mexico, they have been incorporated as part of the instruction and practice into a reading comprehension course for undergraduate students in the Facultad de Medicina Veterinaria y Zootecnia, see: R & D Unit Report No. 2, Mackay R. et. al. UNAM 1975.

** For a discussion of how vocabulary is handled in reading comprehension text books, see:
R & D Unit Report No. 5, Alvarez G. UNAM 1976.

The Lexical relationships in this text can be identified as follows:

Hyponymic:



Synonymic:

i) debris : waste

ii) nuisance : menace : problem

iii) massive and durable pieces of junk. : bulky objects for disposal.

It should be emphasized that such co-referential relationships are valid for these lexical items only within this text. For example, debris and waste, though having semantic features in common, are given equivalent values in communicative terms only as far as this text is concerned. Of course, dictionaries do make use of hyponyms and synonyms in defining the meaning of words. But more often than not the contextual use of a word establishes a particular reference in relationship to the other lexical items in the same text, which modifies or extends its meaning beyond that given in the dictionary.

b). - Syntactic cohesion means the system of anaphora (backward reference) and cataphora (forward reference) within text. These are grammatical devices employed to bind the sentences of a text into a unified whole. They include pronominal substitution, he, she, it, etc., demonstrative pronouns etc., the, this, that, one, so, such, etc., and the pro-verb substitution do.

EXAMPLE:

Ants seem to be able to carry food back to their nests with uncanny accuracy, as if they were following invisible roads. A report in Science shows that this is in fact just what they are doing, and that the "roads" are of their own making.

(Mountford 1970)

(Ants) their: they: their own
(following invisible roads): this : doing

2). - Connection

Connection can occur intra-sententially (within sentence units) or intersententially (across sentence boundaries). We shall be more concerned with the latter, as it is this feature of textual cohesion that relates to the communicative value of units of information in the discourse as a whole.

It is, therefore, not a grammatical feature as such, but a marker of rhetorical value, that is how sentences are being used by the writer.

EXAMPLE:

1). - The pollution by chemical waste of our seas is increasing daily.

2). - If pollution reaches a certain concentration, marine life will cease to exist.

3). - Therefore, its essential that legislation be passed banning the dumping of toxic chemicals in rivers, waterways, and in the open sea.

The semantic value of Therefore introducing sentence (3) is to mark the final sentence function (or act) as a logical conclusion or deduction based upon the information presented in sentences (1) or (2). It is this category of connective which provides the reader with clues as to how to interpret the development of the argument as opposed to the interpretation of the facts themselves. We are, thus, moving from comprehension to which the grammatical elements contribute most to interpretability, to comprehension in which the rhetorical value of markers of relationships within the discourse as a whole are of crucial importance.

In other words, we are moving from grammatical cohesion of text to what Allen and Widdowson (1973) call rhetorical coherence of discourse. Examples of inter-sentential connective relationships are as follows:

Rhetorical value or function	
Enumeration:	
Listing	first, second;
Time sequence	in the beginning, next;
Addition:	(AND)
Reinforcing	moreover, furthermore;
Similarity	similarly;
Logical sequence:	(SO)
Summarizing	overall, thus;
Result / consequence	consequently, as a result;
Deductive / inductive	therefore, hence
Explication	(OR) in other words, that is;
Illustration	for example;
Contrast:	(BUT)
Substitution	in other words
Replacement	alternatively;
Antithetic	conversely;
Concessive	however, nevertheless;

It should be noted that coordinators (in capitals above) are frequently used as "primitive" inter-sentential links for many of the above relationships.

3). - Thematization

The third aspect of cohesion is thematization. This concerns the organization of word order in sentences as a consequence of the order of sentences and the deployment of information in the text as a whole. The choice of first words or sentence subject is usually, after the first sentence, governed by what has been said previously. Thus, in continuous text, or discourse, we frequently have a non-normal word order, non-normal from the point of view of sentences studied in isolation. For example, adverbial and prepositional groups are frequently placed first in a sentence; subordinate clauses often precede main clauses; the use of passive voice; these are all matters of thematizing particular elements for emphasis, or for getting the important information, or the information that best relates to what has been said, in the most important position at the beginning of the sentence.

To use Halliday's terms (Halliday 1967-68) the theme of a sentence or clause is chosen from information which is already given, or recoverable or interpretable by reference to the previous discourse. New information, that which receives tonic stress in an information unit, falls usually within the post designated rheme. Thus, what is new in one sentence usually becomes given in the next; what is part of the rheme in one sentence can become thematic in the next. The theme is what I am talking about which relates to what I have already said, and the rheme is what I am saying about what I am talking about and which includes some new information. Here is an example:

EXAMPLE:

1). - Last week I paid a visit to a friend of mine who lives in Mexico City.

2). - My friend is employed by UNAM in the Foreign Language Center, an extension centre of the University.

3). - Her speciality is Applied Linguistics, and she teaches English to students from various faculties.

4). - They require special English language tuition to help them read textbooks in their subjects more efficiently.

The distribution of theme / rheme and given / new is as follows:

	Sentence 1	2	3	4
THEME (given)	last week...	my friend...	her subject...	they
NEW (rheme)	friend of mine...	UNAM...	students from various faculties	

As another simple example notice how the following three sentences form a text.

EXAMPLE:

1). - The sun's rays heat the soil, rocks and water.

2). - The sun's rays do this all day long.

3). - The soil, rocks and water heat the layer of air next to them.

All day long the sun's rays heat the soil, rocks and water. As they are heated, the layer of air next to them is heated too.

The temporal and durational expressions are thematized. The passive is used in preference to the active. Such an ordering of linguistic elements is essentially unpredictable from the individual sentences. The eventual order, too, is dependent on what has been said previously. The learner then, in reading a text, has to cope all the time with word order in sentences and the thematization of linguistic elements that he may never have been taught to expect from the many hours of grammar instruction he has received.

6. - Having made the claim that equivalence, connection and thematization are three of the principal areas of knowledge of the linguistic functioning of elements in text that the ESOL student should possess in order to be able to read efficiently, we must now suggest pedagogic procedures or techniques by means of which this knowledge may be taught to the learner and practised by him.

It is essential at this point to distinguish between exercising the student's comprehension and testing it. All too often advanced reading materials provide little practice in exercising comprehension skills.

Instead they merely test whether or not comprehension has taken place. Materials which purport to exercise reading comprehension should be learner-oriented, that is they should be based upon those aspects of the language system and of rhetoric which the learner requires to interpret written discourse effectively.

Most comprehension questions, including true/false statements, yes/no questions and wh questions are designed to elicit from the learner information contained in the text. Comprehension exercises, on the other hand, should be the means of instructing the student in how the text, by means of equivalence, connection and thematization, functions as a linguistic entity.

In other words they should teach the student how to understand the text.

The basic difference between comprehension questions and comprehension exercises is, therefore, that the questions assume in the learner an operational knowledge of how language is used to communicate and so test whether understanding has taken place or not in the text in question.

Exercises, on the other hand, focus the learner's attention upon the linguistic features which make the text in question and an act of communication, and so exercise his ability to cope with such features wherever they might be found and in whatever form. This is not to deny the usefulness of comprehension questions. Carefully constructed, they can serve to elicit an understanding of those features of text we have been discussing. But we do need to make a distinction between testing and teaching, and to teach and exercise before we test and assess.

7. - What form then, can these comprehension exercises take? Although explication de texte is a way of exposing the operational knowledge required to understand a given text, it is entirely unselective. Virtually everything is explained by the teacher in a linear fashion. Neither does it exercise the learner's skill; it displays, rather, the teacher's superior knowledge.

A more disciplined and, we believe, a more pedagogically valid approach, is to work over particular categories of operational knowledge. That is, to examine separately the occurrences of lexical cohesion, syntactic cohesion, connection and thematization so that their contribution to the text as a whole is kept in the foreground. In addition, it must be remembered that in a lesson on reading comprehension, reading must be allowed to happen i.e. that a

considerable amount of time should be spent by the students reading. The reading materials should be constructed in such a way that reading is designed to happen, but in a controlled manner, in which the student is forced back into the text by the exercises themselves.

The exercises which we describe take into account and allow for the fact that in Mexico most teachers of reading have little time to produce their own courses, and even if they could and did, they would frequently be restricted by the scarcity of paper or the lack of duplicating facilities. The following exercises can all be performed orally in class. They do, however, require prior preparation by the teacher.

8. - Exercising comprehension of equivalence.

1). - Lexical Cohesion.

Student's attention to lexically equivalent expressions in text can be exercised by means of rephrasing exercises in which the student is required to substitute another expression from the text for one given in a sentence drawn from the text, or a reworded version of one. The aim is to draw student's attention to such overt markers of equivalence as i.e., that is to say, or... in other words etc. as well as implicit synonymic or hyponymic expressions. A second technique is to devise exercises using the following formats:

i) Instead of saying X the writer says Y

ii) In addition to saying x the writer uses the expression y

iii) As an instance of x the writer talks about y where both x and y can be found in the text.

Thirdly; students may be required to identify sets of lexical items under some superordinate term e.g. debris in the example discussed above. This kind of treatment of vocabulary items which are judged to be difficult or new avoids the danger of the student selecting the wrong word from the dictionary where there are alternatives. It concentrates on getting him to read complete sentences and study expressions in context. Most important, it leads him to see how lexical patterns and relationships can be created in text and how frequently difficult or unknown expressions may in fact be explained within the text.

8. 1. - Syntactic Cohesion

Until recently anaphoric and cataphoric devices have not been given the attention they deserve in reading comprehension materials. The reason for this is, possibly, that their meaning appears so obvious.

In many cases, to the native speaker, the referents of such items are readily apparent. To the ESOL student, however, they may not be so clear. Failure to select the correct referent may lead to serious misinterpretations of what the writer has said. Moreover, such items are only easily understood when the referent is a close antecedent, an obvious noun or noun phrase. But sometimes anaphoric items refer to clauses, sentences or larger stretches of text. They may be marked by summary words: <u>this type</u>, <u>that fact</u>, <u>these cases</u>, <u>that process</u>, <u>those factors</u>, etc.

To exercise an understanding of such devices we may employ a multiple choice format:

In line <u>x</u>, <u>y</u> refers to (i) a, (ii) b, (iii) c, where a, b and c are <u>grammatically</u> (but not <u>semantically</u>) possible referents. Alternatively, the student may be asked to identify the referent for himself:

What does <u>y</u> refer to in line <u>x</u> ?

In addition to demonstratives and pronominals the definite article and implied comparatives can be exercised in this way.

8. 2. - <u>Exercising comprehension of connections</u>

The problem of exercising connection is that, for the most part, the possible relationships between sentences in text have to be taught first. This will involve students becoming familiar with a metalanguage whose terms are <u>communicational</u> rather than grammatical. We have already discussed the kinds of relationship we can observe within and between sentences and units of discourse. A possible approach to the problem, where an extended course allows it, is to devise a graded series of exercises as follows:

a). - These first exercises would involve <u>inserting</u> or <u>substituting</u> expressions in text. We may start off with one kind of relationship, e. g. consequence, and then introduce <u>contrast</u> then <u>addition</u>, <u>illustration</u>, <u>explication</u> and so on, gradually building up an understanding of different kinds of relationships. This will involve rewriting exercises in order to make relationships clear, or clearer.

e. g. (1) Some transport companies have introduced ways of controlling the maximum speed of their vehicles on the road.
(2) ________ governors may be fitted to the engines.
(3) ________ the trucks travel at or below a given speed.
(4) ________ legal speed limits are adhered to.

Instruction:
Insert the following connectives in the sentences indicated:

For instance............ 2
As a consequence 3
In this way.............. 4

b). - When a sufficient number of relationships have been explored, and the various surface forms available to express them noted, students may be asked to select from a list of expressions x, y or z the most appropriate to connect sentences or parts of a text. In other words, the relationship has to be perceived, and a choice made as to how it can be made explicit.

e. g. All animals feed on other animals or plants.
________________ plants make their own food by means of photosynthesis.
Insert the most appropriate connector in the space above:
i) in addition
ii) on the contrary
iii) therefore
iv) for example

c). - A more difficult exercise is to re-order a jumbled set of sentences according to explicit markers of logical sequence. This exercise also calls upon the student perceiving equivalences, lexical or syntactic. A variation of this exercise is to present a paragraph structure indicated by connections:

e. g.
A. - General statement (truth, generalization)
B. - For example
C. - As a result
D. - However
E. - Nevertheless.

And then from a jumbled series of sentences, the student is asked to "compose" the paragraph: This is a very difficult exercise to construct and the teacher should 'work out' all exercises he writes, by himself, to make sure they are operational:

i) Many complaints are received about the noise heavy vehicles make in towns and cities.
ii) The public's duty is to continue to remark upon occurrences of pollution in the hope they may be remedied in time.

iii) The public objects to pollution which reduces the quality of life.
iv) Not all complaints are given the attention they deserve.
v) Restrictive legislation may be introduced.

8. 3. - Exercising comprehension of thematization

This aspect of text structure involves exercising the student's ability to predict what comes next on the basis of given and new information in the text. Thus, a modified close procedure is an appropriate technique.Thematic elements may be omitted and the student has to deduce what they should be on the basis of what has previously been said. What the writer chooses as thematic from one sentence to the next depends on the nature of the information being imparted and the kind of argument being expounded.

Frequently, the thematic structure is closely inter-related with lexical equivalents and anaphoric devices. In addition, blank filling cloze procedure can be used as a summary on comprehension, i. e. as a testing device.

e. g. Interactions between Species

The relationships between living things in an organism range from conditions of complete cooperation and dependency to those of total antagonism and competition. Between these... is a more or less neutral condition. In this... the effect of one organism on another may be indirect. These... effects may not be readily apparent. Nevertheless, each... is part of the environment of all other living things and has some effect on it.

Instructions to student:
Select the most appropriate words for the spaces in the above paragraph, so that the sentences and the entire paragraph make complete sense.

9. - What we have tried to suggest is a principled pedagogic alternative to the tedious explication of material chosen for reading comprehension. Our alternative requires a good deal of preparation of exercises which are designed to exercise the skill of reading comprehension. We have concentrated on those aspects of cohesion and coherence that may be observed to operate in any text. We have not considered the various types of comprehension questions that traditionally have sought to test comprehension. A more complete set of proposals would certainly include the kinds of questions we might set and their pedagogic function.

It would also include how the answers to such questions can be justified linguistically from evidence in the text. * However, we feel that if, as a first step, comprehension materials take into account the areas of linguistic knowledge we have identified and discussed, and the procedure we have suggested, the lesson on reading comprehension will become more relevant to the needs of the intermediate/advanced students who need to read for information. The onus is thrown back on the teacher to design efficient materials to accompany texts rather than simply explain them in an _ad hoc_ fashion. The onus is also thrown back on the learner to develop from such materials a sound working strategy of comprehension that is applicable to any text he might wish or be required to read, rather than merely to master specific aspects of set texts.

* For such an approach, see the excellent introduction to _Read and Think_ by John Munby, published by Longman group limited, London, 1968.

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DISCOURSE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

Lyn McLean and Fernando Castaños
Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras,
Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana,
Xochimilco.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

For some years language teachers have worried about their students' not being able to communicate in the target language outside the classroom in spite of their being reasonably good students inside. Although certain attempts have been made to incorporate communicative practice, such as "conversation", in language courses, success has seldom been achieved. Parallel to these attempts, research (both theoretical and experimental) relevant to the question has been carried out in applied linguistics in general, and in teaching methodology in particular.

In 1970 and 1971, Christina Bratt Paulston introduced the categorization of mechanical, meaningful, and communicative exercises. Mechanical exercises are those that, if successful, would lead the student to the acquisition only of a syntactical skill in the target language. An example is the conversion of certain isolated sentences into the interrogative or negative forms. Meaningful drills are those in which considerations of the correctness of sentences include their truth value in relation to a certain "situation". An example of these is the production from a substitution table of sentences that correspond accurately to a drawing. Communicative exercises are those which require that a student provide new information to the rest of the class or group he is practicing with. These are, therefore, unpredictable and include such things as "What's your brother's name?" and "What did you do over the week-end?"

Marylin Smith in a personal communication, has suggested that students have communicative capacities when they are able to express their intimate feelings and that practice in this direction is required in the classroom. One of the exercises she has proposed is this: a blindfolded student is presented with a jar containing a substance which has a distinctive odour, garlic, for example. The student has to identify the substance. Then, he has to say whether he likes the smell or not. He is asked what event or circumstance the smell reminds him of. Finally, he has to say whether it is because of this association that he likes or dislikes the presence of the substance, and if not, why. Further, Wilga Rivers has said that students should be able to communicate what they want to, including what arises in their imagination. She considers

things like crocodiles with vests and watches, this particularly in reference to Ionesco's French course. (Rivers, 1972)

At a theoretical level, the distinction between communicative competence and linguistic, that is, Chomsky's competence, has been made. According to Chomsky, competence is the knowledge that enables an ideal speaker/hearer to judge the grammaticality of sentences in a given language. Competence is supposed to account for the creativity of languages, i.e. the ability to understand and generate syntactically correct sentences. Chomsky, then, distinguishes between performance, the actual production of sentences, and competence, the underlying knowledge that generates them. Chomsky has been criticized for making this distinction. As a discussion of this point would divert us from our purpose, we will not consider it, and instead will look at some attacks his very definition of competence has undergone.

George Lakoff (1971) has argued that judgement of the well-formedness of grammaticality of a sentence cannot be made in a pure, absolute way, but only in a relative one with respect to certain presuppositions about the nature of the world. In the sentence "My cat, who enjoys playing tricks on me, ate the meat", for example, the choice of who might be judged ungrammatical by a number of persons and grammatical by others, depending on whether they believe cats have "human" attributes or not. According to Lakoff, linguistic knowledge is that of the general principles by which a speaker pairs a sentence with those presuppositions required for it to be well-formed. That is, if the choice of who is to be considered grammatical and the resulting sentence well-formed, it must be paired with the presupposition that cats are human. The presuppositions themselves would then be beyond the limits of linguistics, but judgements of grammaticality would have to consider this knowledge.

Dell Hymes (1971) has pointed out that knowledge of language is not equal to knowledge of grammar and that, besides this, knowledge of rules of use is needed. There would be no point in going on generating random but "grammatical" sentences, and a person who knew how to produce them but who did not know when and how to use them would probably be considered a lunatic. Hymes has, thus, proposed the concept, communicative competence, which would include Chomsky's linguistic competence and a knowledge of the appropriateness and feasibility of utterances. Appropriateness refers to the relationships of a language item to the contextual features of a given situation. Since any judgement of language is made in some defining context, it may always involve a factor of appropriateness. Feasibility concerns psycholinguistic factors, such as memory limitation and perceptual devices.

Expanding the concept, John Munby (personal communication, 1975) considers that besides psycholinguistic knowledge (feasibility) and sociolinguistic knowledge (appropriacy), communicative competence includes socio-philosophical and socio-semantic knowledge, which can be seen by refering back to the above exposition of Lakoff's arguments. Consider also that a physicist talking about time may be considering the relativistic view of it, that is, roughly, that it can stretch or contract, depending on velocity. On the other hand, a layman will understand time in terms of constant units. Adding a "logico-linguistic" area would contribute to a better picture of communicative competence, given that communication often involves argumentation.

Others have pointed out (e. g. Widdowson, 1973) that "a knowledge of how the language functions in communication does not automatically follow from a knowledge of sentences. " A knowledge of how sentences are used when connected is necessary. On these lines, Widdowson has made a useful distinction between what he calls text and discourse. Text is, roughly, sentences in combination, rather than a mere collection of them, and "Textual Competence" let us say, would include the knowledge of such cohesive devices a anaphora, cataphora and ellipsis. Discourse, on the other hand, focuses on the use of sentences to perform communicative acts. Now a piece of language can be coherent as discourse without being cohesive as text. As Labov says, "sequencing rules do not operate between utterances but between the actions performed by these utterances". (Labov, 1970)

For example, consider the following exchanges between teacher and student:

First:

T: Take out a piece of paper.

S: Yes, sir.

Now, contrast the first exchange with the following:

T: Take out a piece of paper.

S: My briefcase is locked.

In the first example the student answers in an elliptical form, that is, he ellipts "I will take out a piece of paper". Nevertheless, these sentences are cohesive as text and, due to this, coherent as discourse. In the second example, there is no textual cohesion, but the discourse is coherent. This coherence has been explained by Labov, who has pointed out that the following have to obtain for an utterance to be considered as an order:

First, A, the commander, has to believe that these <u>preconditions</u> exist:

1. It is desirable that (X) be done.

2. A is in a position to <u>demand</u> from B that X be done.

3. B has the <u>obligation</u> to do X

4. B is <u>able</u> to do X.

Second, B has to believe that A believes in the above set of preconditions. Now, by explicity pointing to one of these preconditions the other three would implicity obtain. For example, by using the command form, the teacher focuses on the second precondition: A is in a position to demand from B that X be done. The student answers by focusing on the fourth precondition, that is: B is able to do X. Notice that this act, i.e. the act of ordering, could be performed in different ways. The teacher could make a statement: "I want you to take out a piece of paper" or ask the question: "Could you take out a piece of paper?".

Although the teacher's order can be realized by different utterances, the second exchange will always be characterized by the following conditions:

A believes in the above listed set of preconditions.

B believes that A believes in this set, but informs A that his belief precondition 4) is wrong, i.e. the student is not able to take out a piece of paper because his briefcase is locked.

It is also important to notice that one form can be used to realize different communicative functions.

T: Could you put out your cigarrette?

S: Yes, I could.

In this case the student pretends not to view the act as a command, but as a request for information concerning his ability. That is, he does not accept that precondition # 4 obtains as a precondition, but rather has to be asserted. By the same token, he has discarded the first three preconditions also. In this case the following general pattern holds:

A believes in the above listed set of preconditions.

B does not believe or pretends not to believe that A believes in these preconditions, therefore causing the discourse to take a strange and unexpected direction.

From the discussion above, two aspects of discourse are distinguished. (See e.g. C. Criper and H. B. Widdowson, 1975) One is concerned with the conditions whereby a certain linguistic form (present tense, interrogative) performs a certain communicative function (ordering or requesting). The other is concerned with how particular communicative acts are linked to develop larger units of communication. These two aspects are, of course, interconnected. Thus, the need to consider language units larger than the sentence is established, and communicative competence is associated with the ability to perform communicative acts or functions with language. This allows for a more precise treatment of the student's development of communicative competence in terms of language.

Some of these insights have influenced the area of methodology. For example, Christina Bratt Paulston has pointed out that fluency in the language doesn't guarantee efficient communication, has shown the need to incorporate exercises that lead to the acquisition of communicative competence, and has presented some of these exercises. She suggests a model for language teaching in which she distinguishes between communicative competence and communicative performance. She uses communicative performance to designate communication which causes distinctive social significance in the target language.

This is similar to the distinction made by Phillips and Shettlesworth (1975) between Learning Situation Discourse (LSD) and Target Discourse (TD). They have shown that the difference corresponds to be one existing between target materials, such as workshop manuals and books, and teaching materials. According to Phillips and Shettlesworth, language courses implicity assume a transfer from LSD to TD, but this transfer is "impeded by the existence of the materials themselves". First, these tend to structure the lesson in such a way that the teacher sees them as the only method of providing the criteria for appropiate language. For example, a student's response may be followed by "yes, but that's not the answer I was looking for, anyone else?" or something similar. Secondly, appropriacy of language is filtered through at least one level of artifice, the classroom, or even two levels, including the story or the situation presented in the material.

The difference between LSD and TD is not solely due to the materials, but often derives from the roles of the teacher and the students. For example, if someone tells a friend, "There's a cigarrete on the floor", it may be interpreted as providing information or as a request to pick up the cigarrette, depending on the situation. On the other hand, as the teacher is always or nearly always in a position of authority and can demand that students do something (precondition 2, ordering), this utterance is very likely to be interpreted as an order. It is clear that the range of communicative functions the student will be exposed to and

will be able to practice is narrower than in situations outside the classroom.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have recorded a good example of this in Towards an Analysis of Discourse. They report a situation in which the teacher asks a student the following:

T: What kind of a person do you think he is?

Do you - what are you laughing at?

P: Nothing.

The pupil interpreted the teacher's interrogation as a directive to stop laughing, but that was not the teacher's intention. The teacher manages to clarify the situation by saying: " T: You're laughing at nothing, nothing at all." The student this time realizes that the utterance is a request for information and provides that information. Of course, we can't expect that this will always be the case.

Richard Allwright discusses the role of the teacher in the language classroom from another perspective. He says that, very probably, the lack of transfer from LSD to TD - in Phillips & Shettlesworth's terminology - partly results from the dependence on the teacher, which develops in the students. This is due to the teacher's constant solving of the students' problems.

The interference in the learning process which occurs in classroom second language learning has been discussed from other perspectives. For example, Castaños-Long (1976) have reviewed differences between L_1 & L_2 learners and learning processes. They have suggested that as L_1 learning is uniformly successful and L_2 generally is not, we could benefit from making second language learning more like the first by doing less formal structuring.

Allwright, after showing that treatment of learner error is one of the variables which appears to be crucial, has shown that this, and feedback in general, is usually done in an inconsistent, nearly chaotic way: " The learners cannot be sure that any repetition of what they have said necessarily indicates error, nor that the absence of repetition indicates correctness". (Allwright, 1975, b)

Burt and Dulay also show problems existing in error correction. (M. Burt and H. Dulay 1975) They have focused on the types of errors which cause the reader or listener to misunderstand the message intended by the EFL learner. They take this approach because in real communication situations, sometimes despite errors in learner's speech, the native listener can understand the message easily, while sometimes even

a single error can cause misunderstanding or no comprehension of an utterance at all. For example, the three errors in "I trying for drive more slow" do not affect a listener's comprehension. On the other hand, "Does your mother worry you when you drink?" (asked at a party) may be received as a probing psychological question or merely as a considerate inquiry.

Given the distinction between errors which can cause misunderstanding and those which do not, Burt and Dulay have defined two types of errors. Global errors are those which affect overall sentence organization, thereby significantly hindering communication. Local errors which affect single elements in a sentence do not hinder communication significantly. Some local errors are errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers. The most systematic global errors include (1) Wrong word order, (2) Missing, wrong or misplaced sentence connectors, eg. "He will be rich until he marry" instead of "He will be rich when he marries", (3) Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactical rules, e. g. "The students'proposal looked into the principal, instead of " The students' proposal was looked into by the principal", and finally, (4) Overgeneralizing pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions e. g. "We amused that movie very much" instead of " That movie amused us very much". The authors suggest that given the distinction between global and local errors and their relation to effective communication, selective error correction of global errors promises to be more effective than total correction.

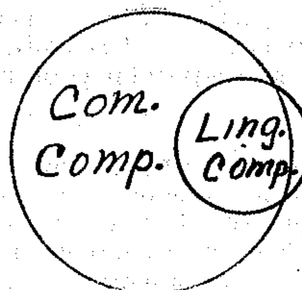
To promote the acquisition of target discourse communicative competence several suggestions have been made. Christina Bratt Paulston has proposed that one should "incorporate a systematic contrast of situation constraints on grammatical patterns." To do this she would present, for example, two dialogues, one between Nancy and Bill, two peers, and another between Bill and Miss Cassidy, a good friend of his parents. She has also proposed communicative interaction activities such as community oriented tasks, problem-solving activities, and role playing (Paulston, 1976).

H. G. Widdowson has suggested ways of adapting Current English Language Teaching so as to incorporate the systematic teaching of communicative value; that is, he proposes that in the process of limitation, grading, and presentation, we should think not only in terms of linguistic structures and situational settings, but also in terms of communicative acts. For example, to produce a course for science students, instead of selecting the language to be taught by reference to the frequency of linguistic forms like the universal present tense and the passive in scientific discourse, we might make a selection of those communicative acts which the scientist must,of necessity, most commonly perform: definition, classification, generalization, deduction, etc. When grading

we might consider ordering such acts according to the manner in which they normally combine to form larger communication units.

Phillips and Shettlesworth have suggested giving the teacher, on the one hand, a tool kit or file consisting of examples of the target situation materials and, on the other hand, an inventory of linguistic systems. The materials would be incomplete and it would be up to the teacher to integrate or "marry" the two. Although Phillips and Shettlesworth don't specify how this marriage is to be achieved, they do place the responsibility for exploiting the discourse provoked by the target materials on the teacher, rather than on the pedagogic materials. They state "The teacher is, we hope, more flexible than even the best of materials, and consequently the discourse could develop in a reasonably natural fashion: there should be more opportunity for student initiation and realistic information-seeking questions." Such questions would occur when the teacher doesn't know all the answers, and when someone besides the teacher knows the answer. In addition, they suggest that the teacher would step in to plug the gaps in the student's knowledge which are revealed in their desire to communicate about the target material.

Another advantage of providing students with target situation materials is that they will be exposed to real language as it occurs in discourse, not as isolated sentences, words or phrases. Allwright has argued for communicative activities rather than linguistic exercises having a central role in the teaching-learning process. He has proposed the following model:



If the model Is right, and we think it is (see Hymes, 1971), then "teaching for linguistic competence will leave large areas of communicative competence untouched, whereas teaching for communicative competence will necessarily account for all but a small part of linguistic competence."

METHODOLOGY: THE ESSEX REMEDIAL EFL COURSE

A course was given at the University of Essex in Britain in 1974 based on these theories. Other considerations affected the design of the course. Because it was a remedial course, mere review of what students had already studied, and had proved ineffective to them, would have bored them. In addition, as the students were more or less proficient in different areas,there were no rational criteria for selection of discrete language items to be taught. Finally, these students needed orientation to their new environment.

Basically, the course provided reasons for communicating. It included activities such as (1) problem-solving activities relating to their community life based on discussions of information documents, (2) a project approach, consisting of locating information and sources of information about their courses, (3) focus on key passages of important documents by means of cloze exercises in which the deletion of words was random, (4) rephrasing important documents in a way that would render it comprehensible to the others, (5) involvement in what can be called communication games. With regard to (3) & (4), the documents included reports on the political life of the University and the regulations that had to be observed. No correct answers were provided by the teacher, but the students had to agree on them, which provided for meaningful discussions about the content and the language. In general, points (1) through (4) focused on problems that all students, and not only foreigners, encounter during their stay at Essex. It is important to notice that although special attention is paid to language in the cloze and rephrasing activities, they have the value of focusing on the problems in the content. "Orientation was the'product', attention to language was an essential part of the process" (Allwright, 1975a).

The communication games were designed to develop the student's communication skills. One of these consisted of two identical sets of objects which were given to two students separated by a screen,so that they couldn't see each other's set. A third student had to place the objects to form a pattern. Then the first had to give instructions to the second student,so that he duplicated the pattern. In another game, the class was divided into various groups of four students each. Each group was given a child's plastic construction kit and visual instructions to build a vehicle with it. To interpret the instructions and perform their task, the group needed effective communication. At a second stage, they had to write the instructions so that another group could replicate their model. This

second group had the right to reject the written instructions if they were uninterpretable. This allowed for discussion on and careful selection of the written language. In these games, other elements were included, such as time restrictions and a competitive element. The former was found to be useful,while the latter seemed not to influence the process very much, as the task itself was already very interesting.

Although the conditions in the Essex experiment do not always hold, it has been argued that this type of communicative activity, especially the communication games, should be at least a component of a language program (see Long & Castaños, 1976). Some of these games have been developed at the Xochimilco campus of the Metropolitan University (see Gutiérrez & Long, forthcoming). One of these games was virtually a replica of the first one described by Allwright, except that the objects were substituted by geometric figures, or cuisinaire rods which provided for a linkage with our materials. Another game was designed so that the students could practice description and identification. This game consisted of sets of four almost identical drawings. The four drawings were placed in front of the pair. The first student had to describe one of the drawings and the second student had to identify which of the four drawings had been described. It was interesting to note the different strategies used by the students. Some, for example, tried to focus on what they considered the most distinctive element of the drawing they had chosen. Others attempted to describe the pictures in terms of the relative location of objects. Still others had recourse to the use of analogy.

It is apparent that the proposed handling of the materials and the change in the teacher's and students' roles requires a different classroom organization than the most common one,the lockstep. Group work of various types is in fact supposed to provide a setting in which inhibitions disappear, what Barnes calls "exploratory talk" may occur, and where there are more roles available to students. This will result in language use of kinds not open to students in lockstep work, even if good materials are being used (see Long, 1975; Long, et al, 1976).

EVALUATION: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Although there is a need to further develop methodology which focuses on communicative competence, there is also a need for research to show the co-relation between classroom activities and their achievement. At this point in time we can't consider any prescription to be definite because we lack knowledge of the process.

Different approaches to this research question have been taken. Error analysis, for example aims at revealing the nature of the knowledge a learner possesses at a given time. It seems possible to associate, at least to a certain degree, the types or errors a person makes and the learning strategies he is using. Another approach is that of describing actual classroom processes. As, from the discussion above, it seems clear that communication has to be practiced in order to achieve communicative competence, it seems logical to devote attention to what actually happens in classroom interaction in terms of communication. Most research on this aspect is, so far, at a descriptive level, and no attempt to provide prescriptions based on it has yet been made.

A coding system to describe interaction which concentrates on the affective domain was developed by Ned Flanders and modified by Gertrude Moskowitz. In this system, which focuses on teacher behaviour, a teacher's style can be classified as direct or indirect, but there is no attempt to describe this style in terms of classroom discourse. Rather, teacher behaviour is coded in very general terms as accepting ideas, criticizing, lecturing, etc.

Another classroom interaction analysis coding system, called FOCUS, developed by John Fanselow (1976) deals with communicative functions such as 'differentiate ' or ' explain ' but does so only to describe the continuity of discourse. In addition, some of the categories are too big. In foreign language learning we would also be interested in knowing whether the students' knowledge of the language allows them to cope with a wider and finer range of communicative functions and even the ability to organize them coherently in logical terms.

In a research project carried out at Xochimilco (Long, Adams, McLean & Castaños, 1976) it was discovered that these systems would not provide the information that was being sought, so a new coding system was developed. It contains three major areas: pedagogical moves, social skills and rhetorical acts. The social skills and pedagogical moves deal with continuity in the discussion, that is, with the devices used by students to facilitate discourse or to prevent a rupture in it due to lack of understanding of a term or lack of support, for example. The third area, rhetorical acts, allows us to observe which functions the student has been able to perform with the language.

Some examples of categories in the area of pedagogical moves are 'student reformulates his or her previous assertion.', 'student focuses discussion' and 'student asks for information about the target language.' The second, social skills includes 'student encourages other', and 'student explicitly expresses agreement.' The final area, rhetorical acts, includes 'student predicts', 'student hypothesizes', 'student defines.'

To be of scientific value, category systems must have certain characteristics. Sinclair (1975) has stated that the minimum set of these is (1) The descriptive apparatus should be finite, (2) the categories in the system should be precisely relatable to the data, i.e. operationally defined, (3) the system should be comprehensive, (4) there must be at least one impossible combination of symbols, i.e. co-occurrence restrictions should be revealed.

Basically, if a system meets the four conditions, it will be both consistent and useful. Usefulness is reflected in conditions (3) and (4). We want to be able to describe and differentiate as much data as possible and discover rules about the occurrence of the different elements. Consistency can be best seen in conditions (2) and (3). We want to be able to identify data without ambiguity, and having elements belonging to no category at all is certainly ambiguous. Nevertheless, consistency means more than this. It also means internal organization and real grouping, for want of better terms. Generally, it is hoped that internal organization takes a hierarchical form. Real grouping is supposed to reveal common and relevant, that is, distinctive, different characteristics. It would be no good to give each element a different name, as in the case of words, for example, their Spanish translation. We, as Sinclair says, "may be merely creating the illusion of classification." Condition (1) provides these extra elements of consistency; that is, if conditions (2) and (3) obtains, then the existence of conditions (1) will guarantee organization, at least of the simplest form, namely, that in which all the categories have the same hierarchy. Grouping will also be guaranteed; by placing a large number of elements in a smaller number of categories, more than one element will fall in the same category, even if it is the so-called ' X ' category, i.e. that of all the elements that do not belong in any of the others. However, we believe that internal organization and real grouping can be obtained with certain infinite systems, and that, therefore condition (1) need not be expressed in such a restrictive form.

Consider the following system:

A_1 = x* is the category of all the words that refer to one object.

A_2 = 2x is the category of all the words that can refer to two objects.

And so on:

An = nx is the category of all the words that can refer to n objects.

The general definition for the categories An certainly provides strong

internal organization, and as the words that refer to one object are more than one, grouping can also be done. Now suppose we had distributional criteria to discover when one word refers contextually to another one. We could then say *The equal sign is being used rather freely for the sake of brevity and simplicity.

" Theorem. If:

1) am C Am (am belongs in Am)

an C An (an belongs in An)

2) am refers to an

3) m > n (m is greater than n),

then n stands in a relation of hyponymy to m."

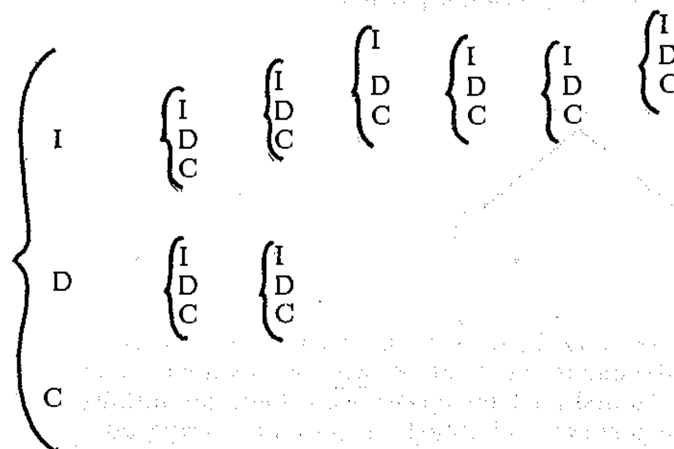
The proof would be this:

"an refers to an item, am refers to an and, therefore, to the same item. As m is greater than n, then am can refer to more items than an. Therefore, n stands in a relation of hyponymy to m."

The only effect of restriction 1) would be to make it impossible to state this generalization. We could say iron is hyponymous to metal and water is hyponymous to liquid; furthermore, metal and liquid are hyponymous to substance. We would not be able, however, to express the common relationship between these words in such an abstract and precise way, but only in an empirical one, through lists.

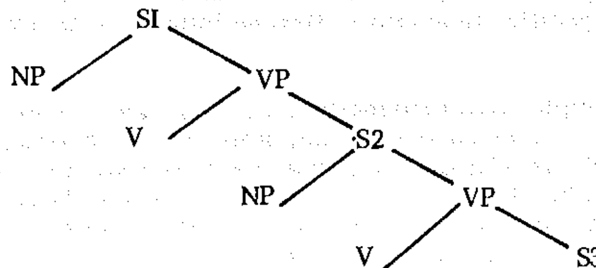
The above is only an illustrative example. Distributional criteria may not produce clues to contextual reference of lexical items, and, then, our theorem would not be a theorem at all; we would not derive the property from other more fundamental ones. We would only state intuitive knowledge in a more complex, but less useful way. There are, however, other examples of infinite systems which may, in the future, prove to be relevant. We think, for example, that scientific language could be described in terms of cycles of introduction, discussion and conclusion, to put it simply and probably superficially. A pattern could be like this:

(I = introduction, D = discussion, C = conclusion)

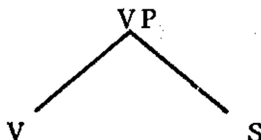


Relationships between such cycles may be specific to each case. That is, we may only say: "the third cycle evolved from the introduction in the second cycle and its introduction in the second cycle and its introduction included an observation, its discussion, an induction, and its conclusion, a generalization - in this example." We need, then, to refer to the third cycle as a single one and rely on common sense to understand this. That would be neither very useful nor interesting, of course. If, however, common features appear in all the third cycles, then we will want to consider the third cycle as a category, and a logic to deal with infinite systems will be required.

It is interesting to note that such a logic has been used implicity in certain linguistic models. In Chomsky's 1965 model, for example, this possibility is considered:



In Chomsky's 1957 model, it was not possible to have



and many sentences could not be dealt with. It can be seen that generalizations fot the use of the relative who, for example, can be formalized using Chomsky's 1965 model and a logic for infinite category systems. In general, relationships between juxtaposed sentences have been dealt with. It is possible in such cases to present rules through concrete examples and rely on intuitive capacities of induction to obtain the corresponding generalizations. By saying, for example, how the relative who is to be used in sentence two when sentence one satisfies certain conditions, it can be assumed that similar restrictions will be understood to hold for sentences six and five. Therefore, it is not necessary to use the logic explicitly However, if we want to study the relationships between sentence n and sentence n-2 or sentences m and sentence m+3, at least this notation is useful.

We do not know whether infinite systems will provide relevant information for the study of discourse. However, due to the very possibility of this being so - and intuition strongly suggests it is - these systems should not be precluded a priori. It is not meant that there will be an infinite number of categories, once a classification of a piece of language has been made, only that if the number cannot be specified in advance, then an infinite system will be required.

An example from arithmetic will, it is hoped, help to illustrate the problem. If we have a system of numbers consisting only of the digits 1 to 9, we will have to define 9 + 2 as equal to 1, or 3, or whatever within 1 to 9. These systems are useful in some cases. In many other cases, however, we will want to define 9 + 2 as equal to 11, and 11 + 4 as equal to 15, and so on . . .

A final point in favour of infinite systems of the sort considered: let us say that usefulness also means communicability. Now, what is more communicable, the condensed form 'if cycle n includes an observation, then cycle n + 2 includes a generalization', with unspecified n, or a list of all the cases where this occurs?

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TEACHING COMPOSITION IN MEXICO

Part II: Some Guidelines and Practical Suggestions

Elizabeth Anne Elmer,
Language Institute,
University of the Americas.

Part I of this article explored the cultural differences between English and Spanish writing and pointed out the difficulties Spanish-speakers have in expressing their ideas in ways acceptable to native English speakers. It also reviewed major teaching techniques and found each to be partially inadequate for the English-as-a-Foreign-Language student.

Before recommending general guidelines and specific suggestions for an EFL composition program, it would be wise to consider the needs of EFL students here in Mexico, as well as the restrictions of our particular teaching situations. Why would Mexicans need to write in English? The ability to speak seems to be a much more realistic goal: tourism, business, friendships, all seem to demand spoken English. Yet, for a growing number of students, being able to write in English is a very relevant goal, too. More and more of our students want to study and/or work in the United States or England. In competing with native-English speakers, these Mexicans should not be at unnecessary disadvantages because they don't know how to write adequately in English. Those staying in Mexico, though, may need to write papers in English, as well, such as at the University of the Americas where some classes are offered only in English. Also, businessmen here are often required to write their business letters in English. With the trend towards English-for-Special-Purposes, composition program developers should realize the limited purposes students of certain professions have for learning to write English. It is also wise to remember that some students may have no need to write in English, and, therefore, it would seem a waste of time to include this skill in those EFL programs. A student-needs inventory clarifies and provides many of these answers. The teachers and curriculum planners can then limit their objectives.

Teaching in Mexico presents certain other restrictions. Most important is the limited amount of time allowed for contact with English. Often EFL classes meet only three to five hours per week. Those hours must obviously be well-spent. Any composition program must be very organized and contain specific goals. Within this issue of economy of time is the realization that program goals be realistic and that the level of competence in written English not be too high. A limited range of

ability should be expected. A certain static set of skills should be carefully taught and practiced.

General Guidelines

Following are a set of beliefs which should affect the "spirit" and execution of composition programs to be developed. The first four guidelines should be reflected in how composition content is stimulated and in how assignments are given. The fourth and fifth will, hopefully, guide the evaluation of student work. Lastly, the sixth guideline is the essential belief that we must simplify the complexity of skills and truly teach writing.

1. Writing is a communicative skill. The goal of composition instruction is to teach the logical relationship of ideas. Grammar and mechanics are merely means to this end. Students should be encouraged to express their ideas in this foreign language, and teachers should encourage honest expression, rather than concentrate on the mechanical aspects of writing.

NOTE: This guideline has a limitation, however. Speaking is a much more common form of communication than writing. Besides occasional personal writing and the "institutional writing" done as part of the professional activities of lawyers, journalists, educators, businessmen, and politicians, very few people need to write at all. Certainly, writing in the language class has a sense of unreality. Even the approach that students can express their personal perceptions, feelings and thoughts in writing is limited to first language composition classes. As pointed out, "In the case of second language learners, it is the learners' native language (Spanish) which will naturally fulfill such a function: to use the second language (English) would create a kind of artificiality..." (Davies, 1974, p. 180).

An alternative is to relate the EFL classroom writing to other subjects in the school curriculum. EFL students can write about history, science, geography or any other subject that they are studying. The businessman, engineer, and others can also relate composition in English to their daily concerns. Somehow, writing must become a meaningful activity which is related to the learner's world for it to be truly a form of communication.

2. Quality writing is usually experience-grounded. Organizing experiences and giving them meaning is a responsibility of the learner. The teacher's goal is to involve the students meaningfully in activities where they may gain new experiences.

3. A variety of stimuli should be employed in learning activities realizing the integration of all language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Concentrating on the written word in a visual world may ap-

pear old-fashioned to the students. Therefore, the inclusion of numerous forms of audio-visual stimuli in the classroom activities is imperative. Radio, TV, movies, want ads, cartoons, popular songs, brochures, all these are valid stimuli. Furthermore, activities traditionally labeled listening or speaking can, and should, be related to, rather than separated from, composition activities. In fact, there is little validity in the assumption that composition can be taught as a separate discipline of language instruction. The labels of "Grammar," "Conversation," "Listening," "Vocabulary," and "Writing" should be replaced with "Language Lessons."

4. A writing program should account for individual needs and interests. The emphasis should rest on the learner doing, rather than listening only. Small groups, two-person groups, and individual groupings should be students' options. A specific example of accounting for individuality is to allow students to write on suggested topics of their own choosing.

5. Students should be evaluated according to known criteria. The teacher's definite assignment desires should be made known before the students write. A check-list method suggested by Knapp (to be discussed later) can be presented to the student before he begins. According to this guideline, the art factor of composition can and should be minimized, and the skill factor rightly emphasized. Being tested on known criteria which have been previously practiced in class should also help to maintain student motivation.

6. The critical features of written discourse should be pointed out. Students should not be expected to generalize the features of how to write in English. A culminating step to any lesson should be the student verbalization of the features under consideration.

Practical Suggestions

Stimulating Content

When students write about subjects or experiences that they know well, they tend to write better. Some of the possible areas of activity which may provide a background for learning to write are listed below.

1. Conversation. Telling about experiences helps the students to find new elements and connections in that experience. "Conversation" is used here to cover discussion, interview, speeches, demonstration, panels, and formal debates. Conversation helps to clarify new experiences, and thus, is used in gaining information and the categorization of that information.

2. Listening. Listening is an important way to gain new information. Cassette tapes with music, speeches, or model paragraphs are useful.

Furthermore, radio, TV, guest speakers, as well as the teacher, may provide listening experiences which can teach a particular composition skill or provide new ideas for consideration.

3. Creative Dramatics. Acting out a role can be an effective means to explore not only thematic concerns but only stylistic choices due to varying perspectives, roles, and situations. Interpreting literature in this way, for example, may increase the meaningfulness of a particular concept, idea, or experience.

4. Reading. As a springboard to other activities and eventually writing, reading is the basic and the most traditional activity. Model paragraphs, essays, and quotations are common in the English class. In addition, though, "Dear Abby" advice columns, culture capsules, poetry, pamphlets, or want-ads can also be areas for study. In analyzing the written word, it is possible to see how native speakers use language.

5. Music. Music is a powerful medium of expression. Song lyrics with a musical background often have a strong emotional appeal. Music divorced of lyrics also has a great appeal. Either way could stimulate discussion and subsequent composition.

6. Art. Like music, art takes into account experiences and feelings. For the students who have difficulty finding words to express themselves, some work of art can stimulate them later to share their thoughts verbally using this art as a center of interest. Art is also an effective medium for description and practice in sharpening one's observation for details.

7. Multi-media. Multi-media provides numerous possibilities for combining all language skills: sight, sound, and semantics. Record players, tape recorders, cameras, TV, movies, cartoons, comic books, and newspapers all provide means to view language as it is used.

8. The Community. For a student learning English in the United States or England, the entire community is a classroom. The sights, sounds, and people of that community can provide areas for him to analyze, experience, and attempt to understand. Ms. Blackburn wrote a very good article relating field trips to EFL composition programs, "English for Foreign Students Goes Out on the Streets." (Blackburn, 1971) In Mexico, the English-speaking community can serve a similar purpose.

Giving Assignments

What should students write about? Although compositions must have some sort of content, the actual subject written about is not very important. What is important is the skill of organizaing that content. The

teacher's job is to first stimulate content and then to provide a list of suggested topics. If a student wants to write about another topic not suggested, that is acceptable, too. The only caution is to watch for copying from book jackets or encyclopedias!

Two ideas for subject matter have already been proposed earlier: relate topics to (a) other school courses and (b) to the daily concerns of the professions. A third consideration was discussed in the preceding section, "Stimulating Content," that is, to get topics from the EFL class activities. A last possibility is to ask the students to generate a list of topics that they would like to write about.

Some restrictions in giving writing assignments are given below.

(1) EFL students need more limited topics than a vague "Write about X in 300 words." The topics must be "spelled out." (2) Provide topics that are less likely to develop into clichés. Avoid items such as "Describe Your Daily Activities," "Describe Your Family," or "Why English is Important to Me." (3) Suggested topics should be within the assumed knowledge and interests of the majority of the class. Cars, sports, cooking, and children are still very sex-related in knowledge and interest. Some items that would probably appeal to only few of the students could be included, however, as suggestions to choose from. (4) Don't pick purely emotional issues. True, the debate and ensuing compositions about "The Ideal Husband/Wife" were lively and interesting, yet less emotional issues are just as effective, since they often involve some more thought. (5) If in-class compositions are occasionally desired, the topic must be simple enough to organize quickly in the hour provided. Note that having students write in-class has the advantage of seeing what can be done under pressure and without help. The disadvantage is that it takes up a precious class hour.

Evaluating Student Writing

As Guideline Five stated, students should be judged according to known criteria. A successful method of doing this is to use the check-list techniques. This check-list acts as a syllabus. Copies of the entire list are distributed to the students at the beginning of the course. The first and last compositions (preferably written in-class) act as a pre-test and as a post-test, and they are judged by this complete list. The other practice compositions, perhaps one per week, some written in-class and others out-of-class, will be evaluated by cumulative check-lists devised by the teacher according to which additional skills were taught since the previous composition. The student will revise his compositions to include those items not checked on his checklist. Time for student-teacher conferences and small group correction/evaluation groups should also be provided.

The advantages of this method of composition correction are listed by Donald Knapp: (Knapp, 1972, p. 220)

1. It eliminates proofreading, in favor of marking only those items that have teaching significance.

2. It provides for sufficient teaching and drill on the points to be learned so that they are learned, not just introduced or acknowledged.

3. It means that even grammar points and punctuation can be taught when the teacher is ready to teach them, and in the clearest and most favorable contexts.

4. It is structured to reinforce what the students want to remember and practice- their successes- instead of trying to force them to remember and learn from their failures.

5. It makes basic composition into a course with knowable, achievable goals.

6. It offers both the student and the teacher specific evidence that progress is being made - and how much.

7. It lets the student feel that he is being judged on his present achievement, not on his misspent past.

8. It eliminates the need for grading, and in its stead gives more precise evaluation of achievement in the separate composition skills.

9. The evaluation is direct and honest in terms of composition skills; it can be easily supported by the teacher, and accepted and respected by the students.

10. It changes the teacher's correction attitude from one of looking for errors and failures to one of looking for successes.

Chart 1

A sample check-list, adapted from Knapp:

Composition #5: Checklist

1. Use of Language

____A. Conjunctions used in compound sentences with correct punctuation.

____B. Connectives used to link ideas together.

II. Mechanics

____A. Title is given.

____B. Paragraphs are clearly indented.

____C. All sentences begin with capital letters.

____D. All sentences end with end marks.

III. Organization of Ideas

A. Outline

____1. An outline is given.
____2. The outline has correct form.

B. Topic Sentence

____1. A topic sentence is clearly given and underlined.
____2. The topic sentence is divided to clearly show the supports.

\+ = Done
++ = Especially well-done

Although the checklist can be used alone, composition symbols can also be employed to show a student his specific errors. Symbols are suggested rather than asking the teacher to write in all of the corrections, since the symbols make the students think, while the teacher's proofreading does not.

Chart 2

Correction Symbols

Sp = spelling mistake	P = error in punctuation
N = error in number	A = wrong or omitted article
T = error in tense	WO = error in word order
L = lexical error, wrong word used	R = rewrite, revise

Teaching the Critical Features of Writing

Seven important aspects of the composing process are listed below. Not only are these features to be introduced, but they must be practiced

again and again. Using the checklist method, the teacher can decide when and how to introduce these items one at a time. Then they are practiced over and over. Note that the teacher will be adding not only these features to the checklist but also lexical, punctuation and sentence structure items, too.

Some of the most critical features are: (1) Limiting the topic and the topic sentence, (2) Selecting and arranging details, (3) Outlining, (4) Providing for coherence and unity, (5) Using Connectives and Transitional Phrases, (6) Practicing methods of development, and (7) Recognizing style and word choice.

Unfortunately, space does not permit a complete listing of ideas for teaching each of these seven categories; therefore, only one technique for selecting and arranging details will be given here. This technique can also be used in discussing limiting the topic and the topic sentence as well as outlining.

One Technique. In a small group or as a class, list all the facts you know about a certain subject. Sample topics include: Tourism, Television, Three Places in Mexico a Tourist Should See. After this initial collection of ideas, look for subdivisions. Next, put numbers by each idea and capital letters for each subdivision. Put the numbers of the ideas under the appropriate letters. Can the facts be ordered within the groups? Write a summary sentence for each group. Do all the details talk about the same idea within their groups? Should some sentences be taken out? Now, write a topic sentence or main idea sentence for all your ideas. Follow-up: Use this to teach outlining- both topic and sentence forms. Then have the students write a short composition following this outlining.

Conclusion

It is hoped that the survey of theories related to composition learning and teaching found in Part I of this article will help teachers to understand what approaches have influenced EFL writing programs in Mexico and elsewhere. The foregoing suggestions in this second part form one attempt to tailor a more effective and realistic approach for the needs of our students here. These ideas have evolved from years of classroom experience with Spanish-speakers at the University of the Americas as well as in California and Arizona schools.

Teaching composition skills is a big job - yet an enjoyable one with definable and attainable goals. Hopefully, the guidelines presented here will aid others in finding their best direction.

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BILINGUAL ACQUISITION:

THE NEED FOR A SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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

Introduction

Child language acquisition has fascinated people for thousands of years. Sporadic accounts have appeared throughout history from the time of the Greeks and the Egyptians, reflected, for example, in writings by Aristotle, Herodotus, St. Augustine and King James VI of Scotland. Other accounts have arisen out of the bizarre tales of feral and wolf-children, reported as far back as pre-Roman days in the story of Romulus and Remos. Later cases were those of the Hessian wolf-boy in 1349; the Lithuanian bear-boy in 1661; Wild Peter of Hanover in 1721; and Victor the wild boy from Aveyron in 1797 (Brown, 1958). Even in the twentieth century similar stories were reported with the discoveries of Kamala and Amala in India in 1920, and two cases in the United States in the late thirties (Brown, 1958; Singh and Zingg, 1966). In all of these unusual cases, social isolation was a predominant factor underscoring the fact that children acquire language only when born into a linguistic community. Without human contact, there is little likelihood that the child will ever be capable of developing language on his own.

Exluding the bizarre accounts, however, reports of child language were usually only incidental to the main purpose of studies done by educators, physicians, and psychologists. This situation persisted until the beginning of the present century when Clara and William Stern devoted their entire attention to the problem (Stern, 1929). Others followed their example, and in the past few decades there have been a multitude of studies which have formed the basis for a new understanding of language and language acquisition.

Linguists, however, concerned themselves primarily and almost exclusively with linguistic data. their goal was to set down a linguistic description of the process, and depending upon the aspect of language they examined they wrote about phonology, morphology, and syntax, more rarely about lexical or semantic aspects. Concurrently with this newfound interest on the part of linguists, psychologists contributed their approaches and methods to those already in use. Yet something was still missing. If language emerges only when the human infant is in a social context - that is, in a community with other human beings - then the relevance of the social environment must also be considered in an account of linguistic development. More recently, the notion of a social and linguistic descrip-

tion has been advanced by Hymes who has termed this an "ethnography of speaking." According to Hymes, "...with this change the process that began with phonology and morphology will have come full circle linguistic description will find its own development to require... considerations from which at first it sought to be free." (Blount, A sociolinguistic approach to language seems timely and desirable, especially now that generative-transformational grammar has made such tremendous strides in the field of linguistics. Generative grammarians emphasized the distinction between language "competence" and language "performance" and chose to study competence, ignoring performative aspects almost entirely. However, the recent awareness that to understand language fully, linguistics cannot ignore the "speech act" itself (which involves the use of language in its social context) has encouraged the field of sociolinguistics. Some generative grammarians have now begun to take social aspects into account in writing their grammars, as increasing sociolinguistic data become available. This trend has demanded a shift in approach from one which studied language and society separately (a co-occurrence approach) to one which studies the interaction between language and its social and situational contexts (a co-variation approach). The assumption is that much more can be learned about languages in this way than if language and society are treated independently. Hymes sums up this development by saying:

> Saussure is concerned with the word, Chomsky with the sentence, the ethnography of speaking with the act of speech...
>
> The goal of the ethnography of speaking can be said to be to complete the discovery of the sphere of 'rule-governed creativity' with respect to language, and to characterize the abilities of persons in this regard... In extending the scope of linguistic rules beyond sentences to speech acts, and in seeking to relate language meaningfully to situations, this approach, although compatible with Chomsky's goals, does critically recast certain of his concepts. (Blount, 1974)

A team of scholars subsequently echoed this call for ethnographies of speaking in a manual they prepared for researchers, entitled A Field Manual for Cross-Cultural Study of the Acquisition of Communicative Competence, published in 1967. The writers listed three aspects of child language in which data are most needed:

> (1) We need information about the learning of languages which are structurally different from English... (in order to find) certain universals in terms of stages of development in children.

> (2) ...language acquisition studies (should) be broadened to include not only the traditional formal core of language, but competence in the use of language. Not only do children learn the phonology, grammar and vocabulary which permit us to identify a language, but they learn when to speak, when to be quiet, when to use polite forms, and when to shift language in a multilingual community. We know nothing about the relation between these aspects of learning and the learning of the basic code...
>
> (3) There has been considerable controversy over the role of the social milieu in language development... The controversy turns on the degree to which a strong maturational component in language development may make linguistic competence relatively impervious to acceleration through changes in the milieu. The linguistic repertoire of the community clearly must influence the context of the child's learning, but it is not clear whether the order of acquisition of grammatical or sociolinguistic rules might be altered either by their place in the adult system or by specific values and practices of the child's caretakers. (Slobin et al, 1967).

In all three areas, the need for a sociolinguistic approach to language acquisition studies is clearly underscored.

Studies of Infant Bilingualism

Werner Leopold noted that although numerous studies have been done on the topic of child language acquisition, there were few, indeed, which dealt with the learning of two languages simultaneously by small children (Leopold, 1939-49). Others have also deplored the paucity of records dealing with child bilingualism, and called specifically for investigation in this area (Bar-Adon and Leopold, 1971). Vildomec's book on Multilingualism (1963), cited only three important works on preschool children who acquired two languages simultaneously from the beginning of their speech, those by Ronjat (1913), Pavlovitch (1920), and Leopold (1939-49). Slobin's Field Manual 1967), listed seven reports of bilingual children, of which only three were general longitudinal case studies - the same three referred to by Vildomec. And although approximately fifty studies were mentioned in Slobin's updated publication of Leopold's Bibliography of Child Language (Slobin, 1972), closer inspection reveals that the same three works stood out as the only full case reports; the others, by and large, were particularist descriptions of specific aspects, or reports of acquisition at a specific stage of development.

The first of the three general descriptions - that by Ronjat - dealt with

a case of complete bilingualism up to age 4;10. Ronjat's son, Louis, learned German from his mother and French from his father while they lived in France (Ronjat, 1913). Pavlovitch likewise recorded the simultaneous speech development of his son, Douchan, in both Serbian and French. However, since his records only went up to the child's second year, they were considerably less useful in discerning much about the child's bilingual ability (Pavlovitch, 1920).

Geissler, who lived among Germans in Yugoslavia, also reported on infant bilingualism in a study of the bilingual development of German children in Belgrade in 1938. His is the only book aside from Ronjat's work which treated the linguistic development of children from the point of view of bilingualism. However, Geissler was not a linguist and his work was criticized for poor recording and too many vague generalizations (Bar-Adon and Leopold, 1971). A more recent account of bilingualism, but hardly with the depth of those mentioned above, was that of Robbins Burling, whose son learned Garo and English at the same time (Bar-Adon and Leopold, 1971).

Of all of these, Leopold's work, Speech Development of a Bilingual Child, published in four volumes between 1939 and 1949, remains one of the classic studies in this area. It was definitely the most thorough study of the speech of an individual bilingual child, and probably of any child. Leopold recorded his first daughter's speech from her birth to age 15;7 with emphasis on the first two years. The child, Hildegard, learned German and English; however, her ability with both languages was not nearly as complete as that of Ronjat's son. Her bilingualism was important in her first two years, after which her German fell into almost total disuse (Leopold, 1939-49).

Besides studies dealing with infant bilingualism, both Slobin's Field Manual and Leopold's Bibliography of Child Language point to the need for works involving languages other than English. In Spanish, for example, the bibliography records only seven studies, four of which are listed as on-going research as of the date of printing, in March 1972; whereas the Field Manual lists only one study of Spanish acquisition. Later in 1972, one work appeared in Spain which compiled earlier studies by Samuel Gili Gaya, under the title Estudios de lenguaje infantil 1972).

All in all, one is amazed by the paucity of works on the acquisition of Spanish in that it is one of the major tongues of the world. Consequently, it is not surprising that case studies of dual acquisition number even fewer, not to mention the lack of published works on bilingual English and Spanish children. However, as the phenomenon of bilingualism increasingly attracts attention, some writers of doctoral dissertations have begun to devote their efforts to researching limited aspects of the speech of Spanish-English bilingual children. Similarly, articles

have begun to appear with increasing frequency in professional journals summarizing works in progress, such as those by Brisk, and Padilla and Leibman. Even so, most works have failed to devote attention to the interrelationship of children's speech and their environments. The use of language - especially by bilingual children - remains a relatively unexplored area in all of the studies dealing with infant bilingualism.

On the Nature of Bilingualism

In reviewing the case studies dealing with infant bilingualism, it becomes patently clear that the type and degree of bilingualism referred to is not always the same. Since Pavlovitch's work only went as far as the child's second year, there could not have been substantial speech in either language. The same was true of Burling's son, who was exposed to Garo and English. Even Leopold's daughter, who was initially bilingual, became increasingly monolingual after her second year. Only Ronjat's study spoke of complete bilingualism during the period observed. Yet all of the children in these studies were termed "bilingual" by their reporters, even though their abilities were not at all the same. The problem was that bilingualism was imprecisely defined. Today, of course, it is clear that the term bilingualism entails a range of possible abilities and that bilinguals may display varying degrees of skills in the two or more languages involved.

Furthermore, besides the imprecision of definition and the difficulty of measuring bilingualism, most scholars have studied it primarily from their own bias, within a linguistic, sociological, or psychological framework. Linguistics, for example, has examined linguistic interference; sociology has looked at languages in contact and their effects upon each other (primarily among adult populations); psychology has been concerned with such things as the relationship between bilingualism and intelligence, etc. Yet all of these are interrelated. For example, it is commonly recognized that the age and manner of acquisition, as well as the environment or environments in which the individual becomes bilingual, have definite psychological and linguistic consequences. Hence, the acknowledgment of the social milieu on the type of bilingual produced.

According to Fishman (Valdman, 1966), two major types of bilingual speakers are generally identified, the compound bilingual and the coordinate bilingual (although the validity of this dichotomy is now under scrutiny). Implicit in these types is the impact of social conditions (how, when, and where the languages are acquired) upon the psychological and neurological organization of the speaker as well as his resultant ability with the languages concerned. The degree of switching and interference manifest in his speech is apparently related to all of these factors as well as to the context of the speech event.

In 1960, scholars attending an International Seminar on Bilingualism

held in Wales had already recognized the need to include various components in a full bilingual description - the number of languages involved, the type of languages, the function of each, the degree of proficiency, the switching patterns, and the way in which the languages affect each other linguistically (Andersson and Boyer, 1970). A decade later, Mackey again emphasized the social domain as the perspective in which bilingualism can be understood by stating the following:

> Bilingualism is not a phenomenon of language; it is a characteristic of its use. It is not a feature of the code but of the message. It does not belong to the domain of 'langue' but of 'parole.' (Fishman, 1970).

Language and the Social Context

As Mackey and others cited the need to incorporate social information in bilingual descriptions, sociolinguistics proceeded on its own in precisely the same direction. Hymes, for example, commented on the relevance and importance of contextual information to linguistic studies:

> Discovery of structure in linguistics has proceeded mostly as if the function of language is reference alone. The common account of language as mediating merely between (vocal) sound and meaning manifests this assumption. It pictures language as structure between the two continua of possible meanings and possible sounds. The image of man implied is of an abstract, isolated individual, related only to a world of objects to be named and described. Ethnography of speaking proceeds on the hypothesis that an equally primary function of speech is 'address.' Speech... mediates between persons and their stituations...
>
> One must begin from speech as a mode of action, not from language as an unmotivated mechanism. (Blount, 1974).

Here it is recognized that language is never used in a social vacuum, and only a sociolinguistic approach brings out the extralinguistic influences on the acquisition of language and verbal behavior. Yet there is no sociolinguistic theory yet so explicit as the present theory of language. Linguists have studied the sentence, but what is needed, according to Hymes, is

> ...the extension of analysis beyond the sentence to sequences in discourse; beyond the single language to 'choices' among forms of speech; and beyond the referential function to functions that may be loosely

> grouped together as stylistic. Each of these can be seen as involving kinds of knowledge and ability (i.e., competence) on the part of members of a community (Blount, 1974).

Hence, both language and language use are structured, and every utterance has both social and referential meaning. Furthermore, there is a direct relationship between linguistic and social facts. A sociolinguistic approach attempts to delineate both the social structure and linguistic structure inherent in the utterance, and to correlate the two. This is possible because linguistic choices are available to each speaker, and the choices he makes reflect the social factors present at the time of speech. Hence, linguistic alternates always convey social information, fairly well known to all members of a speech is not done randomly but in accordance with prescribed norms. Also, as Gumperz points out, these "...social markers occur in clusters such that the selection of one of a particular set of alternates in one part of an utterance restricts the freedom of selection among subsequent sets." (Slobin et al, 1967) That is, the style adopted in a particular circumstance is consistent.

What affects the speaker's choice of styles are factors in the setting. Some of the social factors affecting linguistic choices which have been identified by Ervin-Tripp are the following: (Fishman, 1970) (1) the setting; (2) the topic of discourse; (3) the form of communication; (4) the tone or mood of the act; (5) the function or norm of the interaction; and (6) the participants, which includes consideration of the status, sex, age, and occupation of the speakers as well as their roles in relationship to each other and in relation to the social situation at hand. Furthermore, Ervin-Tripp suggests that the social factors are arranged hierarchically as stages in the communicative process. Certain factors are primary considerations assuming more underlying importance in terms of their effects on the speaker's choice than others. Among these, social relationships seem to be the major determinants of verbal behavior.

As social factors present in the setting vary, so does the speaker's choice of style. No person speaks in exactly the same manner at all times in all places to all people. This holds true for everyone, whether monolingual or bilingual. However, whereas the speaker of only one language shifts styles within a single language system, the bilingual has even greater options - he can shift styles within each of the languages he speaks, and he can also shift from one language to another. Such code switching is also replete with social significance. This has been described by scholars such as Gumperz, Ferguson and Rubin. Gumperz, for example, distinguishes between vernacular speech (that used in the home and with peers) and other varieties which are learned after childhood and are used only in certain more socially definable communication situations (fishman, 1970). Ferguson identifies special types of high and low varieties of language which he dubbed di-

glossia (Word, 1959). And Rubin speaks more precisely of full code switching from one language to another in her work on the Spanish-Guaraní speakers of Paraguay (Fishman, 1970). Hence the bilingual shifts codes to mark contrast in the same way the monolingual shifts styles within a single language.

It is interesting to note that in spite of developments in sociolinguistics, most research performed has primarily involved adult speakers. Jakobson reminds us that for the person "...who is concerned with the fully developed structure of language, its acquisition...cannot fail to provide much that is instructive." (Jakobson, 1968) This must apply to linguistic acquisition as well as to the acquisition of the rules for language use. Yet investigators of child language - whether of bilingual or monolingual children - have almost totally ignored study of commmunicative competence as opposed to purely linguistic analyses.

Fascinating questions have yet to be asked and researched, especially as concerns dual language acquisition; for example,

(1) How and when does the process of language differentiation occur?

(2) What are some of the social factors which contribute to the child's growing awareness that he is, in fact, bilingual?

(3) How and when does the child begin to "behave" as a bilingual individual? What does bilingual behavior mean?

(4) What are some of the observable social factors which affect the child's choice of language (switching from one code to another)? How and when does the child begin to perceive these factors?

(5) Are some social factors more important than others in determining language choice? Is there any hierarchical order of importance of these factors?

(6) In addition to code switching, does the child posses linguistic styles and, if so, when do these become evident? What are some of the identifiable styles in children's speech?

(7) What are some of the factors which trigger differing styles of speech?

(8) What linguistic interference is noted in the speech of bilingual children? What effect do various social factors have upon the occurrence of interference and the type and direction

of interference in children's speech?

(9) How does the process of socialization affect linguistic abilities and language use, especially in the bilingual child?

(10) How does the process of acquiring two (or more) languages differ, if at all, from the process of learning only one?

The child acquires not only the phonology and grammar of language, but also a tremendous amount of information about social context in which he lives if he is ultimately to use language appropriately. His language is judged for its grammaticality as well as for its appropriateness, and it is in this second area where information is most lacking. In the case of the bilingual child, who often moves within two cultural communities, each of the communities in which he participates provides him with models of language, verbal behavior, attitudes, values, etc. As the child develops, his linguistic ability and language use, as well as his total behavior, are viewed and judged, however, from the limited perspective of each of the monolingual (and often monocultural) persons with whom he has contact. The bilingual child is expected to measure up to the norms of each of the cultural communities in which he operates, and normally to the same degree as the monolingual-monocultural child. It is these linguistic and cultural expectations which often produce the first sense of harmony or conflict within the child. The "problem" of bilingualism, therefore, cannot be viewed as an intrinsically linguistic or psychological phenomenon alone, but as one which has its roots deeply set in the social milieu and in the attitudes of persons who surround the child. The child is both linguist and ethnographer, and he is incredibly sensitive and expert as both.

A Sociolinguistic Case Study in Progress

The writer's interest in developmental sociolinguistics grew to a large degree out of an attempt to produce a case study of one bilingual child, the author's son. From the time of the child's birth a little over seven years ago, data have been systematically collected in a speech diary based on observation, recordings of the child's utterances and occasional video tapes. As with most other researchers, the writer's initial interest was in compiling linguistic data, however it soon became apparent that a fuller sociolinguistic description was not only more fascinating, but also capable of providing new insights into the acquisition of communicative competence. The limitations inherent in the study of a single child were readily acknowledged, especially because the social variables naturally differ from each individual. However, even the study of one individual can shed light on bilingual behavior, and the relationship between speech acquisition and the social context. Following is a capsule description of some of the salient aspects of the case study which have emerged thus far.

Background: The Child and His Caretakers

Mario was the name chosen for the child, born in Vermont on July 27, 1968. Because it was anticipated that he would eventually have contact with three cultures and three languages in that his father was Italian-American, his mother Bolivian, and his birthplace the United States, "Mario" seemed a good choice, requiring no translations into any of the languages concerned. The child's father spoke English and Italian as native tongues; his mother was a native speaker of Spanish. Both parents, however, were fluent speakers of Spanish, Italian, and English. Both parents had also lived and traveled extensively in various countries in which each of these languages was spoken, and they both had a high regard and appreciation of all three languages and cultural areas.

Language Contact and Exposure

In Mario's case, Spanish was the language of the home, and the language used with him from his birth. By contrast, his contact with English was limited at first to that provided by occasional visitors, television and radio, and the environment outside the home. His first prolonged and intensive contact with English during his pre-school years occurred between ages 2;2 to 2;4 when he attended a nursery with English-speaking children. Consequently, English was a somewhat tardy development which manifested itself as a productive skill beginning about 2;8. Periods of English alternated intermittently with periods of almost exclusive contact with Spanish during occasional but lengthy trips to Bolivia and Mexico. Exposure to both languages to age five was uneven, with probably more exposure to Spanish than English. By five, however, when Mario began kindergarten, exposure to both languages was more nearly equal from that point on. His formal education, however, was conducted entirely in English.

Language Performance at Age Five

Between his fifth and sixth year, Mario might be described as a coordinate bilingual, having acquired each of his languages from separate speakers and under quite separate circumstances. This was reflected as well in his use of his languages, each of which he clearly reserved for the appropriate situation.

Various tests were used on occasions to ascertain Mario's proficiency in Spanish and English. The tests showed that Mario was an individual who controlled Spanish and English on about the same level as the monolingual child of the same age in each of these languages. On a phonological level

he did not have complete control of all of the allophonic variations of English phonemes, although he did differentiate all the phonemes of both languages. He produced those phonemes common in the speech of his monolingual peers, having some difficualty, as is common, with the distinction. He appeared slightly stronger in his knowledge of Spanish vocabulary than in English, and had a fairly good command of the grammar of both languages. He was probably more advanced in Spanish morphology than his Spanish-speaking peers; however, the same did not seem to be true in English, where he lacked certain tense markers and the possessive forms common to the speech of five-year-old English-speaking children.

From other indicators as well, it was clear that Mario was bilingual and bicultural by five, and that he was quite aware of his own bilinguality. He used each language appropriately in the proper situation with an amazingly low degree of interference. All in all, Mario controlled Spanish and English on about the same level as the average monolingual child of the same age in each of these languages; and, in addition, he had a passive knowledge of Italian.

Language and Socialization

In most cases, the child's caretakers are largely responsible for his socialization during his pre-school years, serving as models of behavior, giving direction, and providing input. Much of this is accomplished through language, as well as through example. The language adults use with the child often varies with the child's age. The infant who has not yet acquired language is not addressed in the same manner as the two or five-year-old. The way in which adults talk to children often reveals a variety of things: it reflects something about their own beliefs about the child and their expectations concerning youngsters of varying ages, and it embodies their attempts to socialize the child in ways appropriate to their world view. Since adult language varies with the age of the child, it is clearly not a vast corpus of undifferentiated speech. Consequently, their language serves as the first source of differing speech styles and usage which the child will eventually acquire. In Mario's case there was also continued contact with a monolingual Spanish-speaking individual who lived with the family and who had primary responsibility for the child's care. As the child matured and began to interact with other persons outside the home, linguistic and cultural inputs affecting his verbal behavior also broadened.

Both parents, and in particular his mother, had strong attitudes which supported the maintenance and sole use of Spanish in the home. This attitude obviously affected Mario in his exclusive use of Spanish with all family members; in the few cases when Mario deviated from this pattern by incorporating English lexical items in his speech, he was reminded of this fact. English then was the language which became associated with the world outside the home and usually with less intimately related persons.

When Mario was still an infant, his caretakers used language with him primarily to establish contact and to elicit signs of recognition. They also used language to quiet the child or to amuse him. The language they addressed to the infant was marked by higher frequency of voice and the use of repetitious syllables usually formed by consonant and vowel combinations. When the child began to move about, language was used to establish limits, to point out dangers, and to express aproval or disapproval. When he learned his first words attempts were made to point out things and provide labels. His caretakers also used language to direct the child and shape his behavior.

From the second to fifth years, Mario's behaviour came under increasing control. As he himself acquired language, he was obliged to use it increasingly in place of other forms of expression; i. e., speaking, instead of screaming, jumping, or tantrums. Mario was required to modulate his voice and lower his volume in certain situations, in church, at the doctor's office, and so forth. For the first time he was taught that it was inappropriate to say certain words which became taboo in certain settings ("pis, caca"). This prohibition provided him with verbal ammunition, which he used when angry. He learned that by merely saying these words he produced specific reactions in others. His parents also began to direct his interaction with other persons and to define his relationship to them. Social relationships were often clarified through his parents' insistence on the use of titles and proper etiquette terms for greeting, addressing people, leave-taking, and thanking.

By five, increasing demands were placed on the child. There was little tolerance for inappropriate language or behavior. Commands were frequent and direct. These were sometimes followed by verbal or physical punishment. There was some alternation between direct commands and attempts to reason with the child. There was increased emphasis on the structure and form of conversation, the give and take of dialog, and the use of etiquette and courtesy terms. There was also less tolerance for aberrant language, and grammatical errors were usually pointed out by subtle or direct means. Most importantly, code switching with the same interlocutor was not permitted in normal conversation, although it was allowed when quoting, in roleplay, or when a phrase was untranslatable.

The five-year-old child had acquired the language of his parents, and through it, their view of the world, in as far as he was able to grasp it. However, Mario had just begun to enter more fully another world, that of kindergarten and that of an English-speaking peer group. These divergent environments are just beginning to produce effects on the child. In the ensuing years, Mario will be subjected to other areas of socialization and sometimes differing views; and, as a bilingual/bicultural individual, he will probably face his most challenging moments.

Part II will appear in the next issue.

CHALK TALK

Paul Davies
Instituto Anglo Mexicano
México, D. F.

TONGUE IN CHEEK

Although most approaches to the problem of English language teaching do not include the memorization of numerous rules of grammar, teachers may find that an occasional rule, if short, easy to understand and to apply, can be of help to the student. Such rules as:

1. Each pronoun always agrees with their antecedent.
2. Just between you and I, case is important.
3. Watch out for irregular verbs which has crope into our language.
4. Verbs has to agree with their subjects.
5. Don't use no double negatives.
6. A writer mustn't shift your point of view.
7. When dangling, don't use participles.
8. Join clauses good, like a conjunction should.
9. Don't write a run-on sentence you got to punctuate it.
10. About sentence fragments.
11. In letters themes reports articles and stuff like that we use commas to keep a string of items apart.
12. Don't use commas, which aren't necessary.
13. Its important to use apostrophe's right.
14. Don't abbrev.
15. Check to see if you any words out.

SONG IN THE ELT CLASSROOM: A Semantic Approach

Carmen Silva, in her interesting analysis of the semantic approach to foreign language teaching, defines this approach as "... basically an attempt to do away with the grammatical syllabus... inspired by the desire to find out a possible way to overcome the barrenness into which a behaviourist structural approach has led foreign-language teaching and learning."(Silva, 1975, P. 341)

In this paper I should like to suggest some ways in which songs may be used to best advantage as an effective means of teaching a second language. I feel that songs are often omitted, or relegated to the status of a little "treat" at the end of a class, due to one or both of these ideas: 1. that there isn't enough material in a song to warrant the "production" of it in the classroom. 2. that the teacher needs a good voice to "put over" a song, or to get the students to participate. These are mistaken ideas: song in the ELT classroom can be as rewarding as it is fun.

I have found the song teaching techniques that I shall list below to closely parallel the eight principles that Ms. Silva establishes as a basis for the semantic approach translated into classroom principles. At the end of the description of each technique I shall quote an excerpt from one or more of these principles.

1) Choosing the song. It is important to consider age level, group progress and sophistication, and the teacher's ability before deciding on a song. "The Bear Went Over the Mountain" is clearly not for the same group as "Why Can't the English Teach their Children How to Speak?" Not all teachers can get the high notes and the low one of "The Star Spangled Banner." The song can be relevant - to a structure being taught (e.g., "Lazy Mary will you get up, will you get up today?"); to a vocabulary (Today is Tuesday - Tuesday roast beef, Monday stew, Sunday chicken, etc."); to an idea ("It was the ship Titanic that sailed the ocean blue, and they thought they'd got a ship that the water would never rush through."); or it can just as successfully be something the students are eager to learn because it is currently popular (e.g., a protest song or a song from the latest Cat Stevens record -- "... How many deaths will it take til they know that too many people have died...")

All songs should be checked for any possibly offensive material. Carols and hymns would not always be appropriate, nor songs with strong political connotations. Double negatives and "ain'ts" should be considered. Songs that have often been played and heard are, of course, easier to teach.

Old songs, camp songs, war songs, carols, nursery rhymes, cowboy songs, Irish songs, protest songs -- English is a rich mine of all these. Currently popular songs can be very good indeed; they can also be trite, difficult to sing without orchestration, and unrewarding as to vocabulary content. Where to find songs? Children's records, sing-along-with records and tapes, song books and anthologies of old favorites are good sources. Listen to what the young are humming. Ask adolescents what they want to sing. But check the records first when they start arriving from cherished collections:

Principle 3. "Language teaching must create the wish to communicate in the foreign language. This can be achieved through a selection of samples of the target language whose contents are appealing to the learners and through interesting classroom activities. "(Silva, 1975, P. 343.)

2. Presenting the Song. I have found that it's a good exercise to play the song once (Use a tape, or record, or just sing out.) with no clues except the title written on the board, and then ask the students what they think the song story is. This encourages close listening. If they can't get any idea of the meaning, you can tell them, very briefly at this point, what it's about. (In English, if possible.)

Principle 2. "... The teacher should fully exploit the cognitive capacities of the learners because what is learned with understanding is better retained and for longer periods." (Silva, 1975, P. 343.)

3. Going over the words of the song. Some teachers prefer to pass out printed copies of the song. I like to have the students copy it out. If time is short the copying can be done as homework and the printed copies returned to the teacher. Students' copies should be carefully checked for punctuation, correct verse form, spelling, etc.; as errors can be memorized too. Then everyone should read the words aloud together, to get the "feel" of the song.

4. Considering the history of the song. Take a minute to consider the origin of the song. What "kind" (genre) of song is it? What is known about its background? its history? Songs like "Dixie" and "Old Black Joe" have much more in them than the words. Why was the song written? When? Is it a regional song?

Principle 4. "The teaching material must be selected from samples of natural language, not language especially produced and limited to suit the apparent needs of the learners." (Silva, 1975, P. 343.)

5. Translating the words. The goal here is a quick, correct, idiomatic translation, if the students are advanced enough. This can be a wonderful opportunity for learning. Point out parallels, cognates,

suffixes, prefixes, objects of prepositions, anything to give the learners a clear idea of what they will be singing. I usually have my students write down only the equivalents of words or phrases they don't understand, in small letters just over the English original.

Principle 2."Language learning is a conscious process and not just the parrotting of utterances produced by the teacher. For an act of communication to exist it must always be accompanied by understanding. Therefore the learners should have a clear idea of what they are saying and doing at every stage of the learning process. . . "(Silva, 1975, P. 343).

6. Singing the song together. If you are singing a cappella, be sure to start high or low enough to reach all the notes. Sing loudly so that everyone can hear your pronunciation. Don't worry about individual pronunciation too much: the students correct themselves as the song goes along, and songs always repeat. Walk among the students and listen as you sing. The rhythm, the melody, and the rhyme of the words all contribute to good pronunciation and good intonation, but your example has to be loud and steady. Don't be a choirmaster, aiming for a production number. If you hit a wrong note or squeak, just laugh with the rest and go on. Be sure that everyone sings, and that everyone reads all the words until they are memorized. Repeat the song at least four times. Memorizing is amazingly easy with everyone singing, everyone reading, everyone concentrating. Vocabularies soar. The vocabulary in songs can be so unusual, so unlike that of a textbook, so varied, that words are absorbed as if by osmosis. ("There was an old lady who swallowed a fly. I don't know why she swallowed a fly!")

Principle 7. ". . . Meaning and interest deeply sway the learners' attitudes and these in turn largely determine the failure or success of the teaching-learning process. " (Silva, 1975, P. 345.)

7. Singing the songs that were learned before. Again, be sure that each student has his copy of the words: no humming along! Songs should be kept together, close at hand, in perfect order. Each song takes only about a minute and a half to sing and repetition is the surest way to memory. A good frame for beginners is to have a chairperson who asks, "And now what would you like to sing, John?" To which John replies, "I should (would) like to sing ____________."

Principle 5. "The essential condition for learning the L_2 is adequate exposure to the language in use, in both its written and its spoken mode. . . " (Silva, 1975, P. 343.)

8. Making new sentences with the words contained in the song. A desired structure or pattern may be selected (i. e., questions and answers in the simple past tense). Vocabularies of songs learned earlier

can be reviewed at this point and combined with the new song vocabulary, either as translations from the native language, or in response to prompts written on the blackboard (e. g., "stew/Peter/Tuesday" becomes "Did Peter eat stew last Tuesday?" if that is the pattern chosen). Thus the student learns to use the language, re-grouping words, changing tenses, forming new patterns, - the essence of learning a new language. It is the privilege of the teacher to create new opportunities, with each new song and its vocabulary, for the students to express their own feelings and ideas, too. A song is to be enjoyed in its entirety, yes, but it is important for a language student to realize that each song can be broken into segments, combined with other segments, re-formed endlessly into new combinations. Language students need constant practice in doing this.

Principle 1. "The major aim of foreign-language teaching is to develop the learner's competence to communicate creatively and purposively through the L_2. Our aim is to teach language usage, that is language with communicative value. We should expect the students to use the linguistic elements in novel combinations for the purposes of personal expression." (Silva, 1975, P. 343.)

9. Writing new words in different contexts. A dictation is often good at this point, one that includes the most difficult of the new words. Dictations keep writing skills sharp-hearing skills, too.

I prefer to dictate sentences that show other meanings of the new vocabulary words, or other nuances of the same meanings (e. g., "The day swallowed up the night" instead of "The old lady swallowed the fly" as in the song.)

10. Using the song as the basis for a new story or composition. This makes a good homework assignment. It can be as simple as "Write a paragraph telling me why the bear went over the mountain" or as complicated as "Write a short play, with two characters, about an incident that took place as the Titanic sank." The student should have to use his imagination. Don't correct these too mercilessly. I have found a small amount of encouragement of literary efforts here to produce amazing results.

Principle 6. "Errors are a necessary part of the learning process, since they are a means of finding out the limits to the domain of the rules of the grammar of the L_2... not even native speakers make semantic and linguistic choices in an automatic and effortless way, so we should not expect an unnatural level of perfection from second-language learners." (Silva, 1975, P. 345.)

Principle 8. Language learning is an active process. This does not mean keeping the learners busy... filling in slots in a structure, or

reciting dialogues beautifully sterilized for them!... rather, it means creating opportunities for them to invent and re-invent language for themselves, language conveying their own feelings and ideas; it means giving them freedom and time off to play with the language..." (Silva, 1975, P. 345)

Songs are rich with idiomatic expressions peculiar to English (Fly's in the sugar bowl, shoo fly, shoo!") and rich with adverbial phrases difficult to catch in a textbook ("way down upon the Swanee River," "all the livelong day!" "long ago and far away", "by the time I get to Phoenix"). They are rich in regional expressions that can provide valuable insights into our culture (lack of it, sometimes!) as well as into our language ("I saw Mommy kissing Santa Claus underneath the mistletoe last night!"). They provide, too, a fertile field for wrapping-the-tongue-around-words exercises (Can't get a red bird, a blue bird'll do.").

And songs have a fringe benefit: they pop the mind at unexpected times to provide a duplicate lesson. A nun who liked to observe my Friday singing classes at a parochial school in Mexico City once said to me, most reproachfully, "All through mass this morning I kept thinking, "Oh I wish I was in the land of cotton, good times there are not forgotten-look away, look away, look away, Dixie Land.!"

It's so easy to remember a song, easy and fun.

Nursery Rhymes

There Was a Crooked Man
London Bridge is Falling Down
Ten Little Indians
Oats, Peas, Beans & Barley Grow
My Bonny Lies Over the Ocean
Polly Put the Kettle On
The Farmer in the Dell
The Bear Went Over the Mountain
Lazy Mary Will You Get Up?
Mary Had a Little Lamb
Bobby Shaftoe
Peter, Peter, Pumpkin Eater
Hickory, Dickory Dock

Easy & Fun

How Much is the Doggie in the Window?
The Chewing Gum Song
The Animal Fair
Yellow Ribbon
Daisy (A Bicycle Built for Two)
Moonlight Bay
Smiles
S-M-I-L-E
Show Me the Way to Go Home
Old MacDonald Had a Farm
Tell Me a Story

History

Dixie
'Til We Meet Again
I've Been Working on the Railroad
The Ship Titanic
Yankee Doodle

Nostalgia

Over the Rainbow
Side by Side
Smoke Gets in Your Eyes
Roses of Picardy
It's a Sin to Tell a Lie
The Autumn Leaves
At Last
Did Your Mother Come from Ireland?
Walkin' My Baby Back Home
Red Roses for a Blue Lady
I'm Always Chasing Rainbows

Regional

Home on the Range
California, Here I Come
Clementine
Swanee River
Old Black Joe
Chicago
I've Got Spurs that Jingle, Jangle, Jingle
Streets of New York (East Side, West Side)
Little Brown Jug
Red River Valley

Modern (and Easy)

You've Got a Friend (Carole King)
Yesterday (Beatles)
Moon River
Long & Winding Road (Beatles)
Morning Has Broken (Cat Stevens)
Norwegian Wood (Beatles)
Those Were the Days, My Friends (Beatles)
There Are Places I'll Remember All My Life (Beatles)
Sounds of Silence (Simon & Garfunkel)
Bye-Bye Love (Simon & Garfunkel)
The Boxer (Simon & Garfunkel)
Moonshadow (Cat Stevens)
Ubla Di, Ubla Dai (Beatles)

Christmas Corols

Silver Bells
What Child is This?
Little Town of Bethlehem
White Christmas
Have Yourself a Merry Little Christmas
I Saw Mommy Kissing Santa Claus
Joy to the World

REFERENCE

Carmen Silva, "Recent Theories of Language Acquisition in Relation to a Semantic Approach to a Foreign-Language," Vol. XXLX English Language Teaching Journal edited by W. R. Lee (London: Oxford University Press), p. 341.

Dorothy Tefft
Instituto de Idiomas
University of the Americas

REVIEWS

J.P.B. Allen and S. Pit Corder, ed., READINGS FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS: The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics (2 volumes). (Ely House, London: Oxford University Press, 1973. Vol. I pp. 284, Vol. II pp. 366).

READINGS FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS is recommended for those of us who would hope to gain a comprehensive insight into the most important findings in linguistic research over the past fifteen years. This compilation includes articles, lectures and extracts from longer works from a wide variety of internationally recognized experts not only in linguistics, but in other related areas of investigation. Some apparent conflicts of ideas and findings from such outstanding representatives such as B.F. Spinner and Noam Chomsky enhance one's interest and stimulate the creative thinking process.

Both volumes are wirtten to interest a general audience, although the editors acknowledge that some articles are intended for specialists while others are directed at lay readers. Volume I has been divided into three sections: language as an object of scientific investigation, a variety of approaches to the aspect of structural linguistics, and, especially interesting to the classroom teacher, a section on the relation of theory to application.

Language is viewed as a skill intimately connected to social behavior. A sharp distinction is made by F. de Saussure between language and speech, with language defined as being that which gives unity to speech.

Chomsky points out once again that his theories on generative transformational grammar were not to be utilized as a methodology but rather as an explanation of language itself.

The problem of applying theory to everyday classroom situations is aptly clarified. Theoretical linguistics, as it is clearly pointed out, has important but strictly limited aims, and even these are, as Chomsky and Mackey indicate, a matter of disagreement at the present time. Not every valid linguistic theory is necessarily of value to language teaching. If teaching is an activity concerned with the creation of the best conditions for learning, one, at least, of those conditions is the provision of appropriate linguistic data in a form and sequence which can be most readily and practically made use of by the learner. The classroom

teacher acts as a mediator between this data and the learner. Pit Corder maintains that no teacher can make adequate use of classroom materials without some knowledge of linguistics.

Volume II aims at giving specific suggestions to aid the teacher in acting as mediator. Various approaches to the problem of teaching grammar, pronunciation and semantics are developed in a clearly comprehensible style. Not of secondary importance, as all classroom teachers know, are the areas of socio-and psycholinguistics. Ideas for improving group dynamics prove valuable, as well as ideas for creating a classroom atmosphere appropriate to a variety of individual differences in second language learners. Of special interest to some teachers will be the chapter on studies of comprehension by adults, the use of translation in the classroom, the extent to which error should be allowed, and the amount of drilling that should be used as a part of normal classroom procedure.

I found these volumes to be an almost autonomous source, avoiding the necessity of acquiring extensive quantities of reference material and I would highly recommend them to new as well as to more experienced teachers.

Linda Anthony,
Instituto Harmon Hall de México

Croft, Kenneth, ed., A COMPOSITE BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR ESOL TEACHER TRAINING, Washington, D. C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1974. (Available through TESOL, 455 Nevil Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D. C., 20007, $1.00, U.S.)

This bibliography, as the editor states, was compiled at the suggestion of past TESOL president Betty Wallace Robinett from the bibliographies used by some sixteen leaders in the TESOL teacher training field in Unites States colleges and universities. As such, it represents a valuable asset to the TESOL student and teacher alike. With 607 entries, it has both breadth and depth in most of the fifteen subject categories covered. Here the usual ones of Pronunciation, Grammar, Reading, Composition, Vocabulary, Testing, Teacher Training, are found, and "Sociology: Sociolinguistics."

The only category which might not have been included is that of Bilingual Education. Only thirteen items are listed--hardly an adequate treatment of the subject in any case--but perhaps only reflecting the fact that not many ESOL teacher trainers view Bilingual Education as a part of their particular field of endeavor. Indeed, several factors argue for excluding the topic from ESOL training courses. Bilingual Education teacher trainees often take TESOL work in their course of study, but this area is both more and less restrictive in nature than the usual TESOL course: Bilingual Education is involved mainly in primary education, and is not limited to language training, but assumes the teaching of subject matter in the native language as well as in English.

The treatment in certain categories is bound to seem insufficient to a given specialist. This is not to be taken as a comment on the Composite Bibliography however, but rather on the "state of the art," or on presumed weaknesses in the approaches taken in ESOL teacher training at U.S. universities. In this writer's case, "Teaching in Specific Places or to Specific Groups," was dissapointing. Few articles are mentioned which have special reference to the teaching of English to native speakers of Spanish. It is obvious that more should be done in this area. A bibliography focusing on teaching English to Spanish speakers would be highly useful for TEFL teachers in Mexico.

In the section at the end on "Other Matters" one looks in vain for something on the teaching of English for Special Purposes or English for Science and Technology. It is expected that future bibliograpies would have to devote an entire chapter to this relatively new area. Especially since the Composite Bibliography is primarily to serve teacher trainers in the United States, where much of ESL teaching is concerned with preparing students to handle their specialized fields at the university level, this lack of attention is serious and contrasts with the work being done in this area outside the United States, in the United Kingdom, Mexico, Israel, Chile, and other countries. The topic of culture is another area that might warrant separate treatment in future bibliograpies.

All in all, Professor Robinett is to be applauded for suggesting this project. Professor Croft and his collaborators have assembled a useful bibliography which all in the TESOL field will find helpful in their work. Except for periodic updating, it should render the task of compiling new bibliographies by new-comers in the field virtually unnecessary.

Eugene S. Long,
Language Institute,
University of the Americas, Pue.

Martin Bates and Tony Dudley-Evans, eds., NUCLEUS: GENERAL SCIENCE, London: Longman, 1976.

Nucleus is a new series designed for students who have had some general exposure to English and need to orient this knowledge towards a scientific and technological application. The Series consists of a general science text plus other books that deal with specialized subjects and language uses. This review will be limited to the former, since it may be used on its own, according to the authors, as well as in conjuction with the supplementary readers.

General Science emphasizes the notional, rather than grammatical approach, to the teaching of English as a second language. Thus the student is limited to the examples given in the various formations of sentences instead of being prepared to create further knowledge on the basis of explanation in terms of added constructions and distinctions. One example of this type of limitation may be found in Unit 8 with regard to the relative clause involving "ing." A good contrast to this approach of the unexplained or isolated example concerning the same point is found in Chapter 4 of the English In Focus series on Mechanical Engineering (Oxford University Press, 1973) where short explanations are used to advantage in order to build and contrast sentence formations dealing with the relative clause. The authors of Nucleus: General Science miss another opportunity to elaborate with respect to the formation of the noun phrase in Section 1 of Unit 5 and in Section 1 of Unit 8. Relationship and reinforcement of the language of the general sciences is lost as a result of the omission of occasional explanation which would provide the potential for new material and word-building ability for the student.

Considering the text on its own terms, the teacher's manual stresses that the language utilized in the course is that ".... which is shared by the various branches of science and technology ...." This stated goal assumes the reality or possibility of said "shared language." Further clarification of this ambitious project would seem necessary to understand the nature of the supposed reciprocity. Does it lie within the realm of terminology, grammatical structure, and/or notions and concepts? More concretely, does this shared aspect of the sciences allow a student of physics to easily understand a textbook concerning psychology, for example? What is shared and not shared by the language of the different sciences is a vital issue that would require a studied analysis.

The textbook is divided into three major sections that deal with form, process and measurement. Almost every page is graphically illustrated. The technical drawings are excellent and offer many opportunities to elicit oral and written response. For the sake of variety (teacher's manual), the authors break the thematic unity of these concepts with the exception of the first one. The viability of interweaving the ideas of process and measure-

ment in the second set of units seems to be questioned by the authors themselves since measurement is virtually neglected in the review of these chapters. Unit 6, which deals with process in terms of actions in sequence, confuses spatial with dynamic and mechanical processes. The examples given on pages 47 and 48, involve the direction of a road and a railway. These are out of keeping in tone and nature with the technical processes described on pages 44 and 50 and might well have been included in Section 3 of Unit 2, which deals with geographic location. The deliberate shift of tone and approach in Units 5 and 7 detracts from the serious avowal that "The texts and exercises demonstrate ways in which the scientist and technologist describe the phenomena and processes which they are concerned with."

As with any textbook, it is necessary to analyze and revise, so as to receive the full benefits of its guidance and research. Nucleus: General Science can be a useful new series for teachers and students in the field of technical English.

M. E. Teresa Austria
Language Institute,
University of the Americas

Marina K. Burt and Heidi C. Dulay, Eds., NEW DIRECTIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING: TEACHING AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION, (Washington, D. C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1975)

As a valuable instrument for bringing together new discoveries, insights, techniques and policies that are contributing to new directions in second language education, TESOL representatives effectively draw our attention to the need for an appreciation of the complexities of the human mind and a respect for the particular needs and feelings of individuals and social groups.

Writers are careful to clearly tie-in theory with practical implementation. The wide spectrum from teaching specific language skills to developing non-verbal communication in the classroom is richly covered. Specific suggestions for the use of games, comics, television commercials and error correction are made.

Of special interest to MEXTESOL readers is the publication of "Games Students Can Play" by Grace Scott and "Competence in the ESOL Classroom" by Michael Long, both active MEXTESOL members.

An extensive bibliography helps orient those readers who wish to augment their knowledge of any one specific area of investigation or applied linguistics.

It is with special enthusiasm that I urge readers to acquire this volume for their personal libraries.

L. A.

Margaret Collis, ed., USING ENVIRONMENT: (1) EARLY EXPLORATIONS. London: Macdonald Educational, 1974.

USING ENVIRONMENT: (1) EARLY EXPLORATIONS is the first volume of a series of five for children between the ages of five and thirteen years which helps young people learn science through first-hand experience using a variety of materials. This work deals with discoveries children make through their natural interest in the out-of-doors and the problems that arise from their investigations. "Such first-hand experience is the basis of learning, provoking thought, giving children many ideas to share through speech and writing and sending them to books and other secondary sources of information to add to their own findings."

The text is divided into four chapters, with an additional section on objectives for children learning science. There are many ideas for helping children to become aware of their environment through well-planned questions. The children's discoveries, in turn, lead to ideas for exercises and projects. For example, in the section titled "Concentrating on Looking Downwards," the teacher asks her students, "Why do you think colours are mixed in some stones?" then, "I wonder how many stones of different sizes you can find," and "If you can find two stones that seem to be the same size can you think of any way of finding out whether one is really bigger than the other?" In the section on "Listening" a typical question is "How do you know whether an aeroplane is approaching or disappearing if you cannot see it?"

The fascinating chapter on "Observing Numerical and Spatial Aspects of the Environment" introduces dozens of concepts: the recognition of similarities of items in a set which are not identical; the selective nature of size; the use of a part of a body as a unit of length; the beginning of estimation; and the constancy of length in spite of appearances. Each one of these is followed by a series of questions and projects, making the concepts become self evident through personal discovery.

It is apparent from the extensive coverage of topics in this book that Margaret Collis has spent many years working with children. Any bilingual teacher, even with limited training or experience, could find many ways to use the author's experience for stimulating her students in the learning of English. And living in a large city such as Mexico, D. F. would not necessarily inhibit a teacher from awakening the senses of her students to their surroundings.

Penelope K. Johnson
Instituto Harmon Hall de México

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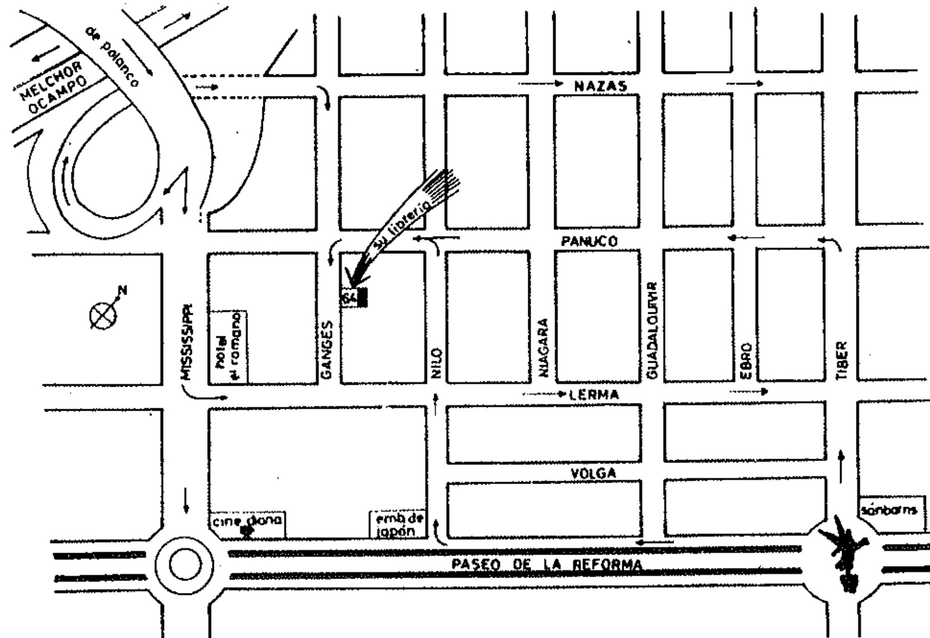

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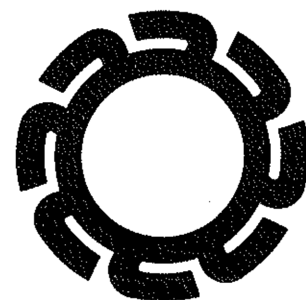

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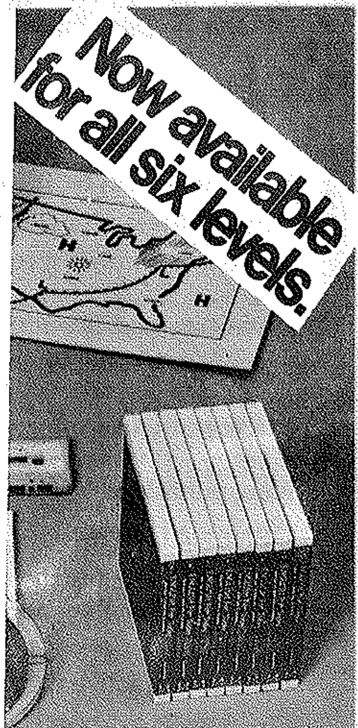

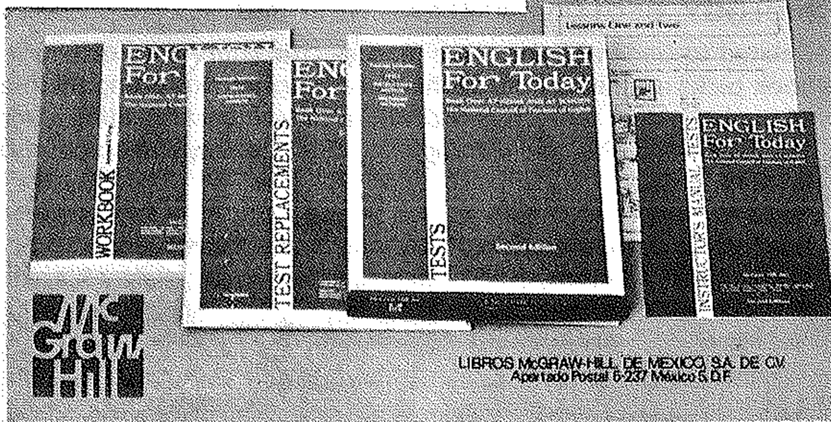

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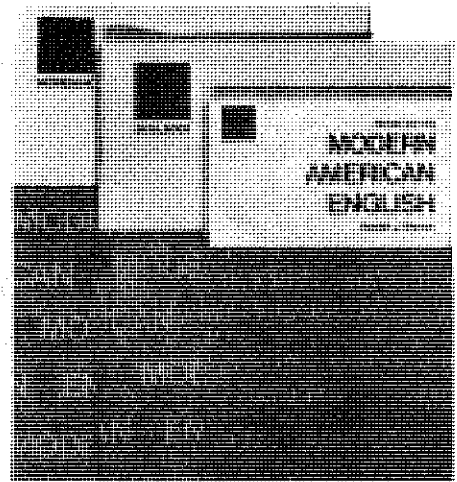

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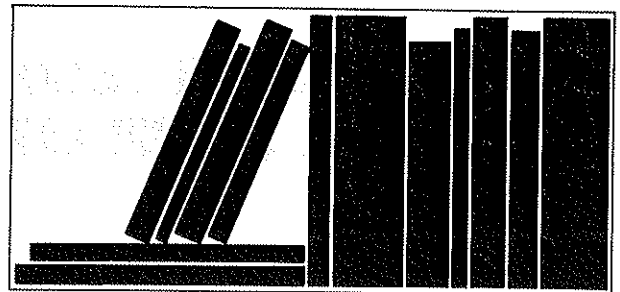

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