

DOGMA DUCK AND THE ELECTRIC METHOD:
ECLECTICISM, POLEMICS AND DOGMAS -
TO WARDS A RATIONAL APPROACH¹

A.M.Shaw

1. Introduction

The dogmatic absolutism of the 40s to 60s was followed by a new flexibility, an eclecticism (known by some of my pupils as the "electric method") which, basing itself on a number of new trends in the fields of linguistics, psychology and education, gave rise to, and indeed continues to give rise to, a series of new methodological trends and approaches (Shaw, in press).

The language teaching profession, evidently easy prey to fashions and polarizations, has appeared to leap around from one fashion to the next. In the last ten years or so, we have moved, according to Castaños (1983), from the "functional-notional syllabus" to "problem-solving" by way of "negotiation." At the same time, new dogmas are arising which do not fail to remind us of the former 'absolutism': "everything is problem-solving"; "only authentic materials should be used"; "you shouldn't do that, it's not communicative", and so on (Shaw, in press). At the same time, our 'eclectic' approach is criticized for its apparent lack of coherence and rigor.

What should be the attitude of the unfortunate teacher who

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has to live and work through such turbulent times? Should he allow himself to be carried by the waves of anarchy, to be shipwrecked perhaps on the shoals of reality, or should he search for a compass to aid him in his navigation?

It is some consolation to recall that the dramatic leaps executed by the high-wire artists of our profession up there among the peaks should not directly determine what goes on in our classrooms. They should by all means continue to execute them, because they oblige us to think, to question, and at times to change our ideas and our practice. But we should not lose sight of the fact that, while the characteristic of conventions and professorial addresses is to polarize; that is, to present ideas in a more or less extreme or polemic form, the tendency of the classroom is rather to synthesize.

We may, therefore, say that although the erratic leaps of fashion described by Castaños may indeed have taken place, at the level of classroom practice they have been combining in a process of synthesis. Thus, in many classrooms the idea of a functional-notional syllabus is being exploited (perhaps in the form of a communicative syllabus in which the linguistic and strategic components are given due attention), subject to negotiation, and using problem-solving techniques where appropriate (as well as others).

If, then, we agree that the function of, for example, conventions is to give us 'new' ideas and formulations, fierily and polemically presented, and that the function of actual practice (classroom teaching and course and materials development) is to synthesize them, does this mean that we should accept everything and throw it into the melting-pot of our methodology? At times this almost appears to be the case...

But I believe that a remedy exists. There is no need to abandon oneself to a blind, manic eclecticism, nor to lose oneself in the polarizations. What we need is an approach, a "commitment

to particular, specified points of view... about language teaching" (Strevens 1977). In his original formulation, Anthony (1963) defines an approach as a set of interrelated postulates having to do with the nature of language and of the teaching-learning of language. According to Anthony, an approach is axiomatic and affirms a point of view, a philosophy, an article of faith in which one believes without necessarily being able to prove it.

Allwright describes an approach as "the relatively stable, often collective basis of theories and experiences, which may be important in a given situation in order to find a way based on certain principles to achieve established objectives" (translated by author from Ammmlex 1984; original version of text not available at time of writing). As far as the contents of the approach are concerned, Strevens mentions "language teaching" in general, and Anthony specifies, still in fairly general terms, that it would relate to "the nature of language and the nature of the teaching-learning of the language." The implications of this are discussed in section 3 below.

Once we have a solid approach, based on our convictions about learning and language (among other things) - convictions which would of course be open to modification and change - we can develop relatively rigorous criteria for deciding what we are going to accept and how we are going to apply it.

In view of these considerations, what I propose to do in this article is to demonstrate the value of an approach of this kind in enabling us to move from a blind eclecticism to a rational eclecticism, based on explicit principles. An approach of this kind enables us to face new ideas with confidence, choosing what appears useful to us and is in accordance with our approach. We may, of course, decide from time to time to modify the approach itself.

I first discuss several models in order to arrive at the one which serves as the basis for this article, and I then give an example

of an approach based on the model. I present my approach as an 'exemplification' for three reasons. Firstly, I would not wish to present it in a normative way, for fear of creating yet another set of dogmas. Secondly, I feel it is important that every teacher should be continually developing his own approach, based on his experience and knowledge of the linguistic and other disciplines involved. And finally, I would not have space in an article of this length to describe an approach in full detail.

I shall then consider a number of polemical questions in the light of my approach in order to show how such an approach can help guide us when faced with questions of this kind. Clearly, my intention is not to go very deeply into each individual question - each would need an article on its own - but rather to illustrate the idea of considering questions of this type in the light of an approach.

2. Approach, Design and Procedure

In developing a model, I would like to take as my starting point the ideas which Richards and Rodgers put forward (1982) with the intention of bringing up to date those of Anthony (1963), and fitting them better for the task of analyzing current methodologies. Anthony had proposed the three categories of "approach," "method" and "technique." Richards and Rodgers criticized certain aspects of his scheme, and suggested the following:

TABLE ONE

APPROACH	DESIGN	PROCEDURES
Language Learning	Content Roles of teacher and pupils Teaching materi- als	Teacher's techniques (for presenting, etc) Exercises and activities in the materials Resources of time, space, and equipment in the class- room

It is important to stress that everything that refers to "design" or "procedures" should be subject to the criteria of the "approach"; that is to say, to our ideas on language and learning (and, one would also need to add, on education in a wider sense - see section 3 below).

3. Adaptation of the Richards and Rodgers model

My intention here is somewhat different from that of Richards and Rodgers, who set out to give us an analytic framework for studying methodologies. For my purposes, the approach column of Table 1 retains its fundamental importance as the basis of the model. But the design column contains too many components, which I prefer to separate.

In the first place, I need to distinguish more clearly between the nature of the syllabus and its objectives on the one hand, and the process in the classroom on the other; although there may of course be overlap between them in the extent to which the process in the classroom may include the negotiation, elaboration, or even 'generation' of objectives (as is made clear by Richards and Rodgers' model).

Secondly, their separation between materials and techniques does not suit my present purpose (though they actually focus on the role of the materials, and not on the materials per se).

A third problem is the fact that their approach is limited to a theory of language and language learning, whereas in my opinion other elements should enter, such as: the educational disciplines - philosophy and sociology of education, and educational technology, at least (though I shall not in fact have space to discuss these elements as part of the approach in the present article.)

In view of the above considerations, I have modified Richards and Rodgers' schema, adopting instead the one which appears in

Table 2:

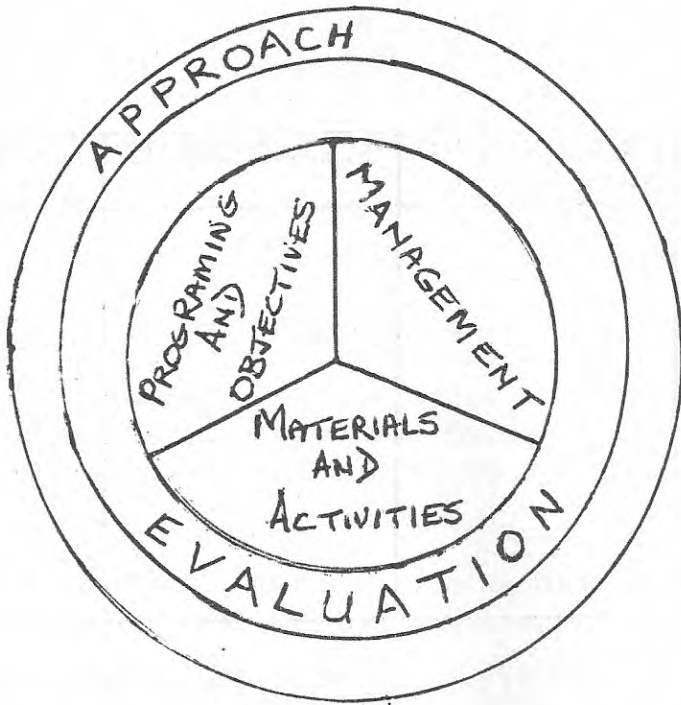
TABLE 2

APPROACH	PROGRAMING/ OBJECTIVES	'MANAGEMENT'	MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES
Language Language learning (Education and other relevant disciplines)			

Another more generalized criticism of Richards and Rodgers' model related to the fact that it does not include the aspect of evaluation, which should play a fundamental part in any model with any pretensions to completeness (see, for example, the model in Breen and Candlin 1980). This component would include, on the one hand, the evaluation of the progress and achievement of the pupils and, on the other, the aspects of programing and objectives, management, and materials and activities.

The 'complete' model could be represented in the form of three concentric circles. The 'approach' circle would contain all the other aspects; the 'evaluation' circle, inside the first, would include the three remaining aspects. This would give clear expression to the fact that the approach should determine (or at least interact with) everything, including the evaluation (see Table 3):

TABLE 3:



Returning to my original model, we could thus add a further column on the right for evaluation, giving the following result:

TABLE 4:

APPROACH	PROGRAMING/ OBJECTIVES	'MANAGEMENT'	MATERIALS/ ACTIVITIES	EVALUA TION

Since, however, evaluation is not mentioned in the following discussion I shall not again refer to it in my schema.

As I mentioned earlier, my intention in the remainder of this article is to exemplify what I mean by an approach (see 4), and then to apply the explicit and implicit criteria of my approach to a series

of current polarizations (see 5). That is, in terms of Table 2, I am going to complete the first column (that of the approach), and then attempt to use it to throw light on a number of problems classified under the remaining three columns.

4. Exemplification of an approach

The approach which I expound in this section corresponds more or less to my own beliefs. Nonetheless, I put it forward only as an example without any wish to give it a normative value. Nor do I claim that it is very complete. My intention is above all to illustrate the kind of ideas which belong in an approach.

4.1 Psychology and language learning: This section is divided into 'motivation', 'learning and acquisition', 'the individual and group dynamics' and the 'reduction of tension'.

4.1.1 Motivation: Apart from the classic analysis of motivation in terms of integrative and instrumental motivation, there also exists a type of motivation which has been called intrinsic. Intrinsic motivation relates to the inherent attractiveness of the objectives, the materials, the activities, and the way in which learning is organized. Here one may also mention aspects such as participation and the assumption of responsibility on the part of the pupil, through decision-making in general and negotiation in particular. We also need to stress the need to give the pupil a sense of progress, to make him aware of the extent to which he is achieving the objectives which, in some measure, he has contributed to formulating or selecting (within the limits of the practical situation).

4.1.2 Learning and acquisition: I use these terms, which in my opinion represent an extremely important contribution to our thinking, not in the most extreme sense which has occasionally been given to them by Krashen (1979), but to distinguish two phenomena which are related, and perhaps interwoven, in a way which has still not been definitively explained.

I see 'learning' (in this limited sense) in terms of more or

less conscious cognitive processes, the conceptualization of how the language functions, and the development and use of strategies of learning. However, I also see memorization and the deliberate formation of habits and associations as part of learning. I understand Krashen's acquisition as the process of arriving at a fluent and more or less automatic command of a language, which we achieve unconsciously and in a relatively mysterious way in the course of communicative activities in a favorable environment (see "affective filter" in Dulay and Burt 1977).

In my view, habits and associations may also be formed through such acquisition activities.

4.1.3 The individual and group dynamics: In recent years, psychopedagogy has been giving ever-increasing importance to the pupil as an individual. In fact, psychology (apart from social psychology) has almost always focused on the individual, but practical pedagogy took some time to recognize this fact. We continued to treat our classes as if all the pupils reacted and learned in the same way.

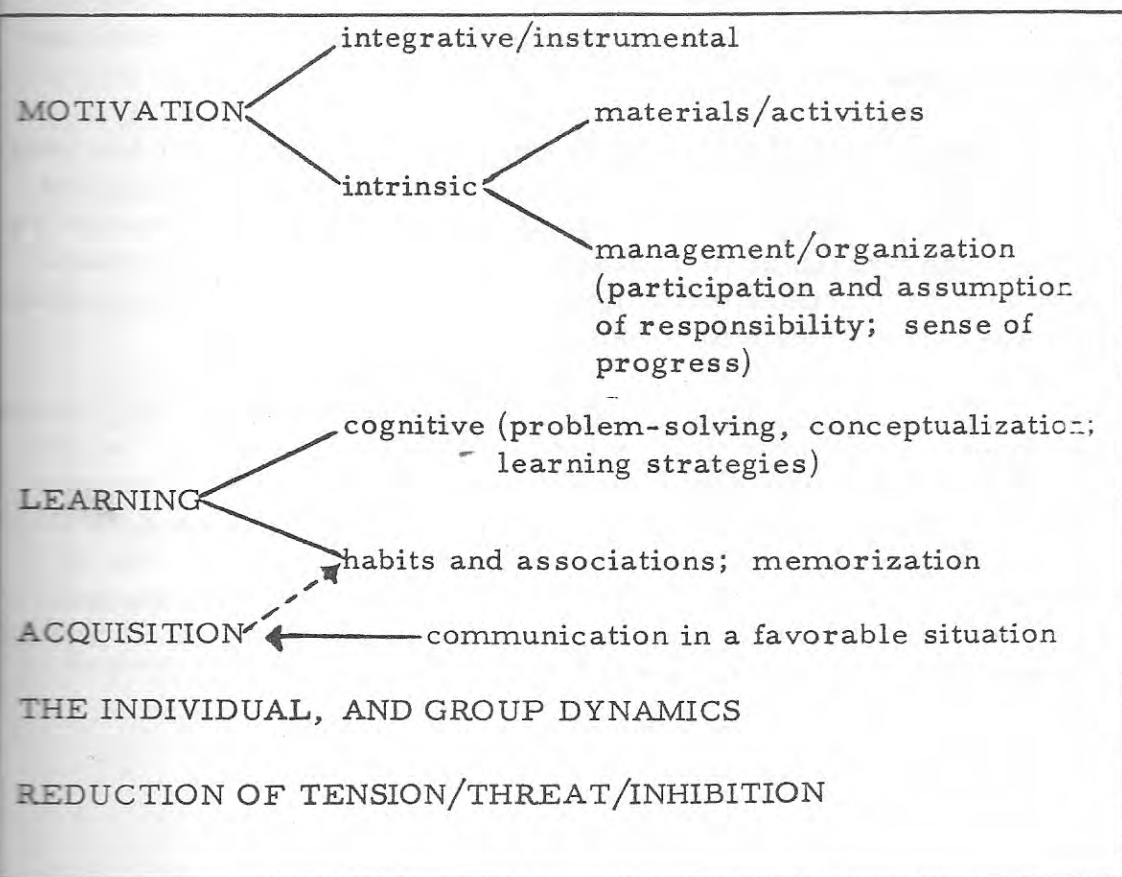
Clearly, behaviorist psychology must take a good part of the blame. But with the growing importance of cognitive psychology, psychologists, including educational psychologists, began to give greater recognition to the great differences between the ways of thinking and 'being', learning styles and strategies, and mental processes and interests of individual pupils (Bruner et al. 1956, Bruner 1959 and 1961; Sperry 1972 and Ausubel 1976).

On the other hand, it had to be admitted that learning is normally organized in groups, and also that it is almost impossible to manage by oneself the whole process of learning to communicate in a second language. Hence, the importance of group dynamics, which gives us a closer understanding of the complexity of teacher-pupil relationships and pupil-pupil relationships, and gives us a number of techniques for 'managing' them (Cirigliano and Villaverde 1975, Schmuck and Schmuck 1974).

4.1.4 Reduction of tension: Various authors have stressed the frequency of 'blockages' of pupils (the inability to produce the second language and, perhaps, even to receive it) resulting from tension (Stevick 1980 and 1984). Pupils feel threatened and are afraid to make mistakes and make fools of themselves in front of the teacher and their classmates. They are, therefore, unwilling to speak, and without speaking it is difficult for acquisition to take place. For this reason many authors suggest ways of reducing tension (Stevick 1980, 1984 and Moskowitz 1978). Nonetheless, it must be admitted that a complete lack of tension could also reduce motivation and prove counterproductive.

4.1.5 Summary of Section 4.1: The aspects which have just been discussed are summarized in Table 5:

TABLE 5



4.2 Language and language use: Here I discuss only those aspects which appear to me to be most important for the present purpose; that is, discourse, the linguistic and semantic components, communicative strategies, and socio-cultural aspects.

4.2.1 Discourse: In recent years, the importance of discourse has grown considerably, both in linguistic research and in language teaching. Admittedly, every school of linguists uses the term in a different way, including or excluding, for example, the analysis of conversation, text analysis, and so on. But the important thing for language teaching is that we are acquiring a more adequate basis of knowledge of the classification and structure of different types of communication or discourse, about "rules of speaking" (Hymes 1972), "verbal action patterns" (Hamel 1982), "cohesion and coherence" (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Widdowson 1978), and so on. These advances enable us to consider language not as a member of narrowly linguistic systems but rather as options for action or behavior in social contexts. Clearly, this has very important implications for second-language teaching.

4.2.2 Linguistic and semantic components: Over the past few years we have added to the traditional elements of structures, lexis and pronunciation (and in certain situations graphology - information relating to the written or printed language), semantic and pragmatic units such as functions and notions, which are still not fully developed but have certainly proved useful.

4.2.3 Strategies of communication: Canale and Swain (1980) stressed the importance of what they called "strategic competence," which they placed alongside linguistic and sociolinguistic competence as objectives of language teaching. In the past, the use of such strategies was often even punished by teachers - for example, the invention of words (from the mother tongue, for instance), the use of structures not yet 'taught' in the course, the mixing of L1 and L2, the use of mime, and so on.

We still do not have a very complete inventory of communicative strategies (Shaw 1983, Faerch and Kasper 1983, Gumperz 1982), but we know that we need to get pupils to be aware of strategies, and to give them plenty of opportunities to develop them (through freer communicative activities, for example, and through the discussion of the strategies themselves).

4.2.4 Socio-cultural aspects: We may be concerned with a variety of cultural and socio-cultural aspects ranging from knowledge of, for example, the history, art and economy of the target country (or countries) to the various socio-cultural norms for each type of communication. The former may be important as a background to communication with natives; the latter, obviously, give form and substance to communication itself. And between these two extremes lies a whole range of socio-cultural knowledge which could (time permitting) be included in a foreign language course.

4.2.5 Summary of section 4: The aspects we have just discussed are summarized in Table 6:

TABLE 6

DISCOURSE	(written/spoken)
LINGUISTIC COMPONENTS	
(inc. SEMANTIC):	(morpho-syntax, lexis, pronunciation, 'graphology'; functions, notions)
COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES	
SOCIO-CULTURAL ASPECTS	

5. Polemics and Polarizations

In this section, as I mentioned, I propose to consider some of the dogmas and polarizations which have arisen, in the light of the approach which I have just sketched out.

In Table 7 the reader may see the ideas which will be discussed, classified according to the model in Table 2.

TABLE 7

<p>5.1 <u>Programing/objectives:</u></p> <p>.1 Programing versus methodology (product vs.process) .2 Communication vs. learning of systems</p>
<p>5.2 <u>Management:</u></p> <p>.1 Authoritarianism vs. anti-authoritarianism .2 Fixed program vs. negotiation .3 Individualization vs. lockstep</p>
<p>5.3 <u>Materials and activities:</u></p> <p>.1 Cognitive processes vs. suggestions and acquisition .2 Problem-solving vs. entertainment or passivity .3 Inductive vs. deductive learning .4 Authentic vs. non-authentic materials</p>
<p>5.4 General: the Computer</p>

5.1 Programing and objectives:

5.1.1 Programing versus methodology: I already mentioned Castaños' comment on the leap from the functional-notional syllab-

bus to negotiation. Canetti wrote (1970) that "the power of mistaken ideas lies in their extreme mistakenness" ("Die Kraft falscher Gedanken liegt in ihrer extremen Falschheit").

In fact, the development of the functional-notional syllabus, in itself a response to the then-recent preoccupation with the question of "What to teach?", provoked a powerful (and perhaps salutary) reaction to the effect that, rather than paying so much attention to programing (supposedly previous to the course), it would be preferable to concentrate on what actually happens in classrooms, and to develop the course according to the needs and interests revealed by the negotiation process. The debate crystalized around the two poles of product (i. e. objectives, or desired outcome), and process (methodology and learning processes) (Early 1982).

If it were necessary to include in our approach a section entitled 'Common Sense' (it probably is), it would contain the statement that teaching in all its aspects should adjust to the realities of the situation. In this case (process vs. product) it is a question of taking into account the policies of the institution, the desires and needs (present and future) of the pupils and their learning processes, and the resources available (human, material, time).

According to our approach (4.2.2) language consists of various elements, functions and notions among others, which the pupil needs to master as dictated by his objectives and those of the institution. On the other hand, we have stated our belief in the participation of the pupil by means of negotiation (4.1.1). Furthermore, our belief in the importance of the individual (4.1.3) obliges us to carry out, where possible, analyses of needs and wishes. But none of this implies any contradiction. The analysis is carried out (as the situation permits); a program or syllabus is worked out (but in the most flexible form the situation will permit), and this program is negotiated with the pupils. In certain situations, and with certain methodologies (Community Language Learning,

Stevick 1980), it is not necessary to prepare the program in advance, but in many situations it is essential to develop materials (at least some of them) before the course begins. Thus, perhaps the polarization we mentioned has proved fruitful, but only because it has helped us to reach a balanced solution (synthesis) based on our approach.

5.1.2 Communication versus learning of systems: As long ago as the 1940's, André Malraux prophesied that the word 'communication' would before long lose all meaning. Maybe we even need "academies, which would have the task of abolishing certain words" (Canetti 1970). At any rate, the word 'communication' has imposed itself with such force that, almost before the smile of welcome has faded from our faces, we find ourselves having to defend ourselves against it. I have already cited the dogma, "You can't do that. It's not communicative!"

Nonetheless, basing ourselves on our approach, we may reply as follows:

- i. Language consists of grammatical and phonological systems as well as functions and notions.
- ii. In order to achieve the 'learning' which will give him a solid basis to support and (in my opinion) facilitate 'acquisition', the pupil needs to use his cognitive powers to master the linguistic systems. But for acquisition to be possible, he will also need to communicate (4.1.2). Furthermore, I believe that he needs communicative objectives for motivation (4.1.1) and, in many cases, to maximize the usefulness of the course.
- iii. Since our approach recognizes the importance of strategic competence (4.2.3), it will be necessary to include communicative objectives in order to permit the development of this type of competence.

In view of the above, we need, according to our approach, not only communicative but also linguistic objectives. Once again, our approach suggests not a polarization but a synthesis.

5.2 Management:

5.2.1 Authoritarianism versus anti-authoritarianism: In the period following 1968, there was a very powerful reaction against authoritarianism, and this could hardly fail to have repercussions in teacher-student relationships. Many teachers, under the impact of the events of 1968, wished to abandon all authority and hand it over to the pupils, often with disastrous results (some of which may still be felt).

According to our approach, we may see that on the one hand the motivation and 'responsibilization' of the pupil necessitate his participation, through negotiation as well as in other ways, in decision-making (4.1.1). On the other hand, group dynamics (4.1.3) points to the need for someone to organize and manage, and, in the case of foreign language learning, someone who 'knows' (i.e. knows the language). If nobody assumes these roles the pupil may feel insecure, and his motivation and sense of progress may suffer (4.1.1).

Thus, our approach again suggests a compromise solution: namely that the teacher should organize activities in such a way that the pupil may participate in decision-making, but not in such a way that he should abandon his role of manager and knower. In other words, authority should be shared (Shaw and Emilsson, publication pending).

5.2.2 Fixed program versus negotiation: This question has just been dealt with in different terms (5.1.1 and 5.2.1). If we take into account the situation, the methodology adopted, and our approach itself, we may arrive at various possible types of relationships between programming and negotiation, ranging from a methodology like Community Language Learning, where the entire content is

the result of the process and the negotiation, to a situation where many aspects of the program cannot be changed. However, certain aspects of a course can virtually always be negotiated - perhaps the organization of work, and certain of the contents, activities, supplementary objectives, and so on.

5.2.3 Individualization versus lockstep: The approach stresses individual variation and also group dynamics (4.1.3). How marvelous if we could meet all the wishes and needs of each individual, and cater for his individual learning styles, interests and so on! But, in the first place, the individual is a member of a group and presumably draws some of his own motivation from the group dynamics themselves. And secondly, the development of individualized courses and materials (Mariani 1981), especially at beginners and intermediate levels, requires resources - (human, material, and of time) which may in many institutions be available only in very limited measure.

Nevertheless, compromise solutions are again possible, such as partially modular courses, optional supplementary material or the organization of at least part of the work in groups, and sometimes on an individual basis. And such solutions may enable us to put into practice, at least to some extent, the criteria of our approach (Dickinson 1978 and Henner-Stanchina 1978).

5.3 Materials and activities:

5.3.1 Cognitive processes versus suggestion and acquisition: We have already discussed the relationship between 'learning' through our cognitive processes and the 'acquisition' which we may achieve more or less unconsciously through communication. However, ideas relating to the exploitation of the unconscious using suggestion are attracting increasing attention. In fact, there are signs that the capacity of the human being for learning, and supposedly acquiring, languages (and other material) is quite dramatically superior to

what we thought. Galisson (1983), in an extremely interesting book on the history of hypnotism and suggestion and the development by Lozanov of Suggestopaedia, cites, for example, the acquisition of 1200 vocabulary items in one day (with the ability to use them correctly in communication). There remain, of course, many problems. However, since almost (?) all teachers already use suggestion in some form or other, though often unconsciously, it is probable that we could use it more systematically. Nor is it likely that we would need to follow all of Lozanov's methodological procedure exactly, though we should of course need a firm basis of knowledge and training to avoid misusing suggestion. But we may succeed in integrating suggestion into our approach and developing our own criteria and procedures for its exploitation.

5.3.2 Problem-solving versus entertainment or passivity: One may note a tendency to claim that everything is problem-solving. It has been observed (Karmiloff-Smith 1984) that while animals learn in order to achieve some concrete goal, children appear to experience pleasure in problem-solving itself, including in the learning of their mother tongue.

Let us admit right away that problem-solving, if used right, is an extremely valuable resource in foreign language learning (and indeed in other learning) (Urdal 1984), and that it is also fundamental for our approach (4.1.2). It is nevertheless true to say that it does not include all of the techniques which may be of use to us, such as, for example, suggestions and certain kinds of game-like or purely entertaining activities. True, it may be said that we do not know to what extent problem-solving may enter into even supposedly passive activities. Furthermore, the relationship between problem-solving and, say, suggestion, would be an extremely interesting area of study. But what I would wish to avoid would be the distortion of activities which work perfectly well solely in order to give them the appearance of problem-solving. Let us not fall into the trap of turning a resource, however valuable, into a dogma!

5.3.3 Inductive and deductive learning: Our knowledge of the value for learning of discovery leads us to prefer inductive techniques (example(s) ----> rule) to deductive techniques (rule ---> application). Moreover, our approach, with its insistence on pupil participation, on the importance of learning strategies, and on the achievement of independence (4.1.2) and the development of cognitive powers in general (4.1.2), fully supports this preference.

Yet it should be recognized that purely inductive procedures are not always possible. As Greene points out (1975), our inductive process leads us at a certain point to form a hypothesis. From this moment a part of our activity consists in the deductive process of applying our hypothesis, or testing it - what she calls a "hypothetico-deductive process." This is, of course, still not the same as the traditional process of (blindly?) applying the rule given us by the teacher or the textbook. But do not let us be too dogmatic in our condemnation of the use of deductive processes. It is also worth noting that, in a class, the moment one pupil discovers the rule (or a rule) and reveals it to the others, the process may become for the others a deductive or hypothetico-deductive one.

5.2.4 Authentic and non-authentic materials: Our approach stresses the importance of discourse (obviously 'authentic') (4.2.1) and socio-cultural norms (4.2.4). As it seems unlikely that we shall have available very complete descriptions of these areas for a given language, the best solution is to use recorded or written/printed authentic documents. But is there any reason why they should be exclusively authentic, as some would wish? It is often difficult to obtain truly authentic documents (I would not wish to enter here into definitions of 'authenticity'... e.g. Widdowson 1978), and we are obliged to simulate them. Sometimes we may follow a suggestion of Widdowson's and give the pupil a simplified version (or even more than one) before facing him with the authentic document itself. It is possible to find various justifications for the use of non-authentic materials for certain activities. The most

important thing is that we should give priority, as our approach suggests, to the study of natural discourse and avoid doing violence through ignorance to socio-cultural norms.

5.4 The computer: Finally, and perhaps as a kind of apocalyptic warning, I would like to mention the threat, as well as the incalculable potential, of the computer, which could, in my view, contribute to almost any area of language learning (and indeed other learning). We have already seen what happened with the language laboratory. It was invented, it was commercialized, it became a status symbol, and it was generally exploited with an inadequate psychological basis (behaviorism again). People hoped for great things from the mere presence of the equipment, and inevitably this led to disappointments. For many people, the language laboratory hardly exists any longer. This is a pity because if we use it well and develop it in the service of our approach, it has tremendous potential.

Very much the same kind of thing may be happening with the computer. To get an idea of its popularity, it will suffice to take a look at the program of the 1984 TESOL Convention, or others. It is possible that those aspects will be developed which favor the interests of commercial companies, academic researchers, and administrators. ("We already have a computer in every classroom.. No, unfortunately, we don't have adequate materials yet... But...")

I am convinced that the computer also has great, and at the moment almost unforeseeable potential for language learning, especially with its escalating availability (home computers, etc). But do not let us fall into dogmatism; do not let us think that everything will necessarily be better done by computer. Why should we let people sell us materials which are ideal for commercialization but conflict with our approach?

Here again, let us act according to our convictions and our approach. Let us consider the potential of the computer in relation to the tasks and roles of pupils and teachers (and other elements

in the language learning process) to enable us to see where the computer can do the job better, without disproportionate sacrifices of what we consider important.

Let us also act rationally and not dogmatically.

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